

## INFORMATION TO USERS

This reproduction was made from a copy of a document sent to us for microfilming. While the most advanced technology has been used to photograph and reproduce this document, the quality of the reproduction is heavily dependent upon the quality of the material submitted.

The following explanation of techniques is provided to help clarify markings or notations which may appear on this reproduction.

1. The sign or "target" for pages apparently lacking from the document photographed is "Missing Page(s)". If it was possible to obtain the missing page(s) or section, they are spliced into the film along with adjacent pages. This may have necessitated cutting through an image and duplicating adjacent pages to assure complete continuity.
2. When an image on the film is obliterated with a round black mark, it is an indication of either blurred copy because of movement during exposure, duplicate copy, or copyrighted materials that should not have been filmed. For blurred pages, a good image of the page can be found in the adjacent frame. If copyrighted materials were deleted, a target note will appear listing the pages in the adjacent frame.
3. When a map, drawing or chart, etc., is part of the material being photographed, a definite method of "sectioning" the material has been followed. It is customary to begin filming at the upper left hand corner of a large sheet and to continue from left to right in equal sections with small overlaps. If necessary, sectioning is continued again—beginning below the first row and continuing on until complete.
4. For illustrations that cannot be satisfactorily reproduced by xerographic means, photographic prints can be purchased at additional cost and inserted into your xerographic copy. These prints are available upon request from the Dissertations Customer Services Department.
5. Some pages in any document may have indistinct print. In all cases the best available copy has been filmed.

**University  
Microfilms  
International**

300 N. Zeeb Road  
Ann Arbor, MI 48106



8315657

Turner, Edward Jay

FACTORS INFLUENCING THE OCCUPATIONAL ASPIRATIONS OF LOW-  
INCOME SOUTHERN YOUTH: A LONGITUDINAL STUDY

*The University of North Carolina at Greensboro*

PH.D. 1983

University  
Microfilms  
International

300 N. Zeeb Road, Ann Arbor, MI 48106



PLEASE NOTE:

In all cases this material has been filmed in the best possible way from the available copy. Problems encountered with this document have been identified here with a check mark .

1. Glossy photographs or pages \_\_\_\_\_
2. Colored illustrations, paper or print \_\_\_\_\_
3. Photographs with dark background \_\_\_\_\_
4. Illustrations are poor copy \_\_\_\_\_
5. Pages with black marks, not original copy \_\_\_\_\_
6. Print shows through as there is text on both sides of page \_\_\_\_\_
7. Indistinct, broken or small print on several pages  \_\_\_\_\_
8. Print exceeds margin requirements \_\_\_\_\_
9. Tightly bound copy with print lost in spine \_\_\_\_\_
10. Computer printout pages with indistinct print \_\_\_\_\_
11. Page(s) \_\_\_\_\_ lacking when material received, and not available from school or author.
12. Page(s) \_\_\_\_\_ seem to be missing in numbering only as text follows.
13. Two pages numbered \_\_\_\_\_. Text follows.
14. Curling and wrinkled pages \_\_\_\_\_
15. Other \_\_\_\_\_

University  
Microfilms  
International



FACTORS INFLUENCING THE OCCUPATIONAL  
ASPIRATIONS OF LOW-INCOME SOUTHERN  
YOUTH: A LONGITUDINAL STUDY

by

Edward J. Turner

A Dissertation submitted to  
the Faculty of the Graduate School at  
The University of North Carolina at Greensboro  
in Partial Fulfillment  
of the Requirements for the Degree  
Doctor of Philosophy

Greensboro  
1983

Approved by

  
Dissertation Adviser

APPROVAL PAGE

This dissertation has been approved by the following committee of the Faculty of the Graduate School at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro.

Dissertation Adviser Sarah M. Shoppner  
Committee Members Hym Rodin  
Rebecca M. Smith  
Kendra Smith  
Barbara Clawson

February 4, 1983  
Date of Acceptance by Committee

February 4, 1983  
Date of Final Oral Examination



TURNER, EDWARD JAY. The Factors Influencing the Occupational Aspirations of Low-Income Southern Youth: A Longitudinal Study. (1983) Directed by: Dr. Sarah M. Shoffner. Pp. 228

The present longitudinal study investigated the changing importance of factors influencing the occupational aspirations of low-income Southern youth over a 10-year span. Utilizing the status attainment modelling efforts of Blau and Duncan (1967) and Sewell et al. (1969), the present study attempted to determine the explanatory power of their model when applied to the occupational aspirations of a sample of youth over time as well as the changing influence of the designated independent variables.

Subjects for the study consisted of a sample ( $N = 544$ ) of low-income Southern youth from rural and urban settings, who had been followed for 10 years. The total group from six Southern states (Kentucky, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, and Virginia) included 91 black males, 97 black females, 150 white males, and 206 white females. The basic model was examined by race and sex for each period in the study (i.e., in the preadolescent, adolescent, and post-high-school years). The basic path model included three exogenous variables (sex, family background, and race) and five intervening variables (mental ability, significant others' influence, academic motivation, and educational goals). The dependent variable, occupational aspirations, was measured in terms of the NORC (National Opinion Research Center) status continuum rating.

Five hypotheses were tested through the use of path analytic procedures. The first hypothesis that the

independent variables would explain less variability in occupational aspirations in the preadolescent period than the adolescent period was supported. The second hypothesis which examined sex and race differences in the preadolescent years found that the model was similar across groups. In the adolescent years it was predicted that the model would be more robust than in the preadolescent or post-high-school years which was supported by the findings. The hypothesis that there would be a convergence between black and white and male and female adolescents in the variables that influenced occupational aspirations was supported. The last hypothesis examined the model's ability to account for variability in occupational aspirations in the post-high school period. It was found that by incorporating educational attainment into the model that approximately as much variability was explained as had been explained for the adolescent years.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Appreciation is expressed to the members of the advisory committee, Dr. Sarah M. Shoffner, chairperson, Dr. Rebecca M. Smith, Dr. Hyman Rodman, and Dr. Kendon Smith for their assistance with this project. Special gratitude is expressed to Dr. Sarah M. Shoffner for her guidance, patience, and assistance throughout the duration of the author's doctoral program.

Acknowledgment is made to the members of the S-126 regional committee for the use of the data base and encouraging the author's participation in the regional project during the 1979 data collection phase. The data were collected in 1969, 1975, and 1979 with the support provided from the regional projects S-63 and S-126 "Career Projections and Attainment of Low-Income Youth" through the North Carolina Agricultural Research Service, North Carolina State University and the School of Home Economics Department of Child Development and Family Relations at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro, in cooperation with the Agricultural Experiment Stations of Alabama, Kentucky, Mississippi, South Carolina, Tennessee, and Virginia. The efforts of these groups and particularly the support provided by the North Carolina Agricultural Research Service that made this study possible are greatly appreciated.

Appreciation is extended to Dr. Barbara Clawson for participation in the oral defense.

Finally, I would like to thank my wife, Anne Lee, for her understanding and encouragement throughout my graduate studies and during the course of this dissertation.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
APPROVAL PAGE . . . . .	ii
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS . . . . .	iii
LIST OF TABLES . . . . .	vii
LIST OF FIGURES . . . . .	ivx
 CHAPTER	
I. INTRODUCTION . . . . .	1
II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE . . . . .	12
Developmental Frameworks . . . . .	15
Ginzberg's Theory . . . . .	16
Super's Theory . . . . .	18
Status Attainment Models . . . . .	19
Blau and Duncan (1967) Path Model . . . . .	20
The Wisconsin Status Attainment Model . . . . .	23
Theoretical and Conceptual Issues	
Affecting Modeling . . . . .	26
Consensus for Status Evaluations . . . . .	27
Allocation versus Socialization . . . . .	30
Class Values versus Normative Values . . . . .	33
Primary Variables in the Status Attainment Model . . . . .	40
Educational Goals . . . . .	41
Significant Others' Influence . . . . .	47
Race . . . . .	54
Gender . . . . .	62
Statement of the Problem . . . . .	71
III. METHODS AND PROCEDURES . . . . .	74
Study Design . . . . .	74
Subjects . . . . .	76
Respondents versus Nonrespondents . . . . .	77
Procedure for Data Collection . . . . .	78
Operational Definitions of the Variables . . . . .	80
Analyses . . . . .	84
IV. ANALYSES OF THE DATA . . . . .	89

CHAPTER	Page
Statistical Assumptions for Path Analyses . . . . .	89
Examination of Hypotheses . . . . .	90
Hypothesis 1 . . . . .	91
Hypothesis 2 . . . . .	91
Hypothesis 3 . . . . .	93
Hypothesis 4 . . . . .	96
Hypothesis 5 . . . . .	97
Analysis of the Data of Preadolescent Youth (1969) . . . . .	99
Examination of the Path Model for Preadolescent Youth (1969) . . . . .	102
Examination of the Path Model for Adolescents (1975) . . . . .	111
Examination of the Path Model for Post-High-School Youth . . . . .	123
V. SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, AND CONCLUSIONS . . . . .	136
Summary . . . . .	136
Discussion of Changes in the Selected Independent Variables . . . . .	138
The Total Model in the Preadolescent, Adolescent, and Post-High-School Years . . . . .	138
Male Youth in the Preadolescent, Adolescent, and Post-High-School Years . . . . .	142
Female Youth in the Preadolescent, Adolescent, and Post-High-School Period . . . . .	144
Black Youth in the Preadolescent, Adolescent, and Post-High-School Period . . . . .	148
White Youth in the Preadolescent, Adolescent, and Post-High-School Period . . . . .	152
Conclusions . . . . .	155
Recommendations for Future Study . . . . .	156
BIBLIOGRAPHY . . . . .	159
APPENDIX A. STUDENT SURVEY FORM, BASELINE QUESTIONNAIRE . . . . .	165
APPENDIX B. SURVEY OF YOUTH PLANS FOR THE FUTURE . . . . .	186
APPENDIX C. TEN-YEAR FOLLOW-UP SURVEY OF YOUNG PEOPLE . . . . .	206
APPENDIX D. RESPONDENT TRACKING PROCEDURES . . . . .	226

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Summary Table Comparing the Path Variables for the Sample of Preadolescent and Adolescent Youth . . . . .	92
2. General Decomposition Table for Occupational Aspirations of Preadolescent Black and White Youth and Males and Females . . . . .	94
3. General Decomposition Table for the Total Model of Occupational Aspirations for Preadolescent, Adolescent, and Post-High-School Youth . . . . .	95
4. Summary Table for the Path Variables for Adolescent Black and White Youth and Males and Females . . . . .	98
5. Summary Table for the Path Variables for Post-High-School Black Youth and White Youth and Males and Females . . . . .	100
6. Means, Standard Deviations for the Path Variables by Race and Sex for Preadolescent Youth (1969) . . . . .	101
7. Total Zero Order Correlation Matrix for the Sample of Preadolescent Youth (1969) . . . . .	103
8. Summary Table for the Path Variable for Preadolescent Black Youth and White Youth and Males and Females . . . . .	106
9. Means, Standard Deviations for Path Variables by Race and Sex for Adolescents (1975) . . . . .	113
10. Total Zero Order Correlation Matrix for the Sample of Adolescent Youth (1975) . . . . .	115
11. General Decomposition Table for Occupational Aspirations of Adolescent Black Youth and White Youth and Males and Females . . . . .	118
12. Means, Standard Deviations for the Path Variables by Race and Sex for Post-High-School Youth (1979) . . . . .	125

Table	Page
13. Total Zero Order Correlation Matrix for the Sample of Post-High-School Youth (1976) . . .	126
14. General Decomposition Table for Occupational Aspirations for Post-High-School Black Youth and White Youth and Males and Females . . . . .	130



## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1. Standard path model . . . . .	85
2. Path diagram for occupational aspirations for the sample of adolescent youth . . . . .	104
3. Path diagram for occupational aspirations for the sample of preadolescent youth . . . . .	107
4. Path diagram for occupational aspirations for the sample of preadolescent youth . . . . .	109
5. Path diagram for occupational aspirations for the sample of preadolescent black youth . . . . .	110
6. Path diagram for occupational aspirations for the sample of preadolescent white youth . . . . .	112
7. Path diagram for occupational aspirations for the sample of adolescent youth in 1975 . . . . .	117
8. Path diagram for occupational aspirations for the sample of adolescent male youth . . . . .	119
9. Path diagram for occupational aspirations for the sample of adolescent female youth . . . . .	121
10. Path diagram for occupational aspirations for the sample of adolescent black youth . . . . .	122
11. Path diagram for occupational aspirations for the sample of adolescent white youth . . . . .	124
12. Path diagram for occupational aspirations for the sample of post-high-school youth . . . . .	128
13. Path diagram for occupational aspirations for the sample of post-high-school males . . . . .	131
14. Path diagram for occupational aspirations for the sample of post-high-school females . . . . .	132
15. Path diagram for occupational aspirations for the sample of post-high-school blacks . . . . .	134
16. Path diagram for occupational aspirations for the sample of post-high-school whites . . . . .	135

CHAPTER I  
INTRODUCTION

The importance of the occupational choice process is reflected in the proliferation of research on the topic. Investigation of occupational decision-making has covered over 50 years of concentrated effort. In 1970 Kuvlesky and Reynolds cited over 818 papers in their reference bibliography relating to occupational aspirations and expectations. Their earliest citation, from 1932, was entitled Sources and Permanence of Vocational Interests of College Men: 101 Cases over a Five-Year Period. As research methodology has become increasingly sophisticated, the most generally used approach in the study of the occupational development process has been to focus on factors thought to be predictive of eventual attainment (Blau & Duncan, 1967; Duncan, Featherman, & Duncan, 1972; Sewell, Haller, & Portes, 1969; Sewell & Hauser, 1975). The present study, a longitudinal effort which draws on the previous work of Sewell et al. (1969), is designed to examine the importance of those factors designated to be influential in the process of occupational attainment.

Notwithstanding the importance of the research effort, the occupational development process is significantly prominent in the individual's overall life satisfaction. In today's society, participation in the labor force consumes a large percentage of an individual's time, effort, and energy.

Individuals receive rewards, power, status, and self-esteem from their work (Chappell, 1980; Cosby & Charner, 1978; Super, 1957). As Hall (1979) has noted, "in modern society every male and an ever-increasing number of females must select an occupation" (p. 1). The selection of an occupation may in effect be one of the most crucial decisions that an individual ever makes. This selection process must account for the needs of the individual by taking into account the person's hopes, dreams, strengths, and limitations; and at the same time the process fulfills a society-serving function.

In a highly technological society such as that of the United States, where specialization is the rule and not the exception, occupational choice becomes an increasingly complicated problem. According to The Dictionary of Occupational Titles there are at present over 20,000 separate occupations for the individual to consider. Given the myriad of choices and the facts of environmental as well as personal limitations, the selection process becomes more difficult for American youth than for youth in a society where occupational decisions are prescribed. Individuals may have unrealistic expectations, setting goals so high that there is potential for an outcome of frustration and disappointment. Alternatively, expectations may be set so low that the individual with adequate ability and resources fails to compete for positions commensurate with his ability. Often, lack of information about particular job choices, insufficient understanding, and failure to attain specialized training restrict the individual in

his or her effort to choose a job. With or without consideration for the obstacles to choosing an appropriate occupation, individuals continue to make choices about the kind of work in which they will engage. According to Hall (1979), the choice of an occupation by the individual is the difference between satisfaction and frustration experienced in later years.

As economic conditions influence the job market, individuals must compete for a scarce commodity. Specifically, as unemployment levels fluctuate, the supply and demand situation for certain occupations is altered. Consequently, the system fosters competition and increased the degree of stratification. For society to best utilize the talents of its individual members, it is important to match the individual with an appropriate occupational choice after considering differing abilities. The match, however, is not a regular or systematic process. Instead, many mismatches result as some individuals find themselves in positions that require more resources than they can bring to bear on the job. Conversely, other individuals end up not using all their resources, a situation which results in overqualification. The system which theoretically attempts to be egalitarian, in that all members have a right to choose an occupation, results in a self-selection process. Many individuals remove themselves from certain job choices as a result of the requirements of the job. For instance, specialized training may be required; advanced educational attainment, or years of experience, may

be needed before a certain job can be selected. Other individuals eliminate themselves from certain positions, either underevaluating ability, experiencing many barriers to attainment, or being unaware of potential choices.

The self-selection process of the job market fostered by competition and factors which influence an individual's occupational choice have become the focus of research. A representative and global theory of occupational choice proposed by Eli Ginzberg and his associates follows a developmental progression in which occupational choice occurs in stages (Ginzberg, Ginsburg, Axelrad, & Herma, 1951). The theory is important to consider, at least in a general sense, because it attempts to explain differing assessments of occupational choice at various points in an individual's life.

Ginzberg et al. (1951) proposed a three-stage sequence: a fantasy stage, a tentative stage, and a realistic stage. The fantasy stage occurs in the preadolescent and early adolescent years. In this stage occupational aspirations are generally unrealistic, glamorous, and to a certain extent not bound by external constraints such as socioeconomic considerations, occupational requirements, and economic factors. The tentative stage is the beginning point at which the individual narrows his occupational aspirations into a more realistic framework. The individual in the tentative stage begins to evaluate his interests, abilities, and situational constraints (i.e., resources for the attainment of desired goals).

In the last stage, realistic alternatives are examined as the individual prepares to enter the labor force. Ginzberg et al. (1951) indicated that in regard to the final stage of occupational choice, the process ends in a compromise. That is, the individual in attempting to evaluate his/her interest, capabilities, and values about potential occupational choices makes a decision in which the final outcome yields maximum satisfaction. It would seem that the compromise aspect of the last stage is the point where an objective and rational decision-making process takes place. The individual is able to select appropriate occupational alternatives that match his needs and at the same time serve a society-fulfilling function. As Ginzberg et al. (1951) have suggested, society is maximizing the resources of its individual members.

Although the theory proposed by Ginzberg et al. (1951) attempts to explain the process of occupational choice as basically a progression of orderly steps, the variability in the economic system, coupled with the individual's questionable ability to make objective assessments of personal strengths and limitations, creates a rather discontinuous and nonrational choice process. Following the model of Ginzberg et al. (1951), the individual would initially set rather high and unrealistic aspirations, with the final attainment being much lower. The consequences of the process would seem to be less than satisfactory for the individual. Believing in equal opportunity and developing a dependence on the economic system, the individual, when faced with restrictions on attainment, ends up

settling for less than what was initially anticipated. The difference between initial aspirations and final attainment is often the result of poor planning and misinformation about the economic system. Rather than making a final decision that maximizes satisfaction, the individual is left with few alternatives and chooses an occupation that is merely convenient. In general, the difficulty in evaluating the occupational choice process is in balancing the preferences and desires that a person has for a particular choice against those factors over which the individual has no control.

Within American society, various subgroups face the problem of occupational choice from the disadvantageous point of having "inherent" or ascribed limitations placed on them from the very beginning of the choice process. Specifically, factors over which the individual has no control--such as race, rural versus urban residence, sex, and initial lower socioeconomic status--compound the problem of satisfactory occupational choice. For rural youth, occupational choices are limited as a consequence of geographic area. The problems encountered by these youths are by no means minimal, considering the population that they represent. Located primarily in the Southern region, rural youth was estimated to number about 10.5 million individuals as of 1970 (Cosby & McDermott, 1978). Representing a sizable labor pool, many rural youths experience a lack of employment opportunities as the diversity of industry and occupations found in urban areas is severely

limited in isolated rural towns. Such areas as Appalachia, with high levels of poverty and unemployment, and with poor educational facilities, leave rural youths with few alternatives for satisfactory occupational attainment. In addition, many rural youths are reluctant to move away from family and familiar surroundings, a fact which may result in their choosing less than satisfactory jobs. Rural youth are often unaware of potential occupations from which to choose. As agricultural career choices for rural youth diminish, and as specialized training is less available for jobs in cities, the occupational alternatives which remain are unskilled and semiskilled labor positions (Hall, 1979). Lower-status positions and downward mobility tend to become the norm. Rural youth may also be at a disadvantage regarding quality of education, and may have lowered expectations as a result of parental influence. The expectations parents have for the upward mobility of their children may be limited.

The problems faced by rural youths in making occupational choices are compounded when they are also faced with low-income levels and depressed economic conditions in general. Attainment of higher status occupations, even though aspired to and preferred, may be all but impossible to achieve. The consequences generally result in apathy toward the economic system, frustration, and acceptance of a less than satisfactory job. The general attitude of hopelessness or resignation may be self-perpetuating as it is passed on from one generation



to the next. For low-income minority groups who live in depressed surroundings and experience little chance for upward mobility, job choices may be nonexistent. Realizing that chances for success are limited in the present economic system, they expend only a small effort at acquiring the necessary skills for improvement. The difference for minority youth between what is valued (aspired to) and what is realistically attainable is the compromise aspect of occupational attainment. Accepting a compromising alternative may provide limited satisfaction; however, the individual's talent is not utilized in the most productive way by society. Many minority youth are settling for much less than they could otherwise obtain if barriers to attainment were removed. As low-income minority youth are encouraged to raise their level of aspiration in order to achieve upward mobility, the reality of their situation is such that potential success is only a slim hope. Confronted with poor living conditions, having observed parental difficulty in the job market, crime, deviant social behavior, and the degradation of the welfare system, the minority poor find themselves in an almost unbreakable circle.

For rural youth, minority youth, and low-income youth, occupational attainment may not provide the basis for any type of fulfillment. In fact, the chance to succeed may not lie within the occupational sphere. Although they initially indicate preferred status occupations, the final result for these youths is not in systematically attaining a job, but in

haphazardly "ending up" in doing something. What the outcome of this process means for society as a whole is unknown. Talent is certainly wasted, anomie and futility are generated, and the social and economic systems are frequently perceived as unfair.

The enterprise of investigating the occupational aspirations of low-income rural youth is partially an effort to provide some insight into the attainment obstacles faced by this group. The end goal (perhaps overly idealistic) is to better utilize the talents and abilities of low-income rural youth in a productive effort. In maximizing the potential of all society's members, examining the preferences and desires of low-income youth becomes a critical area of concern. Policy makers and researchers who encourage youth to express and then attain high-status goals without understanding the barriers faced in attaining these goals generate little information in explaining the occupational choice process. As policy planners create strategies to deal with social concerns, they must consider the most accurate information available to help in their decision making.

A second advantage to be gained by research directed toward understanding the occupational choice process is in delineating the factors (i.e., structural, social-psychological) that affect occupational choice. As an example, sex and race are important structural variables that influence occupational choice (Cosby & Picou, 1973; McClendon, 1976; Spitze

& Waite, 1980). Additionally, social-psychological variables such as parental influence, self-esteem, and academic motivation may differentially affect aspirations.

When social programs are being examined for budgetary reductions, the information gained from research focusing on occupational aspirations contributes to better assessment of programs designed to help the disadvantaged minority poor and rural populations. As unemployment remains high, and jobs are difficult to find for low-income populations, a greater understanding of the occupational choice process may direct attention to programs designed to improve educational skills and training. The primary goal is in understanding what factors low-income youth experience, both in terms of psychological and structural variables, that influence satisfactory occupational attainment.

The focus of the present research was to examine how the factors that affect occupational aspirations of low-income rural youth change over time. Assessment of occupational aspirations at three different points in time will be made. This type of research approach allows for an examination of the choice process and those factors that directly and indirectly influence the individual's occupational development. A second feature of the study that affords a unique opportunity for investigation is in the population to be studied. Low-income rural youth from six Southern states are studied; this focus may provide insight into changing aspirations that

may be a consequence of changing societal values. The data used for this study spanned roughly 10 years; in that time, changing legislation, the women's rights movement, and increasing social concerns may have expanded the occupational horizons of the rural youth. Although social change is not examined directly, it is a facet of the study that should be kept in mind.

The present study attempted to answer three broad questions: (a) does a general model of occupational choice change over time in its ability to explain occupational aspirations; (b) is the ability of the model to explain occupational aspirations the same for males and females and blacks and whites; and (c) how do the social-psychological and structural variables that influence occupational aspirations change over time?

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Most individuals eventually engage in the process of choosing an occupation; therefore, occupational choice and status-attainment areas have been continuing topics of concern to many people. In order to better understand the occupational choice process and to study the questions proposed for this research, the present chapter will center upon a review of the literature that develops the conceptual framework and empirical model to be used to explain status attainment. The first section of the review focuses on discussions of the conceptual issues related to occupational development. It should be noted that throughout these discussions the terms status attainment, occupational choice, and occupational attainment will be used interchangeably. Following the initial section, developmental theories of occupational choice will be reviewed. Drawing on these initial developmental theories, empirical modeling efforts upon which the present investigation is based will be reviewed. A theoretical basis is established for the use of the empirical status attainment models, and in the final area of the review the major variables to be used in the model are presented.

The study of the occupational choice process, particularly in the area of status attainment, has been the focus of

considerable investigative effort (Kuvlesky & Bealer, 1966). Researchers in the area have attempted to elaborate developmental frameworks (Ginzberg, Ginsburg, Axelrad, & Herma, 1951; Super, 1957), structural models (Blau & Duncan, 1967), and social-psychological models (Sewell, Haller, & Portes, 1969; Sewell & Hauser, 1972); have focused on race, sex, and residence variables (Alexander & Eckland, 1974; Hall, 1979; Portes & Wilson, 1976; Treiman & Terrell, 1979), and have made various comparisons of rural and urban populations (Cosby & Charner, 1978; Kenkel, 1981). Such a cumulative research effort, spanning approximately 50 years of investigation, is relatively rare in the sociological literature (Alexander & Eckland, 1974); and the numerous studies are advantageous, at least in one respect, because there is a certain consistency among the findings even when sampling and measurement strategies are quite different among the several studies.

In contrast to the convergence of findings from various studies, empirical results have not often led to adequate theory formation (Hall, 1979). In addition, researchers have not always clarified concepts adequately--specifically, what is meant by occupational choice and the provision of adequate definitions for variables influencing the process have not always been articulated (Kuvlesky & Bealer, 1966). Methodology has ranged from qualitative to quantitative, thus making many comparisons between studies difficult. As Kuvlesky and Bealer (1966) noted, "relatively little attention has

been given to a clear conceptualization of the phenomena being investigated" (p. 265).

In an initial effort to resolve conceptual confusion, Kuvlesky and Bealer (1966) established what they considered to be an accurate definition for occupational choice. Occupational choice was considered to reflect aspirations. A distinction was made between expectations and aspirations, as expectations signified the individual's probable attainment in reference to a particular goal. According to Kuvlesky and Bealer (1966) occupational choice, as designated by aspirations, refers to the psychological preferences or desires that an individual has concerning work statuses. In this designation factors which are outside the individual's control (such as race, sex, economic circumstances, and age) are differentiated from psychological preferences. Elaborating further on the concept of aspiration, Kuvlesky and Bealer (1966) suggested that aspiration is made up of two main component elements: (a) orientation toward some social object, and (b) evaluation of the goal object itself. Generally, the orienting element can be distinguished from the goal object on the basis of strength or desire for a specific goal. As an example, an individual may have a strong desire to achieve a specific goal such as a college education. Alternatively, the person may have a weak or lower level of aspiration in regard to a high standard of living. As Kuvlesky and Bealer (1966) summarized:

It is not enough to know whether the goal is high or low in terms of evaluation of difficulty of attainment; it must also be known how strongly the goal is desired relative to others if a thorough explanation and high level of prediction is to be obtained. (p. 272)

Aspiration by itself, particularly as typically measured, is not an efficient predictor of eventual attainment (Kuvlesky & Bealer, 1966). The importance of conceptualizing occupational choice in terms of aspiration (considering both elements of evaluation of the goal object and strength of desire for attainment), may provide a clearer explanation for variations in attainment over time. Individuals over the course of their development change their occupational goals (Ginzberg, Ginsburg, Axelrad, & Herma, 1951); the direction of change has generally proceeded in a downward direction. However, using Kuvlesky and Bealer's (1966) definition, the changes that occur in occupational choice over time may only be the difference in desire for specific attainment and not necessarily a lowering of the value of the goal object. As an example, the value of a college education may not change, but the desire for attainment may decrease over time.

#### Developmental Frameworks

The developmental theories of Eli Ginzberg and his associates (1951), and of Donald Super (1957) are considered two of the more original approaches to the study of occupational choice. Both approaches follow a developmental model; however, Super's (1957) theory follows a life-span developmental approach whereas the Ginzberg et al. (1951) framework



moves from early adolescence to the early adult years. The first approach to be discussed is that of Ginzberg et al. (1951). Following the discussion of the Ginzberg et al. framework, Super's (1957) theory will be reviewed.

### Ginzberg's Theory

Moving from clarification of conceptual distinctions of occupational choice, the major theoretical work has focused on the total developmental process (Ginzberg et al., 1951). In this theory, occupational choice not only includes an individual's preferences but also his/her consideration of those factors over which the person has no control. As discussed briefly in the introduction, Ginzberg et al. (1951) has described a global theory of occupational development. As the individual progresses through the three stages of occupational development, the final stage is reached by the process of compromise, in which reality factors are weighed against available alternatives.

The process or transition from stage to stage is under the influence of many variables which affect final attainment. Ginzberg et al. (1951) have indentified four major factors which influence occupational choice: (a) social and economic; (b) educational; (c) emotional needs and desires; and (d) individual values. Basically, social and economic variables would include such aspects as socioeconomic status, labor force conditions, and occupational limitations (e.g., specific requirements of the job). Educational skills and attainment

are critical factors to consider, since educational level is related to occupational attainment, and specialized training is necessary for entry into certain positions. Emotional needs and desires reflect those aspects of the occupational choice process which satisfy the psychological elements that the individual is able to meet from selection of a satisfactory job (e.g., self-esteem, life satisfaction, personality traits). The final area of value orientation relates to the importance of attaining particular jobs. To a certain extent, an individual's value orientation reflects the importance that society places on certain attainments (values may reflect occupations, education, standard of living, or personal attitudes and beliefs).

As Hall (1979) indicated, the four areas that Ginzberg et al. (1951) identified were not major theoretical components; however, each has generated considerable empirical investigation. The basic elements of the theory of Ginzberg et al. (1951) were its emphasis on process, the irreversibility of transition from stage-to-stage, and final aspect of compromise. The Ginzberg et al. (1951) contribution to the understanding of occupational choice was that the individual made a series of decisions, not just a single decision. Further, occupational development occurred in stages which were influenced by various life events, the later of which would be up to future investigation to delineate.

### Super's Theory

Using the developmental framework of Ginzberg et al. (1951), Super (1957) provided further investigation in the area of emotional needs and desires. The variable that Super (1957) focused on was self-concept as it related to occupational development. Super (1957) argued that occupational choice reflected what the individual thought about himself. Occupational choice was considered to be a developmental process, but as the individual developed and formed a self-concept, this process was reflected in occupational choice; changes in preference were viewed in terms of a changing self-concept. Occupational development was a matter of role-taking which, in turn, mirrored the image that the individual had of himself. According to Super (1957) this development was determined by occupying a role. Role factors, personal factors, and situational factors were viewed as major influences in occupational development. Role factors reflected various occupational choices or preferences toward certain attainments. Personal factors were identified by Super (1957) to encompass intelligence, aptitudes, interests, values, and attitudes. Situational factors were those over which the individual had no control, such as economic conditions. Super's (1957) contribution in the area of occupational choice was in the identification of important psychological variables that influence the attainment process. Besides emphasizing self-concept, variables such as IQ, value orientations, and structural variables (those

which were beyond the individual's control, or fixed) were incorporated into a theoretical framework. By enlarging the focus of occupational choice over the entire life span of the individual, Super (1957) suggested a continuous process rather than a series of stages in occupational development. As methodology became more sophisticated, investigation of the occupational choice process focused on prediction. As Super (1957) suggested, prediction of career patterns would remain incomplete unless adequate methodological models were utilized and variables influencing the process were identified.

#### Status Attainment Models

A major step in the identification of variables influencing the choice process and model building based on prediction was the seminal work of Blau and Duncan (1967). Ginzberg et al. (1951) and Super (1957) had emphasized social-psychological factors as major components influencing the occupational choice process, to the exclusion of structural variables, often predisposing researchers to begin developmental modeling efforts in a somewhat biased direction. Blau and Duncan's (1967) model went to the other extreme, focusing on structural variables to the exclusion of social-psychological factors. Further investigation of occupational choices has suggested that modeling, in terms of predicting and delineating variables that influence the choice process, is actually a combination of social-psychological factors and structural elements (Hall, 1979; Kuvlesky & Reynolds, 1970; Slocum, 1966). Without detracting from the excellent effort of Blau and Duncan (1967), further

elaboration of their work has been useful, as subsequent research has taken their initial model and added social-psychological variables (Sewell, Haller, & Portes, 1969).

#### Blau and Duncan (1967) Path Model

Although not explicitly stating a theory, the empirical work of Blau and Duncan (1967) used path analysis as a means of predicting occupational attainment for a sample of adult males. Basically, path analysis is a method of breaking down and interpreting linear relationships among sets of variables (Nie, Hull, Jenkins, Steinbrenner, & Bent, 1975). In order to use the technique, two main assumptions must be met:

- (a) a causal ordering among the variables is known; and
- (b) the relationships among the variables are causally closed (i.e., any variation in one variable is due solely to variation in the other variable and not the result of some outside influence).

Following the basic assumptions of path analysis, Blau and Duncan (1967) began with the variables of father's education and occupational attainment statuses. They next selected the variables of the individual's educational level and prestige level of the first job. The causal ordering of the variables in Blau and Duncan's (1967) model placed father's education and father's occupation first, followed by respondent's education and finally respondent's first job. The dependent variable in their model was the respondent's occupation in 1962. Occupational status was measured by prestige scores developed by Duncan (the scores were indicative of a continuum

in which occupations are given numeric scores).

Blau and Duncan (1967) used a national sample of approximately 25,000 men. Questionnaires were completed by about 20,700 respondents, ranging in age between 20 and 64 years. According to Blau and Duncan (1967), the respondents represented approximately 45 million men, 20 to 64 years old, in the civilian, noninstitutional population of the United States in March of 1962. Their primary purpose was to present a systematic analysis of the American occupational structure, examining social stratification and mobility. The variables they used in the path model were logically connected, although, as Sewell et al. (1969) have pointed out, theoretical connections were not established.

The structural variables that Blau and Duncan (1967) used accounted for 40% of the variance in occupational attainment in 1962. The importance of their study, however, was not merely in explaining variability in occupational attainment. The significance of establishing causal linkages between variables added more information in understanding the occupational choice process than previous studies had contributed. As an example, Blau and Duncan (1967) found that the relationship between 1962 occupational status and the first job that the respondent has was significant ( $\underline{r} = .541$ ); however, the path coefficient was .281. The difference between the two coefficients stems from the indirect effects of the two variables of 1962 occupational status and other causal variables in the model. Even though overall prediction

of occupational attainment is somewhat low, the importance of Blau and Duncan's (1967) model remains in their effort at establishing causal relationships between the independent variables and the dependent variable. In addition, Blau and Duncan (1967) provided the groundwork for subsequent investigations using similar techniques.

Research efforts that have employed path analytic techniques began by strengthening the Blau and Duncan (1967) model (Sewell et al., 1969). The omission, in the initial model, of social-psychological factors that influence occupational attainment was remedied in the later work. In addition, stronger theoretical underpinnings were suggested in order to explain the relationship between variables. Sewell et al. (1969), in developing their model of occupational attainment, argued that the inclusion of social-psychological factors was important, on the basis of prior research found in the literature--for example, Super's (1957) work on self-concept and Lipset's (1959) research on mental ability--and the logical relation between structural connections and social-psychological development. According to Sewell et al. (1969), the individual's psychological makeup is developed in structured situations. That is, an individual's actions are the result of cognitive and motivational orientations developed in fixed (structural) settings, as well as reactions to present situations. The work of Sewell et al. (1969) is known as "the Wisconsin status attainment model" and will be discussed in the next section.

### The Wisconsin Status Attainment Model

In developing a model that incorporated social-psychological variables, Sewell et al. (1969) suggested that the model offered new approaches by which attainment behaviors could be modified. As an example, Sewell et al. (1969), in examining the variable of significant others, noted the possibilities for manipulation in terms of outcome. The implication for manipulating the choice process is, it is hoped, to design intervention strategies that may ultimately influence satisfactory attainment; however, the primary concern of Sewell et al. (1969) was in explaining more variability in the dependent variable of final occupational attainment than Blau and Duncan (1967) were able to do with just structural variables.

The Wisconsin model, besides focusing on occupational attainment, was also concerned with educational attainment. Sewell et al. (1969) assumed that both social-psychological and structural factors influenced not only sets of significant others' effect on youth, but the individual's own assessment of his own ability, as well. They further assumed that the influence of significant others and the estimates that the individual has of his ability subsequently affect educational and occupational aspirations. In addition, levels of aspiration influence levels of educational attainment; which in turn affect levels of occupational attainment.

Beginning in 1957, Sewell et al. (1969) collected extensive questionnaire data concerning educational and occupational



aspirations of all high school seniors in Wisconsin. In a 1964 follow-up, this sample was recontacted and data on later educational and occupational attainments were collected by use of a questionnaire from approximately one-third of the original random sample ( $N = 929$ ). For the 929 subjects in the follow-up, data were available from both the 1957 and 1964 assessments' periods. All the subjects were male, and their fathers were farmers. Sewell et al. (1969) found that using social-psychological variables did not greatly increase the overall explained variability in occupational attainment ( $R^2 = .34$ ). For educational attainment, however, 50% of the variance was accounted for by the specific variables used in the model by Sewell et al. (1969): level of occupational aspiration, level of educational aspiration, significant others' influence, academic performance, socio-economic status, and mental ability (IQ). The dependent variables were occupational and educational attainment.

In discussing these results, Sewell et al. (1969) argued that the introduction of social-psychological factors added a great deal in the explanation of educational attainment. In comparing the Wisconsin model to the Blau and Duncan (1967) model, it should be recalled that educational attainment was an important factor in both studies; however, as Hall (1979) pointed out, Blau and Duncan (1967) attempted to explain occupational attainment only as it was mediated through educational attainment. Sewell et al. (1969), on the other hand,

attempted to explain educational attainment and subsequently occupational attainment as it was related to education. Hall (1979) argued that the variables used in the Wisconsin model were to some extent educationally related measurements (with the exception of occupational aspirations and socioeconomic status). Thus, educational attainment was explained with educationally related variables. Another point of divergence between the Blau and Duncan (1967) model and the Wisconsin model is the difference in the variables used to explain occupational attainment. Sewell et al. (1969) noted that the samples and variables used were different, and as a result comparing the contribution of their study to the Blau and Duncan (1967) model is difficult.

The emphasis that Sewell et al. (1969) place on the importance of social-psychological factors relating to occupational attainment is not diminished because there was not an increase in explained variance. Instead, Sewell et al. (1969) suggested that given a larger sample with greater age variation, the model would prove to be more powerful. In addition, by focusing on the variable of significant others' influence, the Wisconsin model suggested intervention strategies in terms of changing levels of attainment. Apparently, the influence that significant others exert on the individual's level of aspiration is very critical in terms of subsequent attainment. As Sewell et al. (1969) stated:

practical change agents might be able to change levels of attainment, either by inserting themselves or others as new significant others or

by changing the expectations existing significant others have for the individual. (p. 90)

The investigative efforts of Sewell et al. (1969), however, are not without criticism. Hall (1979) has pointed to several problems that he believes are inherent in the model. First, Sewell et al. (1969) limit their theoretical explanation to relationships between variables and not to the area of occupational choice. Causally linking variables may eventually lead to theory; however, overall explanation of the occupational choice process is limited. Secondly, over-emphasizing the importance of social-psychological factors predisposes the investigators to focus solely on attitudinal manipulations influencing attainment without attention to structural limitations (e.g., race, sex, fluctuations in the job market). In terms of explained variability, Sewell et al. (1969) explain little more variability in occupational attainment with the addition of social-psychological variables than Blau and Duncan (1967) explained with structural variables. A final point of concern that Hall (1979) noted was in the lack of generalizability of the model. The model was developed, tested, and applied almost exclusively to white males (primarily to seniors in high school with fathers being employed as farmers).

### Theoretical and Conceptual Issues

#### Affecting Modeling

An important focus of concern in recent critiques of status attainment, particularly in regard to the Wisconsin

model, is the underlying theoretical framework on which the model is based (Horan, 1978). The following section discusses three major areas of debate in relation to status attainment research: (a) the basis on which agreement by individuals' status evaluations are made; (b) the issue of upward mobility as a function of socialization versus allocation; and (c) the applicability of modeling efforts being based on a normative value orientation in contrast to a class-specific value orientation.

#### Consensus for Status Evaluations

An important criticism in evaluating the Wisconsin model may not be in the generalizability of the model or even in the selection of variables, but in the ability of individuals to make judgments about status difference in occupations (Balkwell, Bates, & Garbin, 1980). Numerous studies have examined the issue of agreement between individuals on evaluation of status or prestige (Duncan, 1961; Featherman, Jones, & Hauser, 1975). Horan (1978) has argued that the Wisconsin model is based on the assumption that individuals in society (particularly in American society) are able to show consensus on status or prestige evaluations of different occupations. For example, most individuals would agree that the status of a laborer's occupation would be lower than that of a professional's. Horan (1978) argued that a general degree of consensus is not found; and thus the possibility exists that status attainment research is based on uncertain grounds. The importance

of verifying an underlying assumption of some normative orientation on the part of individuals, at least in regard to status projections about jobs, is necessary for future efforts that employ modeling procedures, and as a base point for theory development. Balkwell et al. (1980) stated "the Wisconsin model, in other words, presumes society to be quite well integrated at least with respect to the occupational structure" (p. 868). Without minimizing the many different aspects of occupations, Sewell et al. (1969) used the variable of occupational status as one aspect of occupational differentiation. The object of model building is to abstract from the whole phenomenon whatever aspects are most salient to the problem under investigation. If there exists on the part of the researcher an inability to incorporate a reasonable measure of a particular variable, then predictive models may be impossible to develop.

In an effort to substantiate the Wisconsin model and model building in general, Balkwell et al. (1980) explicitly tested the assumption of a normative orientation in regard to status attainment. Establishing support for an existing method of analysis increases one's confidence in the procedure. Since the focus of the present investigative effort is in examining factors influencing occupational aspirations over time, the efforts of Blau and Duncan (1967) and Sewell et al. (1969) are important base points from which to pursue continued research. Balkwell et al. (1980), in addition, were concerned not only with assessing whether a normative orientation exists,

but with determining whether the typical individual's occupational status evaluations were similar to the North-Hatt-NORC (Reiss, 1961) procedure for assessing occupational status.

Balkwell et al. (1980) gathered questionnaire data from 259 students in an introductory sociology class. They noted that although their sample was not randomly selected it was (in their judgment) reasonably representative of young men and women attending a college in the Southeast. The respondents rated 18 occupations in accordance with their own personal opinions. The occupations chosen by Balkwell et al. (1980) were based on those used in previous studies on national samples. The results of the study indicated that there was a high to moderate level of agreement between subjects about status evaluations of different occupations; and that the North-Hatt-NORC scores were reflective of the individual's status evaluations about occupations. Thus, Balkwell et al. (1980) concluded that the Wisconsin model was valid since the measure used (i.e., level of aspiration) seemed to have a high degree of "phenomenological validity."

Further support for the assumption of a normative context in which occupational status is evaluated was the focus of investigative efforts by Kraus, Schild, and Hodge (1978). Kraus et al. (1978) were interested in examining whether certain characteristics of occupational prestige, such as intergroup similarity and temporal stability, were artifacts of research methodology or actually reflected value assessments

that individuals make. Although the sample used by Kraus et al. (1978) included 463 respondents age 20 and over from the three largest urban areas in Israel, a disproportionate number of males was sampled (370 males versus 92 females). Kraus et al. (1978) indicated that the sample composition was determined for purposes not germane to their primary investigation. No other explanation was given for the imbalance in males to females. Each of the three randomly divided subsamples was presented with 90 occupations to sort, 25 of which were common to all the subsamples and 75 which were unique to each group. Occupations were chosen as representative of the classifications used by the Israeli Central Bureau of Statistics.

Results of the Kraus et al. (1978) study indicated a certain consistency with which subjects sorted occupations. In addition, the dimension on which subjects classified occupations corresponded fairly closely to typical measures of occupational prestige (e.g., NORC scores). In supporting a normative orientation on the part of individuals that relates to occupational prestige evaluation, these findings offer at least some assurance that status-attainment research is incorporating sound variables into proposed models. A final point that relates to the rationale on which the Wisconsin model is based is Kerckhoff's (1976) "allocation model."

#### Allocation versus Socialization

It will be recalled that Sewell et al. (1969) strongly supported a socialization model in an effort to explain

occupational attainment. It was further pointed out that by so doing, Sewell et al. (1969) minimize the structural limitations that individuals face in the attainment process. Kerckhoff (1976), however, took an alternative position in which he suggested augmenting the Wisconsin model with an allocation model. The allocation model emphasizes structural components that influence the occupational attainment process. Attainment from an allocation perspective is viewed in terms of factors that limit choice as a consequence of structural restrictions and selection criteria. Kerckhoff (1976) summarized his position in the following statement:

A socialization model thus tends to view the individual as relatively free to move within the social system, his attainments being determined by what he chooses to do and how well he does it. In contrast, an allocation model views the individual as relatively constrained by the social structure, his attainments being determined by what he is permitted to do. (p. 367)

The allocation and socialization models cannot be fully separated from the other. Kerckhoff (1976) takes the position the models should be combined. The allocation model acts more to reinterpret the relationships found between variables in the socialization explanation than as an actual restatement of the attainment process. For example, Kerckhoff (1976) used the Sewell et al. (1969) variable of significant others' influence. From the socialization perspective, significant others' influence is an important factor affecting final attainment. The model assumes that the individual's goals and the goals of significant others show a close



correspondence. Kerckhoff (1976) suggested, however, that the individual's assessment of the goals that significant others have for him are based on what is perceived; and when evaluation is determined by subjective perception, the potential exists for misperception. Kerckhoff (1976) explained that "misperception is more common among younger than older adolescents while actual agreement is greater among older adolescents" (p. 370). Interpreting the pattern of associations from an allocation perspective, as the individual matures into adolescence a convergence between one's own goals and the goals of significant others is the result of an increased awareness of the limitations that restrict attainment. The main point that Kerckhoff (1976) stressed was that external constraints to attainment need to be incorporated into future modeling efforts.

Regardless of whether a socialization, allocation, or combined model is used to explain attainment, the underlying theoretical position becomes an important factor (Hall, 1979). According to Hall (1979), theoretical development in the area of occupational choice has generally been concerned with social stratification and social mobility. Social stratification implies a certain degree of differentiation in class structure within society. In describing one view of class differences, Van Zeyl (1974) suggested that differing assessments of occupations reflected the basic values of society. Social stratification based on a normative value orientation, at least with respect to occupational structure, may be more

reflective of structural limitations placed on attainment than actual class differences in values. Thus, the social structure may allow some individuals access to the means of achieving culturally defined aspirations and may restrict others in the attainment process.

#### Class Values versus Normative Values

The emphasis on a normative value framework within society is reflective of the position taken by Parsons (1959) and Merton (1961), who argued for a "dominant culture theory." In contrast to the normative value orientation approach, other researchers have emphasized the difference in value orientations among differing social classes (Hyman, 1953; Lewis, 1968; Miller, 1958). Relating the latter position to occupational attainment, the expectation would be that individuals representing differing class orientations would hold status evaluations regarding occupational choices as unique to the corresponding social class. From the research by Balkwell et al. (1980) and Kraus et al. (1978) previously presented, it is recalled that occupational status evaluations appeared to have some consensual agreement among individuals. The differences that appear to exist in achievement behaviors (i.e., attained occupational level) among individuals may reflect limitations placed on attainment (structural and/or social-psychological). Further research supporting the above position of a normative value orientation will be reviewed in a subsequent section. At this point, however, it is important to focus on the underlying theoretical position in regard to status

attainment research. Historically, status attainment research has been empirically oriented with the emphasis on establishing relationships between variables and discussing social mobility in general (Hall, 1979). Apparently, individuals attempt to achieve some type of upward mobility by which they satisfy individual needs and desires and fulfill a necessary requirement of society (Ginzberg et al., 1951).

The functionally related aspect of occupational attainment was to a certain extent at the core of the Ginzberg et al. (1951) theory. The developmental approach also appears to fall within the framework of stratification theory (Hall, 1979). Ideally, satisfactory attainment is achieved which meets at the same time the individual's needs and those of society. Following the logic of Ginzberg et al. (1951), differential attainment by individuals can be explained as the consequence of differing goals which are influenced by perceived limitations both structural and social-psychological. The point of conflict between the Ginzberg et al. (1951) theory and stratification theory is in explaining the attainment process of disadvantaged groups (e.g., rural youth, blacks, females). As discussed previously, controversy has developed over whether a dominant value system (Merton, 1961) or a class-differentiated system (Hyman, 1953) exists. Kerckhoff (1976) had pointed out that the attainment models are more powerful for whites than blacks and for upper-status whites than lower status whites. This is the question that remains. Are value orientations different among groups or

are there only differences in limitations to attainment?

As a partial answer to the above questions, Rodman (1963) has suggested the concept of value-stretch. Lower-class individuals, without giving up the general values of society, develop an alternative set of values that are more in line with their circumstances. In other words, a wider range of acceptable alternatives is available to the lower-class person. For example, the lower-class person may place as high a value on a professional career as the middle- and upper-class individual may do; however, when faced with significant barriers to attainment, the lower-class individual stretches the aspiration downward. In this instance for the lower-class person, perhaps being an independent craftsman becomes an acceptable alternative. Support for the value-stretch position has been investigated by a number of researchers (Della Faye, 1974, 1977; Rodman, Voydanoff & Lovejoy, 1974; Rodman & Voydanoff, 1978) who addressed the central theme that lower-class individuals have a wider range of aspirations than have middle- and upper-class individuals.

In a study by Rodman et al. (1974), it was hypothesized that a wider range of aspirations would be found among lower-class persons. Subjects for the study were 335 ninth-grade students who were administered questionnaires designed to assess their level of educational and occupational aspirations. The level of aspiration was intended to reflect a range of choice, since it was believed that one of the difficulties with aspiration research was that investigators always assumed

a single level of aspiration (Rodman et al., 1974). The hypothesis of a wider range of aspirations existing in the lower-class individual was confirmed. Although not investigating a value-stretch phenomenon specifically, status attainment research that has focused on low-income groups seems to point to restricted mobility as a result of numerous barriers to attainment rather than as a function of differences in values between lower-class and middle- and upper-class persons (Cosby & Charner, 1978; Hall, 1979; Kenkel, 1981; Tittle, 1981).

Hall (1979), while citing the limitations of low-income youth, argued that the weight of evidence seemed to suggest a class-dominated value system as opposed to a normative value orientation. However, upon examination of the studies that Hall (1979) cited in support of his position, an alternative interpretation can be made. Although the aspirations and expectations of lower-class groups appear on the surface to be different from those of middle- and upper-class groups, limitations or restrictions to attainment were not examined. Hall (1979) stated that "low-income youth begin with lower goals and reduce them more quickly, since they realize the difficulty of attaining them" (p. 26). The statement made by Hall (1979), far from supporting a class-dominated value orientation, indicated that low-income youths realize they face significant barriers to attainment. Difficulty in attainment and differences in values of lower-class individuals can

be found in early discussions of the topic (Ginzberg et. al, 1951).

Ginzberg and his associates (1951) suggested three major differences between lower-income youth and middle- and upper-income youth. The first difference pointed out was that of lifestyle. Although subjectively evaluated, the differences that appeared to exist were related to the influence that significant others had on youth. The more affluent youth were encouraged to attend college, had more frequent contact with people who were professionals and assumed very early in life that they would attend college. In contrast, lower-income youths were oriented more toward finishing a minimum of education and had little contact with college-educated professionals. It should be noted that the differences found in lifestyle may be more indicative of low-income youth being influenced toward attainment of realistic outcomes than in actual differences in value orientation. That possibility was not, however, entertained by Hall (1979) when he argued that the overwhelming weight of evidence favored the class differences approach. The second difference (Ginzberg et al., 1951) was the factor of low-income youths having limited economic resources, a fact which affected their ability to achieve certain occupations. The factor of limited economic resources may be construed as a structural limitation. Without sufficient economic ability many opportunities are lost to low-income youth. The apparent goal for low-income individuals is to be able to meet the demands of everyday living.

Earning money to go to college is a luxury, and many are not willing or able to forego the earning power that would be lost if they attended college (Ginzberg et al., 1951). The final difference was that low-income youth are often enrolled in vocational programs at the school they attend. College preparatory courses are not taken, a circumstance which places limitations on high-status attainment (Ginzberg et al., 1951).

Research which has attempted to suggest an alternative approach to the attainment of low-income youth has taken the position of a class-dominated value system (Hyman, 1953). However, as suggested previously, without examining the structural limitations to attainment, the position of class differences may be somewhat misleading. As an example, Hyman (1953) attempted to demonstrate that value differences existed between social classes. His approach was criticized by Empey (1956) and later by Rodman (1963) on the basis of assessing values by utilization of opinion surveys that required respondents to provide only a single response to questions assessing aspirations. As a consequence, Hyman's (1953) assessment may have failed to detect the range of aspirations that may exist among lower-class respondents. In addition, Hyman (1953) did not deal with the findings that a percentage of lower-class respondents held value orientations which are similar to those of upper-class respondents. Thus, the range of values held by lower-class respondents would seem to encompass both the values similar to those of upper-class

individuals and those which appear different from the upper-class persons.

Hall (1979) cited several studies which suggested that the occupational aspirations of low-income youth were lower than those of middle- and upper-class youth. He further suggested that when occupational expectations were considered, the class difference approach was strongly supported. Citing studies by Youmans (1979) and Holloway and Berreman (1959), Hall (1979) indicated that "not one study has found occupational expectations of youth from different social classes to be equal" (p. 30). The point that should be considered, however, is that different expectations do not necessarily reflect different value orientations. Expectations may reflect the appraisal of realistic alternatives that are available to the individual. Hence, lower-class individuals faced with barriers to attainment expect less than their middle- and upper-class counterparts.

Han (1969) suggested an approach somewhat similar to Rodman's (1963) value-stretch concept. Han (1969) postulated that when aspirations are assessed, the viewpoint of common values shared by all members in a society is supported; but, when expectations of success are evaluated, the existing class-specific values seems to be supported. It would appear that before evaluations of value orientations are assessed, distinctions need to be made between aspirations and expectations. In Hall's (1979) rather rapid appraisal of evidence supporting



a class-difference approach (i.e., determining that differences in occupational aspirations and expectations between classes reflect differences in value orientations), the failure to adequately assess factors that limit choice is not dealt with, and little effort is provided to review research that reports the range of values held by lower-class individuals.

On the basis of the above considerations--the application of status attainment models to disadvantaged groups--a normative value-orientation position will be taken here. Specifically, in terms of occupational goals, most individuals seem to share a general consensus about prestige levels. The differences in attainment that appear to exist between classes are assumed to be the consequence of structural and social-psychological factors that influence attainment. The focus of the present investigation is on the examination of the factors that influence occupational aspirations over time. Realizing that structural and social-psychological factors may have variable influence over time, emphasis will be directed toward determining how the major predictor variables change in importance.

#### Primary Variables in the Status Attainment Model

Drawing on the work of several major status-attainment investigators, most notably Blau and Duncan (1967), Sewell et al. (1969), and Bachman, O'Malley, and Johnston (1978), seven major variables that influence occupational goals will be examined: educational goals, race, sex, I.Q., self-concept, academic motivation, and significant others' influence. Even though it is often difficult to discuss each variable

separately, because reviewing one variable generally encompasses aspects of the other variables, for this review the main or primary variables of educational goals, significant others' influence, race, and sex will be considered separately. Academic motivation, self-concept, and I.Q. will be incorporated into the discussion of the primary variables whenever relevant to the review. The first major variable to be discussed is educational goals or aspirations.

### Educational Goals

The importance of education in the occupational attainment process has been well documented (Bachman et al., 1978; Blau & Duncan, 1967; Sewell et al., 1969). In general, education provides the means for upward mobility, and occupational attainment reflects prior educational attainment (Blau & Duncan, 1967). Examined both as a predictor variable (Bachman et al., 1978; Blau & Duncan, 1968) and as a dependent variable (Bachman et al., 1978; Sewell et al., 1969), educational goals influence subsequent attainment and are in turn, influenced by many of the variables in the attainment models (e.g., race, sex, significant others' influence, I.Q., and social-class). Since the present study is concerned particularly with low-income rural youth (both black and white), education becomes a major factor in subsequent attainment.

Numerous studies have reported results indicating that rural youth, blacks, women, and other minority groups have lower occupational and educational aspirations and expectations, and attain lower status positions, than more advantaged groups

(Kenkel, 1980; Kuipers, Southworth, & Reed, 1979; Tittle, 1980). In contrast, other researchers have reported that little difference is found in aspirational level between low-income groups and middle- and upper-class groups (Thomas & Falk, 1978). The differences that are apparent between low-income groups and upper-income groups are in attainment (Hall, 1979). If education provides one avenue toward social mobility, the consequences of lowered goals may be restricted occupational attainment.

Why lowered educational attainment should exist for low-income groups of individuals is a salient question. A partial answer may be found by re-examining the initial status attainment model of Sewell et al. (1969). As will be recalled, Sewell et al. (1969) identified six major variables which accounted for approximately 50% of the variability in educational attainment (level of occupational aspiration, level of educational aspiration, significant others' influence, academic performance, socioeconomic status, and mental ability). The specific variable of significant others' influence (SOI) was identified as an important factor in the educational attainment model. With SOI as a starting point, the apparent lowered attainment levels found in low-income groups may in part be due to early socialization. During the adolescent years of an individual's occupational development, parents are perceived as an important influence (Stroupe, 1980). For parents of low-income rural youth, realizing the limitations of their circumstances and the realities of employment opportunities

that exist in rural areas, high educational attainment may not be required. Additionally, more stress is placed on immediate monetary gain than upon delayed gratification (Hall, 1979; Lefcourt, 1972).

Emphasizing the influence that parents exert on educational goals and subsequent occupational attainment, Kuipers et al. (1979) examined a sample of rural youth in the Appalachian area of east Tennessee. Parents of these youth on the average had an eighth-grade education and were employed in the lower five categories of the U.S. census classification. The corresponding levels of attained education and occupational status for the sample of youth were similar to those of their parents. Kuipers et al. (1979) also reported that there was a decrease in educational goals from the 5th- and 6th-grades to the 11th- and 12th-grades. The levels of attained education for rural youth appear to be in close agreement to what their parents had achieved. The decline in aspirations over time suggests the importance of parental influence and the realization of limited opportunities. In other words, the reality of restricted resources and opportunity is reinforced by parental influence.

The importance of parental influence on educational goals and subsequent occupational attainment has been emphasized by Jerald Bachman and his colleagues (1978), who were particularly interested in the influence of family background factors on educational attainment. Beginning in 1966 with a cross-sectional sample of males entering the 10th-grade,

Bachman et al. (1978) obtained data on family background, ability, educational behaviors, life-plans, attitudes, and self-concept. Subjects were again recontacted approximately eight years later, at which point measures were taken on educational attainment, occupational attainment, college (rank and ACT score), and major life experiences. Central questions were to what extent basic factors such as family background and ability directly influenced educational attainment, and to what extent they indirectly influenced other factors such as educational success in the pre-high-school years.

With consideration for family background and ability, Bachman et al. (1978) assessed what they considered to be eight specific dimensions of the variable: socioeconomic level, family size, broken home, family relations, religious preference, race, parents' political preference, and community size. In the final analysis, Bachman et al. (1978) were able to explain 50.8% of the variability in educational attainment. Interestingly enough, the Bachman et al. (1978) procedure adds little more to the explained variability in educational attainment than did the Sewell et al. (1969) analysis, which used only six variables.

As can be surmised, educational goals and occupational attainment are quite closely interrelated in the achievement process. In many instances occupational aspirations precede educational plans, and changing one aspect affects the other. The weight of family background--which is somewhat analogous

to significant others' influence--exerts a strong pull on the individual's decisions regarding educational and occupational goals. It would appear that the importance of educational goals may vary considerably over time, and that for certain groups of individuals the variable may not have as great an influence on occupational attainment as it has on other variables in the individual's environment. For example, speculating on the importance of educational goals for low-income rural youth, educational attainment may be minimized in importance from the very beginning of the occupational choice process, and may continue to diminish in significance over time. Socialization efforts of rural youth appear to be geared toward vocational training and early entry into the labor force (Kenkel, 1980; Thomas & Falk, 1978). Realistically, as the low-income rural individual enters the labor market, returning to school becomes a costly alternative. Pressure is exerted on the individual to remain on the job, and the reality of not doing so is probably far greater than the importance of educational attainment. Thomas and Falk (1978) pointed out that for low-income rural youth, the primary emphasis of the educational system was on vocational training. Thus, it is not surprising to see results from research which report lowered educational attainment for minority individuals.

Further support for the limited role that educational attainment may hold for rural youth is evidenced in the results of a study by Kenkel (1980). Using longitudinal data from a Southern Regional Research Project involving low-income

rural youth, Kenkel (1980) reported that almost a quarter of the white males and females ( $N = 498$ ) did not expect to finish school; and, of the remaining three-fourths of the students, most expected to take vocational training. Expectations for education beyond high school were quite low for the sample, with only 11% of white females and 9% of white males expecting to finish college. Conversely, for blacks, 33% of the females and 24% of the males expected to finish college. However, Kenkel noted that for the blacks in the sample expectations for completing college, while higher than that of the whites, were probably unrealistic. Kenkel (1980) supported his conjecture for blacks having unrealistic expectations for post-high-school education by noting that blacks tended to be affected by factors which restricted educational attainment (i.e., earlier age of marriage, higher fertility, lower educational attainment of parents) more than did whites. Kenkel's conjecture may be argued by suggesting an alternative interpretation for the higher expectations for educational attainment of black youth. Specifically, education may be emphasized in the black population as a means of gaining racial equality, and hence higher expectations may result:

Whereas level of educational aspiration may vary over time, the variables that exert an influence on the individual's educational and occupational decisions may also have differential importance over time. One such variable to consider

may be the influence of significant others in the occupational development process.

### Significant Others' Influence

The importance of significant others' influence in the educational and occupational plans of youth was a predominant theme in the work of Sewell et al. (1969). Other investigators, however, have argued that significant others (i.e., parents, peers, other important adult figures) may have differential importance over time (Peters, Peterson, & Southworth, 1980; Stroupe, 1980). The importance of parents in the adolescent and preadolescent years of young children is not questioned. The issue, however, is the diminishing importance of parental influence over time. The expectation is that as the individual approaches entry into the labor force, other significant referents may take on more importance in influencing decisions. Peters et al. (1981), in a longitudinal investigation of rural Appalachian youth, reported that parents were identified as one of the most important referents in terms of being significant to youth in making occupational and educational decisions. The importance of extra familial individuals (teachers, peers, other adult figures) was reported to increase in the late adolescent years and subsequently decrease in the post-high-school years. Peters et al. (1980) also reported the differential importance of significant others' influence between males and females. The varying influence of important referents based on gender was a factor addressed by Sewell et al. (1969) and points to the



multidimensionality of the variable. Peters et al. (1980) indicated that during late adolescence males identified parents as significant others more frequently than in early adolescence and after high school. Females, on the other hand, selected parents in a fairly consistent manner over time. Extrafamilial significant others were identified as important in the late adolescent period while diminishing in importance in the post-high school years.

In an effort to establish causal ordering (i.e., ascertaining the direct influence of a particular independent variable on a dependent variable) between the influence that significant others have on occupational aspirations, Proctor (1974) employed a series of multiple regression equations. Data were gathered on 1,412 mother-child pairs representing seven southeastern states. The sample was comprised of rural Appalachian youths and their mothers and included both black and white respondents. Proctor (1974) reported that the mother's expectations for her son's success, and the son's reporting of the mother as the most influential referent appeared to directly influence aspirations. In addition, three other variables were indicated as having a direct influence on aspirations: the mother's desire for the son to have character, the mother's desire for her son to be outgoing, and the mother's expectations for high performance. Proctor (1974) noted that the relationship found for males were "richer" than those found for females. Interestingly, it was the influence of fathers on their daughters that

affected occupational aspirations. Proctor (1974) suggested that the finding of fathers' influence on their daughters was not inconsistent with the notion that achievement patterns tend to be more apparent in the parent of the opposite sex.

In the Wisconsin model, it will be recalled that the influence of significant others was correlated with both occupational and educational attainment ( $\underline{r} = .41$ ,  $\underline{r}^2 = .168$ ; and  $\underline{r} = .57$ ,  $\underline{r}^2 = .325$  respectively). The difference between actual attainment and aspirations is a point worth considering since the relative importance of significant others may increase or decrease in value. Specifically, the finding that parents are generally the most reported significant referent has been well documented (Kandel & Lesser, 1969; Stroupe, 1980). However, as Kerckhoff and Huff (1974) suggested "what is actually shown in most such studies is that the child's goals are quite similar to those of parents" (p. 308). Attainment patterns may not necessarily reflect direct influence of significant others; rather, both the parent and the child may develop goals independently based on similar external influences. The experiences that youths encounter are such that differential assessments are made of the various environmental events (e.g., school performance, perception of socioeconomic status). Actual attainment, however, may reflect what both the individual and significant others regard as the only realistic alternative rather than the result of direct influence. In addition, the importance of attainment may become more salient as the individual

approaches the goal; hence, there may be greater concordance between significant others' influence and actual attainment. Kerckhoff and Huff (1974) suggested that "parents might be expected to express more concern and work harder at influencing their children to seek educational goals as important points of decision draw near" (p. 309).

In an investigation of the importance of parent-child agreement in regard to educational goals, Kerckhoff and Huff (1974) were interested in determining actual influence of significant others from shared experiences. Data were collected on a sample of 12th-grade males from five community high schools, and from 9th-grade males in 5 of 13 junior high schools. Sub-samples were then drawn from the two groups and interview data were gathered from parents of the youth. Following the path model of Sewell et al. (1969), Kerckhoff and Huff (1974) were able to demonstrate that much of the agreement between parent and child could be explained by shared experiences, although their general consensus was that, when using agreement as an index, speaking of parental influence was appropriate. The second finding of interest was the variable influence that parents had between the 12th- and 9th-grade. When parental influence was measured by the actual goals that parents had for their children versus the goals that children perceived their parents had for them, important differences were noted. Specifically, Kerckhoff and Huff (1974) reported that the difference in direct effect of parents' goals on sons' goals was minor in the 12th-grade and very large in

the 9th-grade. This finding is somewhat contrary to the suggestion that as youths enter the labor market and make decisions concerning post-high school educational goals, direct parental influence would increase. The important points to consider, however, are that depending on how parental influence is measured and what experiences are encountered by youths, determining direct effects on aspirations by significant others may lead to different conclusions.

The importance that significant others have on the decisions of youth, particularly rural youth, may be more indicative of the position that Kerckhoff and Huff (1974) suggested than that of Sewell et al. (1969). Rural youths, like their middle-class counterparts, endorse the importance of parents as significant referents. Stoupe (1980) investigated cohort differences, using data gathered on lower socioeconomic youth from seven southeastern states. Cohort data were collected on 5,224 fifth- and sixth-graders, sampling three different time periods (1969, 1975, and 1979). The main finding from Stoupe's (1980) study was that parents were reported by the three cohort groups as the most important significant referent in regard to educational and occupational decisions. Acknowledging that parents are important referents and ascertaining the extent of their contribution to occupational and educational decision-making may be difficult to determine. Rural youths and their parents may in effect share common experiences and independently establish separate goals (Kerckhoff & Huff, 1974). Essentially, as Proctor (1974) pointed out, the

possibility exists that the relationship between the aspirations of rural youth and parental influence may be exaggerated. In a more emphatic statement, Furstenberg (1971) cautioned not only that parental influence on aspirations is relatively modest, but also that the relationship between parents and children's aspirations does not necessarily mean that the children have actually acquired their aspirations directly from their parents. Findings by Proctor (1974) indicated a tendency for mothers of boys to have higher occupational prestige goals for their sons than the sons had for themselves. While not emphatically supporting Furstenberg's (1971) statement of questionable causality between parental influence and child's goals, Proctor (1974) did suggest that the potential existed for exaggeration of the relationships.

The importance of significant others' influence becomes even more confusing when racial differences are examined. It will be recalled that Kenkel's (1981) finding that black youth tended to have higher expectations for completing college than white youth was contrary to the reported level of aspiration that rural black parents had for their children. Thomas and Falk (1978) provided some insight into the relationship between black youth's aspirational goals and parental influence by suggesting that goals may be established independently by parents and youths. From an historical perspective, Thomas and Falk (1978) indicated that blacks in rural areas have not fared well economically. Traditional job choices have been service oriented, low paying, and of lower prestige

than that of rural white individuals. In terms of parental influence, however, black youths aspire to and expect higher status positions, particularly among black females. Reasoning that black youths form aspirational plans independently of their parents based on experiences which their parents have not encountered, their aspirations for careers and education may be higher than their parents have for them. As legislation has improved equality of opportunity for many blacks, expectations may be for higher status positions and a belief in the opportunity for attainment. If education is indeed perceived as a mechanism for upward mobility among blacks, by increasing the opportunity for attainment higher expectations may result. Whether this reasoning holds for the rural black individual of low-income background may be debatable, although Kenkel's (1981) results would favor the interpretation.

Differentiating the direct effects from the indirect effects of significant others' influence on aspirational plans entails an understanding of how race and gender relate to the variable. Significant other's influence appears to vary over time, has differential importance based on subgroup (i.e., blacks, whites, males, females), and variable influence depending on the measurement index used. In the preceding discussion, race was reported to be an important component in understanding occupational decision making. Questioning the comparability of variables influencing black attainment versus white attainment models has been the focus of several

investigators (Featherman, 1971; Howell, 1979; Kerckhoff & Campbell, 1977; Porter, 1974). For rural black youth the question is quite salient since vocational training, guidance, and educationally related programs are designed to influence aspirational goals.

### Race

Blacks have historically been cast in occupationally disadvantaged positions, are generally from lower socio-economic backgrounds, and occupational attainment has been in lower status positions (Hall, 1979; Jencks, 1979; Porter, 1974; Portes & Wilson, 1976; Treas, 1978). Focusing on the differential attainment patterns between blacks and whites has led to a number of conclusions concerning motivational patterns, ability, ambition, the role of significant others, and value orientations. Researchers such as Porter (1974) have explained differences in terms of Turner's (1960) contest mobility theory while others such as Hall (1979) have alluded to separate value orientations, blatant discrimination, and structural limitations without actually emphasizing any coherent theory. General models of status attainment developed by Blau and Duncan (1967) and Sewell et al. (1969) did not examine the potential for racial or gender differences. When models (such as the Wisconsin model) are applied to black populations, mediating variables influence aspirational goals differently than when models are applied to white populations.

Beginning with the assumption that race may limit subsequent mobility, Porter (1974) attempted to investigate and

elaborate potential status attainment differences between blacks and whites. Following the work of Sewellet al. (1969), Porter (1974) argued that the influence of significant others was mediated by perception of mental ability and socioeconomic position of origin. Thus, if parents were regarded as important significant others, then the child's mental ability and the socioeconomic status of the family would directly affect parental influence on their children. Porter (1974) suggested that parents function as socializing agents, typically influencing their children to conform to acceptable behaviors representative of the socioeconomic status they consider themselves to be in. According to Porter (1974), subsequent educational and occupational attainment would then be indirectly influenced by significant others. The direct influence on goals would be in terms of the individual's self-concept. Essentially, the extent to which individuals projected a self-concept that incorporated normative values or conformed to normative expectations would in large part relate to educational and occupational goals. Thus, self-concept, which Porter (1974) indexed in terms of conformity, was influenced directly by significant others. To summarize, Porter's (1974) model began with parental perception of the child's mental ability and their own socioeconomic position. Mental ability and socioeconomic status were directly connected to the influence that significant others exerted and in turn, affected self-concept and subsequent ambition. Porter (1974)



viewed ambition as the determinant of academic performance, educational attainment and final status attainment.

In order to evaluate the causal model with the ultimate goal of examining black/white differences, Porter (1974) analyzed extant data from the Project Talen study of high school youth. The study used a subsample of a national sample of 38,765 12th-grade male youths. Porter (1974) investigated his causal model based on a subsample of 14,891 white and 435 black respondents and suggested that the difference found between blacks and whites could be explained in the context of Turner's (1960) contest mobility theory. Specifically, blacks seemed to reflect a system of sponsored mobility (i.e., mobility is attained by being chosen by the established elite) in terms of their educational attainment as opposed to a contest system of mobility (i.e., success is achieved through competitive efforts). Porter (1974) argued that his results were in contrast to the contest mobility system in which whites predominated. These primary results were reported: (a) socioeconomic position or origin was not a major factor for blacks; (b) intelligence was related to educational attainment for blacks but not as closely related for whites; (c) ambition was directly related to final attainment for whites but not for blacks; and (d) conformity had stronger direct effects on blacks than whites for final attainment.

It would appear from Porter's (1974) investigative efforts that black and white differences in attainment reflect

what each group perceives as necessary to succeed. Blacks may realize that attainment for them rests on a system of sponsored mobility which emphasized conformity at the expense of ambition. Significant others play a minimal role in influencing aspirational level; however, socializing black youth toward conformity indirectly influences subsequent attainment. Conversely, among white youth, ambition is emphasized more than conformity and contributes toward advancement in a contest mobility system.

Further evidence for a sponsored mobility system of educational attainment for blacks is suggested by Porter's (1974) finding of a minimal relationship between academic performance and intelligence and educational attainment. Academic performance was measured by grades in school which Porter (1974) considered to be analogous to academic competence. The independence of grades for black youth from both intelligence and educational attainment suggested that for blacks academic performance was irrelevant to mobility with the system. Conceptualizing attainment for blacks as being based on a sponsored system, then academic performance loses salience as a means for gaining attainment. Porter (1974) summarized the situation for blacks in the following statement:

If blacks were in a contest system, their grades would be evidence of their achievement and hence qualify them for admission to the next level of competition, as is the case for whites. But performance is not of primary relevance in a sponsored system, for sponsored mobility is a function of being chosen, and not of doing well.  
(p. 314)

Assuming that Porter's (1974) conceptualization of black/white differences is correct, the difficulty that blacks then appear to face is that of being involved in a system of sponsored mobility for education and a system of contest mobility regarding occupational attainment. If the process of socialization for blacks, as Porter (1974) has argued, emphasizes conformity as a means of influencing advancement in a system of sponsored mobility, then preparation by black youth for entry into a contest system of occupational attainment may be hindered. The problem for black youth is such that educational attainment is linked to occupational attainment; however, educational attainment is perceived as a matter of selection and not performance. Thus, the expectations of black youth for advancement within the social system may be based on the unrealistic notions of sponsorship.

Supportive evidence for Porter's (1974) conceptualization of sponsored educational attainment for blacks can be drawn from the research effort of Portes and Wilson (1976). Specifically, the investigation of Portes and Wilson (1976) focused on two main areas: the extent to which initial attainment differences could be accounted for from previous substantiated mediating variables (i.e., Sewell et al., 1969) and the extent to which the entire attainment process differed between the races. In a procedure similar to that of Porter (1974), Portes and Wilson (1976) began their modeling efforts based on the Wisconsin format. In addition, the focus of investigation was limited to educational attainment which

constituted the primary effort of Porter (1974). Data were drawn from an extant data set comprising a longitudinal design. The original study was the Youth in Transition project of Bachman et al. (1978). Portes and Wilson (1976) interpreted their findings of black/white differences from what they suggested were dimensions of an "insider/outsider" dichotomy. Essentially, rather than emphasizing sponsored versus contest mobility systems, Portes and Wilson (1976) reported that academic performance was important as having direct influence on significant others, self-esteem, and educational aspirations. The relationship was sizable for blacks; however, a direct path from academic performance to educational attainment was not present as it was in the white group.

Similar to Porter's (1974) results, academic performance (indexed by grades) for blacks, especially those from all-black high schools, appeared to be irrelevant as marks of achievement. The primary difference between blacks and whites was in the differential access of the racial groupings to channels of educational attainment. The results for blacks placed in integrated schools approximated those of whites (i.e., a significant direct path from academic performance to educational attainment). Portes and Wilson (1976), without incorporating the contest mobility theory, nevertheless imply that when blacks become educational insiders the process of mobility changes to what appears to be a system of competition. The present expectation in regard to black attainment is that with integrated school systems, civil rights legislation,

and increased equality of opportunity, blacks may now have entered a total system of contest mobility. Thus, black/white differences in educational and occupational aspirations may tend to approximate a convergence.

The issue of equality of the opportunity structure in order to facilitate a convergence between blacks and whites in attainment was the focus of research by Kerckhoff and Campbell (1977). Reasoning that blacks may view the opportunity structure as inequitable and/or unpredictable, modeling efforts needed to incorporate a variable which was reflective of the opportunity structure. Previous results indicated that black students held educational and occupational aspirations similar to those of white students (Hall, 1979; Portes & Wilson, 1976; Tittle, 1980). The point of departure, however, was in actual level of attainment. Kerckhoff and Campbell (1977) argued that although high levels of attainment were desirable, if the individual believed that opportunities were not available then expectations and motivation would be likely to decline. In reference to black youth and their parents, Kerckhoff and Campbell (1977) suggested that parental perception of the opportunity structure would be ambiguous. Thus, parental advice to their children would tend to be uncertain, with few clear guidelines being set for accomplishing future goals. Even when the means for accomplishment are uncertain, the importance of attainment is still stressed. Kerckhoff and Campbell (1977) examined questionnaire data from all the 12th-grade males in a Midwestern community school

system and found that, indeed, perception of the opportunity structure was likely to affect an individuals expected attainment.

The question of whether there is a convergence between blacks and whites in terms of status aspirations was investigated by Howell and Frese (1979). Questionnaire data were collected on fifth- and sixth-grade students and their parents from a sample of 1,202 students from six southern states. The results of the study indicated that, at least for lower-socioeconomic-status whites, smaller effects are experienced from background factors on educational decisions than for whites of higher status (corresponding closely to results for lower-socioeconomic-status blacks). Howell and Frese (1979) argued that the similarity between lower-socioeconomic status whites and blacks implied a "race convergence." Specifically, Howell and Frese (1979) suggested that blacks whose situation most closely approximated that of whites would have similar aspirations and attainment patterns. A predominant factor influencing lower socioeconomic-status males of either race was the importance of mothers' educational attainment rather than that of fathers' attainment. Although Howell and Frese (1979) did not specifically deal with the opportunity structure, an implication that may be suggested is that the more similar blacks are to their white counterparts (regardless of socioeconomic status) the closer their status attainment aspirations will be.

From previous research and historical evidence, Hall (1979) has suggested that black/white differences in level

of aspiration have approximated each other. However, as discussed in the previous section and alluded to earlier, the differences between blacks and whites may in fact be found in the variables that influence the attainment process. The variables of significant others' influence, educational goals, mental ability, personality factors, family background, and gender may all show differential importance in affecting status attainment. Typically, status attainment research has focused on the white male, more recently on the black male, and only sporadically on the female. Since gender differences have been suggested as important to an overall understanding of the occupational attainment process, the following section provides a general review of gender differences found in status attainment research.

### Gender

The bias toward research on male occupational choice, social mobility, and status attainment has resulted, until recently, in a limited focus on females (Falk & Cosby, 1975). Treiman and Terrell (1975) suggested that the current interest in the status of women is in part a consequence of the increased role women have taken in the labor force. Nevertheless, the majority of studies that have been done on female status attainment have consisted of middle-class, college-oriented women (Hall, 1979). There is an even greater deficit of information available on low-income women; and the general models of status attainment according to Hall (1975) are less

than satisfactory in predicting status attainment of females representing low-income groups. The general explanations given for the neglect in status attainment research on women have included these points: the concept of traditional role models for females as that of homemakers, the greater dominance of males in the labor force, and the difficulty in assessing female mobility since it seemed more related to marriage than actual occupational goals. However, as Treiman and Terrell (1975) have noted, the situation is changing not only as a result of increased labor force participation, but in response to increased opportunities and in part as a consequence of outcome differentials that exist between males and females (i.e., income differences that exist for similar status positions).

Tittle (1980) asserted that an important omission in conceptualizing career choices of women has been in the effects of sex role socialization on the decision-making process.

She stated:

choices within a woman's world which include decisions about marriage, parenthood, and female-male responsibilities in homemaking are left unexamined in theory and often in research. (Tittle, 1980, p. 19)

The question that remains is how different are the status aspirations of males and females? Researchers such as Hall (1979) and Tittle (1980) seem to think that explanatory approaches such as the Wisconsin model are less than adequate. Conversely, Treiman and Terrell (1975) argued that there may



be more unfounded assumptions than actual fact, and suggested that more investigation was needed to either support or disconfirm the various assumptions. As an example, they proposed that sex role socialization, while different between males and females, may not necessarily result in restricted or different status aspirations between males and females.

In an early effort to investigate gender differences in educational attainment, Alexander and Eckland (1974) proposed that for females modeling efforts needed to incorporate sex-role related variables (e.g., marriage plans, fertility behaviors, socialization influences). An implied assumption in the investigation of Alexander and Eckland (1974) was that the inequality in educational attainment between males and females would explain the subsequent differences in status attainment. As noted from previous discussions, the relationship between educational and occupational attainment has been well documented (Blau & Duncan, 1967; Sewell et al., 1969). Alexander and Eckland (1974) predicted that for females, educational attainment would be lower than that of males and would be influenced to a greater extent by background variables rather than ability as is the case for males. Essentially, differences in educational attainment between males and females could be attributed to differences in socialization. The primary findings from Alexander and Eckland's (1974) study were the direct depressant sex effect on actual educational attainment and social class origin. It should be noted, however, that data for the analysis were

based on a national sample of youth first studied in 1955. Hence, educational attainment for females may have been more traditionally oriented (i.e., females become mothers and wives) in 1955 than it is today. As a case in point, Treiman and Terrell (1975) noted that early status attainment research on women generally focused on the status of their husbands. In today's society, basing women's status on that of their husbands may be very misleading.

As female labor force participation has increased, the importance of investigating female career patterns has often become an issue of inequality in income outcomes between males and females (Tittle, 1980). For example, Tittle (1980) cited statistical data which indicated that women workers were concentrated in low-paying, dead-end jobs, earning about three-fifths of the amount that men earn. From Tittle's (1980) perspective the issue of status attainment of women is more a question of overcoming discrimination than it is in determining influences that affect decision-making. Treiman and Terrell (1975) offered an alternative position by arguing:

while it is undeniable that the very highest status positions are relatively closed to women and are relatively difficult to advance in, even if entry is gained, the impulse to generalize these restrictions to all levels of the status hierarchy is clearly unwarranted. (p. 174)

In order to examine in detail status attainment between males and females, Treiman and Terrell (1975) analyzed an extant longitudinal data set which was gathered by the U. S. Bureau of Census in 1964 and 1967. From this sample of women aged 30-44, overly represented with nonwhites,

Treiman and Terrell (1975) focused on women employed in 1967. In order to make comparisons with working males, data were examined from another extant data set, initially collected in 1962 by the U.S. Census Bureau. In contrast to the findings of Alexander and Eckland (1974), Treiman and Terrell (1975) found that the process of educational attainment was essentially the same for both working males and females. A difference was found between working and nonworking females which did parallel the findings of Alexander and Eckland (1974). For nonworking females, educational attainment was more closely determined by the level of parental education and occupational attainment than was true of working women. In terms of occupational status, women tended to be concentrated in jobs which paid poorly relative to their educational requirements, but there was little evidence that women were concentrated in jobs which had lower status in other respects. According to Treiman and Terrell (1975), the process of occupational attainment for working males and females was similar. As with previous research on occupational attainment, Treiman and Terrell (1975) indicated that for both sexes occupational status depended on educational attainment.

Further support for the findings of Treiman and Terrell (1975) were evidenced in an investigation by McClendon (1976) who used an extant data set (General Social Survey GSS) thought to be somewhat superior to that used by Treiman and Terrell (1975). McClendon (1976) indicated that the Treiman and Terrell data for male subjects were collected five years

earlier than their female data. The GSS data McClendon used were collected on males and females at the same time. Additionally, the GSS data were 5 and 10 years more recent than the Treiman and Terrell data. The basic findings of McClendon (1976) indicated that socioeconomic background was more important for nonworking women in terms of educational attainment than it was for working women. Working women in Treiman and Terrell's (1975) study had similar attainment patterns those of their male counterparts. In an effort to develop an extended model of female status attainment, McClendon (1976) suggested that such a model might include variables of marital status, number of children (i.e., infants, pre-teenagers, and teenagers) and information about employment status (full-versus part-time). It will be recalled that the same suggestion was made in the Alexander and Eckland (1974) study. An analysis by McClendon (1976) using the extended model indicated that significant differences were found between part- and full-time workers and married versus nonmarried women. Overall, the extended model added little additional explanatory information over the original basic model (i.e., the Wisconsin format).

The above discussion related to gender differences in status attainment reviewed research which primarily used samples other than low-income individuals. Generally, the status attainment process appeared to be similar for both working males and females. Where differences did exist between males and females in status attainment was in earned

income differentials (Marini & Greenberger, 1978; Tittle, 1980). Since the primary focus of the present study is to investigate factors influencing status aspirations, inequality in income between males and females will not be examined. However, one might speculate that knowing inequality in income may exist, females may aspire to lower status occupations than those to which their male counterparts may aspire. Even so, findings from previous research have indicated that females have status aspirations as high as or higher than do males (Hall, 1979; McClendon, 1976; Thomas & Falk, 1978; Treiman & Terrell, 1975). In terms of low-income youth, particularly in rural areas, the situation while somewhat similar with respect to gender differences presents certain unique characteristics.

Using data gathered as part of a longitudinal southern research project on the career patterns of rural youth, Thomas and Falk (1978) presented results pertaining to the status ambitions of rural males and females. Questionnaire data were collected at three points in time (1966, 1968, and 1972). The initial sample interviewed in 1966 consisted of 7,972 high school sophomores. The final sample, drawn from the original pool, included 1,052 individuals. The results of the investigation revealed that for rural females both black and white aspired to traditional status occupations. Thomas and Falk (1978) reported that 60% of the white females ( $N = 240$ ) and 56% of the black females ( $N = 202$ ) indicated preferences for such occupations as beautician, secretary, school teacher, and nurse. An interesting finding, also

noted by Thomas and Falk (1978), was that few women desired to be housewives. Similar to previous research investigations, women's aspirations were, in general, as high as men's. In regard to status expectations for white females, over three-fourths of the women expected traditional career choices, with almost 30% anticipating becoming housewives. Thomas and Falk (1978) summarized the situation for rural females as follows:

One might say these women evidenced a career choice myopia. Their focus was not on the broad range of occupations but rather on those few occupations wherein large numbers of women already reside. Given this finding, there is strong suggestion of a completeness with which traditional sex-role socialization is carried out and/or the degree to which these young women perceived a sex-restricted range of attainable occupations. (p. 87)

Although rural youth, particularly women, may evidence traditional status attainment patterns, the variables that influence the process may show variability between the sexes. As suggested previously, the influence that parents exert on attainment may be variable depending on whether the child is male or female. Butler and Baird (1974) reported the results from an initial baseline study of rural youth in the southeast which suggested that for females as opposed to males, there was more of a direct effect on occupational aspirations by the independent variables under investigation in the study (i.e., mother's aspirations and expectations for child's occupation, father's influence, mother's preference for child with ongoing traits and character traits and being first born). For males in the sample, the same variables

evidenced more of an indirect pattern of influence. The baseline study that Butler and Baird (1974) reported on is part of the present study, and will be used as the initial starting point from which status aspirations will be examined. In general, rural females both black and white may be expected to evidence traditional career choices and be influenced by similar variables as that of their male counterparts; however, the paths of influence of the designated independent variables (i.e., significant others' influence, educational goals, intellectual ability, and self-concept) known to effect status attainment will tend to be different.

The interplay of the primary variables on status ambitions reflects a closely integrated process. The social-psychological variables of self-concept, academic motivation, and significant others' influence affect each other and are in turn under the influence of family background and socioeconomic status. How the parent related to the child is as much a function of perception of the child's ability and gender socialization as it is on previous experiences and social class expectations. The general approach of the present investigation will ascertain how the basic model of Sewell et al. (1969) changes over time in its ability to account for variability in status aspirations. Rather than delineate causal linkages, the basic model suggested by the Wisconsin group will be used to explain the occupational aspirations of rural youth. Realizing that the model may change over time both in terms of the importance of the independent

variables and in explanatory power, several hypotheses are proposed for investigation.

#### Statement of the Problem

The literature cited suggested that the causal modeling efforts of Blau and Duncan (1967) and Sewell et al. (1969) seemed to be well substantiated, at least in terms of the variables to be incorporated into modeling efforts. Based on the review of research investigating status aspirations of youth and focusing on a low-income population, five hypotheses will be examined.

Generally, when status attainment models have been employed (i.e., Bachman et al., 1978; Blau & Duncan, 1967; Sewell et al., 1969) the populations sampled have initially been investigated in the early to late years of high school. Since the initial point of investigation for youth in this study is the fifth- and sixth-grades, the expectation is that overall the model may have less ability to account for variance in occupational aspirations. The primary independent variables at the initial point for this study may not be as important to status aspirations as the literature indicates they have been among older youth. Essentially, occupational aspirations for youth at the fifth- and sixth-grade levels may just be forming, and predictor variables as such may be weaker than at later periods. Therefore, the specific hypothesis to be investigated is stated as follows:

- I. The selected independent variables of family background, significant others' influence, intellectual ability, self-concept, educational



goals, and academic motivation will explain less variability in occupational aspirations in the preadolescent period than in the adolescent period.

The second general inference is directed at the potential sex and race differences. It is expected that the opportunity structure available for preadolescent youth in the 1969 era (the first wave of data collection) was not as potentially equitable as it has been suggested to be in later years; therefore, the model may have better explanatory power for white youth than for black youth. As a consequence, the hypothesis to be investigated is as follows:

- II. The overall importance of the independent variables in the preadolescent years will be greater for white than black youth. The selected independent variables will have no differences on occupational aspirations in terms of preadolescent males and females.

The next general area of investigation, alluded to in the first hypothesis, is the overall explanatory power of the model in the adolescent years (when most youths were in high school). It is expected that in the adolescent years the model will be more robust since youths will have formed more realistic aspirational levels. Secondly, the differences found between race and gender in occupational aspirations are expected to diminish as a consequence of improvement in the opportunity structure. The following hypotheses are proposed for investigation:

- III. In the adolescent years, the selected independent variables will have a greater direct effect on occupational aspirations than in the preadolescent years or post-high-school years. In the adolescent years, those variables found to have

significant direct effects will be different than in the preadolescent and post-high school years.

- IV. The amount of explained variability in the causal model will be approximately the same for both black and white and male and female adolescents. In addition, those variables which have significant direct effects on occupational aspirations will not differ for black and white, and male and female adolescent youth.

The final area of concern is directed at the ability of the model to account for occupational aspirations in the late adolescent or post-high-school years. On the assumption that most of the youths have reached attainment levels in education and are now in the labor force, the model is expected to diminish in its ability to explain occupational aspirations. In addition, gender and race differentials are expected to be minimal paralleling that found in the adolescent years. The formal hypothesis is stated below:

- V. There will be no difference in those variables showing a significant direct effect on occupational aspirations between black and white youth, and males and females in the post-high-school period. In addition, the overall explanatory power of the model will be approximately the same for the four groups in the post-high-school period.

### CHAPTER III

#### METHODS AND PROCEDURES

The primary focus of this investigation was to examine a model of occupational aspirations over time. The model used was based on the Wisconsin status attainment model of Sewell et al. (1969). Specifically, the present model is one of status attainment of low-income rural youth from six southern states. The following section provides a description of the study design, sample procedures of the data collection, operational definitions of the variables, and analyses.

#### Study Design

The study was longitudinal in design and involved three waves of assessment: the first in 1969, the second in 1975, and the last wave in 1979. A regional research committee made up of members from six southeastern states carried out the study. The sample was drawn from schools and then entire classrooms from the schools were selected. As a consequence, the sample was not random because there was not a complete list of all qualifying schools with each having an equal, or known, probability of being selected. The sample is considered to be stratified in that specific subpopulations were drawn. In addition, as Proctor (1974), the project statistician, noted, the practice of taking all fifth- or sixth-graders in the selected schools is a form of cluster

sampling. Proctor (1974) explained that:

A stratified sample design usually leads to greater internal diversity than a simple random sample, while clustering leads to the opposite. One could say that, in balance, the variance formulas for a simple random sample should thus be realistic.  
(p. 61)

The sample may be described most accurately as a purposive or judgmental sample. Hall (1979) suggested that a purposive sample was justified, considering the objective for the original wave of data collection (Southern Regional Project S-63), which was to compare the goals of low-income youth from three subcultures in the South. In addition, the cost and time involved in selecting a probability sample of low-income youth would have been prohibitive.

In the baseline phase, or first wave of data collection, the mother-child pairs were interviewed and the fifth- and sixth-graders completed questionnaires in their classrooms. Although during home interviews the mothers responded to questions concerning the aspirations they held for their children and their child-rearing practices, the mothers' data were not used in the present investigation. The youths answered questions ascertaining their occupational and educational goals, communication and relationships with their parents, academic motivation, and their self-concept (see Appendix A, Child's Questionnaire).<sup>1</sup>

---

<sup>1</sup>For additional information describing either the baseline or experimental phase of S-63 Southern Regional Research Project, see Southern Regional Technical Committee for Family Life, Information Series I, 1974.

The second wave of data used in the study was collected in 1975. This phase involved reinterviewing the youth from the initial sample. The youth were then ages 17 to 19 and in the 11th and 12th grades; therefore, most survey questionnaires were administered in the school setting. Those absent from school on the interview day were contacted at their homes or other appropriately scheduled places. In this 1975 follow-up, youths were again asked questions related to their occupational and educational goals. In addition, they were asked to report who was most influential in helping them arrive at their goals (see Appendix B, 1975 Youth Questionnaire).

The final data collection phase occurred in 1979. Sample members were recontacted through a mail procedure and asked to respond to questions related to occupational and educational goals (see Appendix C, 1979 Questionnaire). This last wave of data collection proved to be the most difficult, inasmuch as tracking procedures involved mailings, telephone calls, and face-to-face contact within and beyond the region. (See Appendix D for discussion of the tracking procedures employed.)

### Subjects

Subjects for the study consisted of a sample of low-income Southern youths. At the initial point of contact in 1969, data were gathered on 1,412 mother-child pairs. The youths, mostly ages 11 to 13, were in the fifth and sixth grades. The sample was drawn from seven Southeastern states (Alabama, Kentucky, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina,

Tennessee, and Virginia). Data were collected under the direction of Southern Regional Research Project S-63.<sup>2,3</sup>

Alabama later dropped out of the study and the original youths from that state were not recontacted. Consequently, only data from the remaining six states were used for the present study.

The students in the study were considered to be representative of a rural subculture if they attended school in a county or town with a population of less than 2,500 people. Youths drawn from urban areas came from cities of 50,000 or more. The sample drawn reflected areas of poverty and unemployment, in regions characterized as economically depressed.

The present investigation involved 544 individuals who were followed up over time and from whom completed questionnaires were available for all three assessment periods. The total group included 91 black males, 97 black females, 150 white males, and 206 white females.

#### Respondents versus Nonrespondents

Since the present study is a longitudinal effort, the problem of subject drop-out over time brings to question how

---

<sup>2</sup>Southern Regional Research Project S-63 was titled "Influences on Occupational Goals of Young People in Three Southern Subcultures in the South." Funding for the project was received through USDA, Cooperative State Research Service.

<sup>3</sup>The author of the present study participated in the third wave of data collection.

different the respondents were from the nonrespondents. Since data were available on all subjects in 1969, comparisons can be made between those subjects remaining in the study and those who dropped-out. The total number of respondents were 544 individuals; nonrespondents totaled 658 individuals. An additional 210 individuals were not included in the final analysis since Alabama dropped out of the study after the first wave of data were collected. T-tests were used to examine the differences between respondents and nonrespondents on the selected path variables used in the study. Differences were found in mental ability (respondents  $\bar{X}$  IQ = 91.85 versus nonrespondents  $\bar{X}$  IQ = 85.05,  $p < .01$ ) and family background (respondents  $\bar{X}$  FBK = 133.56 versus nonrespondents  $\bar{X}$  FBK = 127.82,  $p < .01$ ). No differences were found between the groups in occupational aspirations, academic motivation, educational goals, and significant others' influence.

#### Procedure for Data Collection

The initial questionnaire used in 1969 was pretested by the participating states between January and July of 1968. The original version of the youth questionnaire was revised by the regional subcommittee of the project and the final instrument was completed in January of 1969. The baseline instrument contained 116 items (see Appendix A), in addition to information on demographic characteristics. Interviewers were given a manual of instructions to read in preparation for the interviewing process and introducing themselves to the student subjects. Training sessions were then held with

the interviewers to explain and clarify the purpose and administration procedures to be used in the study. Prompters and instructions were included for each section of the instrument to guide the students in completing the questionnaire. Interviewers in all seven states followed the same procedures.

In 1969, the questionnaires were administered to all students in the classroom by a two-person team (project researchers). One team member read the instructions, while the other assisted the students by answering individual questions and acting as a monitor to ensure procedures were followed correctly. After the initial administration, students not meeting the criteria of being representative of a low-income subculture and those with below average IQ's were dropped from the sample. In 1975, similar procedures for administering the questionnaires were used with the 1969 sample. Additional instructions were given on how to follow up those students who were no longer in school or had left the community. The 1979 follow-up, as previously discussed, involved mailing questionnaires to the respondents. A discussion of respondent follow-up procedures is available in Appendix D.

Each state participating in the project was responsible for coding returned questionnaires in the 1979 follow-up. Responses were coded on to a prepared coding sheet from which computer cards were keypunched. The coding of occupational aspirations and expectations was completed at the



University of North Carolina at Greensboro for all the states in order to ensure uniformity of codes. Items reflecting important life events were coded at the University of Kentucky. All computer cards were then sent to North Carolina State University for transfer to data tapes.

#### Operational Definitions of the Variables

The primary dependent variable in the present study is the occupational aspiration endorsed by the youths in 1969, 1975, and 1979. Aspirations were assessed by asking the following question: "If you could choose any job you wanted, what kind of job would you really like to have when you grow up?" In 1975, the same question was asked; however, "when you grow up" was changed to "in the future." In 1979, the question was worded as follows: "If you could choose any job you wanted, what kind of job would you really like to have in the future?" The job choice was then coded using the NORC (National Opinion Research Center) classification structure developed by North and Hatt (Reiss, 1961). The NORC classification scheme was derived as a prestige continuum of occupations. Ten major categories of occupations were listed with job choices being representative of each category. Status scores, using the NORC scale, ranged from 93-34.

The differentiation of aspirations from expectations has been suggested on theoretical grounds in the literature (Kuvlesky & Bealer, 1966); however, in the present investigation aspirations and expectations have been used as a

combined measure of overall aspirations. This procedure was thought to be a better measure of status ambitions, since there was little difference between actual aspirations and expectations. On theoretical grounds, Hall (1979) suggested that expectations are such that most youths, in setting occupational goals, ignore potential barriers to attainment. Consequently, expectations are not actual indicators of "reality." Basically, however, because of the similarity between scores of aspirations and expectations, there is probably greater statistical logic than theoretical rationale for combining aspirations and expectations.

The six independent variables that were used in the analysis are family background, significant others' influence, intellectual ability, self-concept, educational goals, and academic motivation. Not all the variables were present for each year. In the adolescent years, self-concept was not measured and in the post-high school years, educational attainment was incorporated into the model. The above variables will be defined in order:

1. Family Background (FBK) is a composite socioeconomic status score based on the breadwinner's occupation, the level of schooling of the mother and of the father, and a six-item measure of social participation (e.g., voter registration and voting behavior, church attendance, memberships in organizations, frequency of watching news on television, and reading the newspaper). FBK is considered as a structural variable and is used in the 1969, 1975, and 1979 models.

2. Intellectual Ability (IQ), another structural variable, was assessed in 1969 by the child's score on the Otis-Lennon mental ability test, a group-administered mental ability measurement. Otis and Lennon (1969) reported validity coefficients between the range of .60 to .80 by testing their scale against other mental ability measures.

3. Educational Goals (ED), representing the next variable to be considered, were ascertained in 1969 when youth were asked the following questions: "If you had your choice, how far would you like to go in school?" and "How far do you think you really will go in school?". In 1975, the same questions were asked; and in 1979 the statement to measure aspirations read as follows: "Looking into the future, which of the following statements best describes how much additional education and training you would really like to have?". The respondent then endorsed 1 of 8 choices ranging from trade or vocational/technical school to desiring no further education. To measure expectations in 1979 the respondent was asked: "Looking into the future, which of the following statements best describes how much additional education and training you think you really will get?". In each year, the responses were summed and a mean score was used as the overall measure for educational goals.

4. Academic Motivation (AC), along with educational goals, is included in the 1969 and 1975 models. In 1979 most youth had either attained educational goals or were completing

them; therefore, a measure of academic motivation was not present in the 1979 data. The independent variable of academic motivation was assessed by using Elder's (1962) scale. The scale included such items as: "I am interested in my school work.", "I really try to get good grades.", and "I study or read at home.". The total scale consisted of six items and the respondent's choice of answer was a five-response schema ranging from always to never.

5. Significant Others' Influence (FTK) is an indicator of whom the youth has talked to regarding future plans. Essentially, FTK reflects the influence of family members. Respondents checked on the questionnaire whom they talked with about future plans.

6. Self-Concept (SEL) was assessed by the youth's responses to a scale developed by Lipsit (1958). The scale was used in 1969, and consisted of 22 descriptive words or phrases which the children checked according to how well they believed it described the way they felt about themselves. In 1975, a measure of self-concept was not administered to respondents and, therefore, the variable is not used in the 1975 model. However, in 1979, a seven-item measure of self-concept was employed (NLS, 1974). The measure consisted of such items as "I take a positive attitude toward myself." The respondent then checked whether he/she strongly agreed, agreed, disagreed, or strongly disagreed with the statement.

### Analyses

In order to ascertain the ability of the model to account for overall variability in the dependent measure, multiple regression techniques were used. Path modeling was used to determine the relative importance of the independent variables over time. Path analysis is a method of decomposing and interpreting linear relationships among a set of variables by assuming that a prior causal ordering is known among the variables. Assuming the legitimacy of the path modeling of Blau and Duncan (1967) and Sewell et al. (1969), the ordering of the selected independent variables is known. It was not the intent of the present investigation to establish a different ordering by testing the known causal model, but to test the known causal model with the present sample of low-income Southern youth. In addition, in an effort to better describe the changes that took place in the selected variables over the 10-year span, path analytic procedures were used. The basic model is diagrammed in Figure 1. All analyses were carried out using the Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS) computer programs (Nie et al., 1975).

The basic model that was analyzed is a recursive model in which the variables that were incorporated have a fairly clear causal ordering (Sewell et al., 1969). The path model examined in this study included three exogenous variables (race, sex, and socioeconomic status or family background,

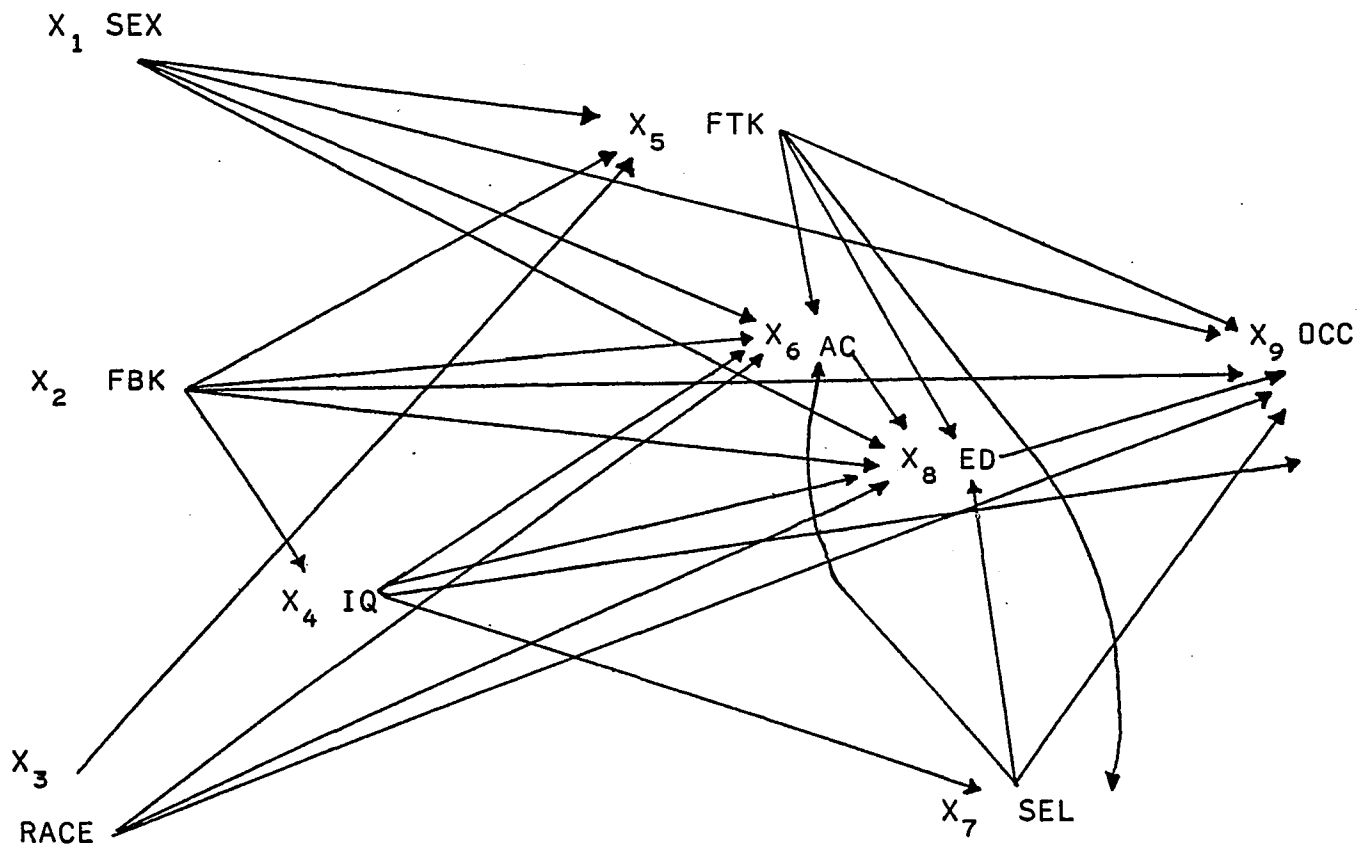


Figure 1. Standard path model.

Note: FBK--Family Background  
 IQ--Mental Ability  
 SEL--Self-concept  
 AC--Academic Motivation

ED--Educational Goals  
 OCC--Occupational Aspirations  
 SEX  
 RACE

FBK).<sup>4</sup> The direct effects on the three exogenous variables (sex,  $X_1$ ; family background,  $X_2$ ; and race,  $X_3$ ) were not analyzed, since their "causes" were not of issue to the study. The effects of the exogenous variables as antecedents are figured into each regression equation for the direct effects on the variables which appear later in the model. The following equations were used to estimate the direct effects on each dependent variable:

$$X_4 = P_{42}X_2 + E$$

$$X_5 = P_{51}X_1 + P_{52}X_2 + P_{53}X_3 + E$$

$$X_6 = P_{61}X_1 + P_{62}X_2 + P_{63}X_3 + P_{64}X_4 + P_{65}X_5 + P_{67}X_7 + E$$

$$X_7 = P_{74}X_4 + P_{75}X_5 + E$$

$$X_8 = P_{81}X_1 + P_{82}X_2 + P_{83}X_3 + P_{84}X_4 + P_{85}X_5 + P_{86}X_6 \\ + P_{87}X_7 + E$$

$$X_9 = P_{91}X_1 + P_{92}X_2 + P_{93}X_3 + P_{94}X_4 + P_{95}X_5 + P_{97}X_7 \\ + P_{98}X_8 + E$$

The analyses of each of the six equations involved a hierarchical inclusion method of multiple regression. That is, the variables are examined against the dependent variable based on temporal priority as illustrated in Figure 1. Further analyses of the effects of the variables in the model were accomplished through the determination of the total indirect effects (TIE) and the residual causes of the variables. The six regression equations were performed four times based on a breakdown of the sample into all blacks, all whites, all

---

<sup>4</sup>An exogenous variable is a variable whose variability is assumed to be determined by causes outside the causal model (Kerlinger & Pedhazur, 1973, p. 308).

males, and all females. The same steps were employed again for the data collected in 1975 and 1979. The sample was not able to be analyzed by black males, black females, white males, and white females since the total number of subjects needed for the analyses was not large enough.

It should be noted, that the total number of subjects used in each analysis varied as the result of incomplete data. The SPSS procedure for path analysis will delete all the data for a subject from inclusion in the analysis if data are missing on a particular variable. In the present study, particularly in the post-high-school years, the dependent variable was most often left blank by respondents. In the preadolescent years the total number of subjects included in the analysis were 503 individuals. In the adolescent years the total sample used in the analyses was 465 subjects, and in the post-high-school years the sample included for analyses consisted of 237 subjects. An initial attempt was made to analyze the data by black males, black females, white males, and white females; however, because of the reduced sample size (for the reason noted above) in the post-high-school years the analysis could not be completed. The analysis was attempted for the preadolescent and adolescent years. Based on these preliminary analyses, the data indicated that there were similarities in the preadolescent years between black males and black females in terms of those variables that directly influenced occupational aspirations. In the adolescent years, occupational aspirations of black males, black



females, white males, and white females appeared to have been influenced by the same variables.

The present author was involved in the last phase of data collection with responsibility for follow-up procedures in one state and for coding of all occupational aspirations. Managing the three phases' data tape and designing and conducting the analyses for the present investigation were also handled by the author.

CHAPTER IV  
ANALYSES OF THE DATA

The major results of the study were analyzed and are organized in this chapter by each year of the data collection phases which represents a developmental period. The first section of this chapter examines the statistical assumptions necessary for regression and subsequent path analysis; and the next section focused on an examination of the hypotheses. Following the discussion of the hypotheses, the results for the preadolescent years (1969) are reported. Specific descriptive statistics for the sample in the preadolescent years are initially reported. Subsequent analyses of the path models for all males, all females, all blacks, and all whites are then presented. In the third and fourth portions of the chapter this same organizational pattern is followed for the adolescent data (1975) and for the data from youth in post-high school years (1979).

Statistical Assumptions for Path Analyses

In order to examine the appropriateness for regression and subsequent path analysis, the basic statistical assumptions were that (a) the sample is randomly drawn; (b) that the dependent variable is normally distributed at even points along the independent variable; (c) that the regression is linear; and (d) that there is homogeneity of variance among the

dependent variable scores at each point on the independent variable (Nie et al., 1975).

According to Proctor (1974), in reference to the initial sampling strategy, the "levels of significance computed using conventional regression theory assumptions will be taken as correct." The ability to use analytic procedures in order to ascertain causal linkages between variables is predicated on the fact that the scale of measurement of the dependent variable is at least on an interval level. In the present study, this was the case.

The occupational score was developed as a prestige or status continuum (Reiss, 1961). The NORC Scale for occupations places the prestige scores on a partially ordered scale which is designed to reflect a social-status continuum. (For a discussion on the representativeness of the NORC occupations see Reiss, 1961.) In general, the construction of the scale may be taken to reflect a continuum of occupational prestige.

#### Examination of Hypotheses

The five hypotheses that were presented for investigation at the end of Chapter III were tested through the use of path analytic procedures. The analyses provided information on the models' ability to explain occupational aspirations, as well as the changing importance of the independent variables over time. The specific hypotheses are presented in the following section.

### Hypothesis 1

The first hypothesis proposed examined the overall explanatory power of the causal model for occupational aspirations.

H<sub>1</sub> The selected independent variables of family background, significant others' influence, intellectual ability, self-concept, educational goals, and academic motivation will explain less variability in occupational aspirations in the preadolescent period than in the adolescent period.

As shown in Table 1 the total variability explained was greater in the adolescent period than in the preadolescent period. Consequently, Hypothesis 1 was supported. The summary tables reveal that in the preadolescent years the selected independent variables accounted for approximately 13.1% of the variability in occupational aspirations, as compared to 35.1% of variance accounted for in the adolescent years.

### Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2 examined the relative importance of the independent variables between black youth and white youth and males and females in the preadolescent years.

H<sub>2</sub> The overall importance of the independent variables in the preadolescent years will be greater for white youth than black youth. In terms of preadolescent males and females, the selected independent variables will have equal influence

Table 1  
Summary Table Comparing the Path Variables for the  
Sample of Preadolescent and Adolescent Youth

Occupational Aspirations	Preadolescent Youth		
	$\underline{R}^2$	$\underline{R}^2$ Change	Beta
Race	.016	.016	-.158**
Family Background	.036	.019	.067
Sex	.080	.043	-.196**
Mental Ability (IQ)	.089	.009	.069
Significant Others' Influence	.091	.001	.037
Educational Goals	.131	.039	.215**
Self-Concept	.131	.000	-.016
	Adolescent Youth		
Sex	.077	.077	-.296**
Race	.089	.012	-.077
Family Background	.140	.051	.033
Mental Ability (IQ)	.194	.053	.164**
Significant Others' Influence	.204	.009	.049
Educational Goals	.351	.147	.433**

\*Self-concept was not measured in the adolescent years.

\* $\underline{p} < .05$

\*\* $\underline{p} < .01$

Preadolescent Youth OVERALL  $\underline{F}$  (7,495) = 10.718\*\*  $\underline{R}^2 = .131$   
Adolescent Youth OVERALL  $\underline{F}$  (6,458) = 41.340\*\*  $\underline{R}^2 = .351$

on occupational aspirations.

Hypothesis 2 was partially supported as there were no differences found in the significant direct effects of the independent variables between black youth and white youth. As predicted, preadolescent males and females evidenced similar effects of the selected independent variables on their occupational aspirations. Educational goals was the only variable that had significant direct effects among the four groups (see Table 2).

### Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3 was derived to examine the direct effect that the path variables had on occupational aspirations. It was predicted that in the adolescent years the independent variables would have greater direct effects on occupational aspirations than in the preadolescent or post-high-school years. It was also anticipated that those variables found to have significant direct effects on occupational aspirations would change over time.

H<sub>3</sub> In the adolescent years, the selected independent variables will have a greater direct effect on occupational aspirations than in the preadolescent or post-high-school years. In the adolescent years, those variables found to have significant direct effects, will be different than in the preadolescent and post-high school years.

Table 3 depicts the general decomposition of the path variables over time. Hypothesis 3 was partially supported.

Table 2

General Decomposition Table for Occupational Aspirations of  
Preadolescent Black and White Youth and Males and Females

Bivariate Relationship	<u>r</u>		<u>Direct Effect</u>		<u>Indirect Effect</u>		<u>Total Effect</u>	
	Blacks	Whites	Blacks	Whites	Blacks	Whites	Blacks	Whites
OCC, FBK	.127	.150	.039	.055	.044	.059	.083	.114
OCC, IQ	.147	.169	.058	.085	.001	.042	.059	.127
OCC, FTK	.171	.054	.133	.002	.006	.005	.139	.007
OCC, ED	.244	.262	.201**	.244**	None	None	.201	.224
OCC, SEL	.110	.040	.050	-.014	.016	.020	.066	.006

Bivariate Relationship	<u>r</u>		<u>Direct Effect</u>		<u>Indirect Effect</u>		<u>Total Effect</u>	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
OCC, FBK	.184	.107	.078	.083	.068	.041	.146	.124
OCC, IQ	.144	-.024	.073	-.119	.068	.001	.146	-.117
OCC, FTK	.048	.068	.007	.083	.015	.003	.022	.086
OCC, ED	.292	.246	.266**	.227**	None	None	.266	.227
OCC, SEL	-.005	.121	-.059	.064	.037	.043	-.021	.107

\*p &lt; .05

\*\*p &lt; .01

Blacks OVERALL  $F(5, 175) = 3.52^{**}$ ,  $R^2 = .09$ Whites OVERALL  $F(5, 316) = 5.58^{**}$ ,  $R^2 = .081$ Males OVERALL  $F(5, 224) = 5.18^{**}$ ,  $R^2 = .10$ Females OVERALL  $F(5, 267) = 4.73^{**}$ ,  $R^2 = .08$ Total  $R^2 = .131$

Table 3

General Decomposition Table for the Total Model of Occupational Aspirations for  
Preadolescent, Adolescent, and Post-High School Youth

Bivariate Relationship	r			Direct Effect			Indirect Effect			Total Effect		
	Pre	Adol	Post- HS	Pre	Adol	Post- HS	Pre	Adol	Post- HS	Pre	Adol	Post- HS
SEX, OCC, 0 OCC2, OCC3	-.193	-.227	-.131	-.196**	-.296**	-.123*	-.006	.022	.019	-.202	-.274	-.103
RACE, OCC OCC2, OCC3	-.127	-.084	-.146	-.158**	-.007	-.146*	-.042	.154	.040	-.200	.077	-.106
FBK, OCC, OCC2, OCC3	.079	.033	.141*	.067	.033	.141*	.056	.077	.106	.123	.110	.247
IQ, OCC OCC2, OCC3	.079	.254	.202	.069	.164**	.117	.041	.104	.043	.110	.268	.160
FTK, FTK2, FTK3, OCC, OCC2, OCC3	.070	.129	.083	.037	.049	-.038	.005	.051	.041	.042	.100	.003
ED, ED2, ED3, OCC, OCC2, OCC3	.267	.476	.119	.215**	.433**	-.085	None	.000	None	.210	.433	-.085
SEL, SEL2, OCC, OCC3	.077		.298	-.016		.233**	.018		None	.002		.233
EDA, OCC3			.420			.304**			None			.304

\* $p < .05$ \*\* $p < .01$ Preadolescent Youth (Pre)--OVERALL  $F(7, 495) = 10.71^{**}$ ,  $R^2 = .13$ Adolescent Youth (Adol)--OVERALL  $F(6, 458) = 41.34^{**}$ ,  $R^2 = .35$ Post-High School Youth (Post HS)--OVERALL  $F(98, 228) = 12.69^{**}$ ,  $R^2 = .31$ 

FBK--Family Background

IQ--Mental Ability

FTK--Significant Others' Influence (1969)

FTK2--Significant Others' Influence (1975)

FTK3--Significant Others' Influence (1979)

ED--Educational Goals (1969)

ED2--Educational Goals (1975)

ED3--Educational Goals (1979)

SEL--Self-concept (1969)

SEL2--Self-concept (1975)

EDA--Educational Attainment

OCC--Occupational Aspirations (1969)

OCC2--Occupational Aspirations (1975)

OCC3--Occupational Aspirations (1979)



The independent variables in the adolescent years did have a greater direct effect on occupation aspirations than in the preadolescent years. The direct effect of educational goals was approximately double that found in the preadolescent years. In addition, mental ability was found to have a significant direct effect in the adolescent years and not in the preadolescent years. The direct effect of educational goals was approximately double that found in the preadolescent years. In addition, mental ability was found to have a significant direct effect in the adolescent years and not in the preadolescent years. When comparison was made between the adolescent years and the post-high-school years, mental ability no longer had significant direct effect on occupational aspirations in the post-high-school period. Instead, family background and educational attainment in the post-high-school period were found to have significant direct effect on occupational aspirations. In addition, self-concept was included into the model in the post-high-school period which was omitted in the adolescent years. Self-concept was also found to have significant direct effects on occupational aspirations in the post-high-school years.

#### Hypothesis 4

Hypothesis 4 was concerned with the convergence between black and white youth both in terms of the model's overall explanatory power and the relative importance of the selected independent variables on occupational aspirations. It was predicted that there would be no difference between black

youth and white youth in the overall explanatory power of the model. In addition, in the adolescent years the same significant direct effects of the independent variables would be found between black youth and white youth. In regard to males and females, a similar convergence would be found as between black youth and white youth.

H<sub>4</sub> The amount of explained variability in the causal model will be approximately the same for both black and white, and male and female adolescents. In addition, those variables which have significant direct effects on occupational aspirations will not differ for black and white, and male and female adolescent youth.

Hypothesis 4 was confirmed; although the overall explanatory power of the model remained slightly higher for white youth than black youth. Mental ability and educational goals had significant direct effects across groups; however, female adolescent youth proved an exception as mental ability did not have a significant direct effect on occupational aspirations (see Table 4).

#### Hypothesis 5

Hypothesis 5 was derived in order to examine the differences between black youth and white youth, and males and females in the post-high school years. It was predicted that no differences would exist between black youth and white youth either on those variables showing a significant direct effect on occupational aspirations or in terms of the model's overall

Table 4

Summary Table for the Path Variables for Adolescent  
Black and White Youth and Males and Females

Occupational Aspirations	<u>R<sup>2</sup></u>		<u>R<sup>2</sup> Change</u>		<u>Beta</u>	
	Blacks	Whites	Blacks	Whites	Blacks	Whites
Family Background	.034	.054	.034	.054	.028	.008
Mental Ability	.101	.126	.066	.072	.239**	.165**
Significant Others' Influence	.101	.139	.000	.012	.010	.014
Educational Goals	.206	.290	.104	.150	.331**	.447**

	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
Family Background	.076	.037	.076	.037	.063	.018
Mental Ability	.130	.044	.054	.006	.198**	.056
Significant Others' Influence	.132	.056	.001	.012	.059	.025
Educational Goals	.322	.283	.190	.226	.456**	.508**

\*p < .05  
\*\*p < .01

Blacks OVERALL  $\bar{F}(4, 149) = 9.67^{**}$ ,  $R^2 = .206$   
Whites OVERALL  $\bar{F}(4, 306) = 31.269^{**}$ ,  $R^2 = .290$   
Males OVERALL  $\bar{F}(4, 205) = 24.447^{**}$ ,  $R^2 = .322$   
Females OVERALL  $\bar{F}(4, 250) = 24.723^{**}$ ,  $R^2 = .283$   
Total  $R^2 = .351$

explanatory power. A similar inference was drawn between males and females.

H<sub>5</sub> There will be no difference in those variables showing a significant direct effect on occupational aspirations between black youth and white youth, and males and females in the post-high-school period. In addition, the overall explanatory power of the model will be approximately the same for the four groups in the post-high-school period.

Hypothesis 5 was not supported. As shown in Table 5, black youth and white youth differed in terms of the model's explanatory power ( $\underline{R}^2 = .370$ , for black youth versus  $\underline{R}^2 = .288$ , for white youth). Black youth evidenced no significant direct effects of family background on occupational aspirations which their white counterparts did. Differences were also indicated between males and females. For post-high school female youth, educational goals and family background showed significant direct effects on occupational aspirations. Unlike female youth, male youth in the post-high school period evidenced a significant direct effect of mental ability on occupational aspirations; however, no significant direct effects were found with family background or educational goals.

#### Analysis of the Data for Preadolescent Youth (1969)

An examination of Table 6 provides the means and standard deviations of the selected variables for preadolescent

Table 5

Summary Table for the Path Variables for Post-High School  
Black Youth and White Youth and Males and Females

Occupational Aspirations	R <sup>2</sup>		R <sup>2</sup> Change		Beta	
	Blacks	Whites	Blacks	Whites	Blacks	Whites
Sex	.007	.025	.007	.025	-.107	-.142
Family Background	.101	.104	.093	.079	.102	.159*
Mental Ability	.147	.121	.046	.016	.203	.055
Significant Others' Influence	.157	.127	.009	.005	-.170	.002
Educational Goals	.167	.151	.010	.024	.027	.089
Educational Attainment	.260	.252	.092	.100	.281*	.331**
Self-concept	.370	.288	.110	.036	.349**	.200**

Occupational Aspirations	Males		Females		Males		Females	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
Sex	.030	.017	.030	.017	-.183	-.078		
Family Background	.103	.112	.073	.095	.117	.223*		
Mental Ability	.163	.113	.060	.000	.187*	-.047		
Significant Others' Influence	.164	.125	.000	.012	-.061	.031		
Educational Goals	.176	.164	.012	.038	.029	.169*		
Educational Attainment	.324	.199	.147	.034	.360**	.217**		
Self-concept	.370	.247	.046	.048	.226**	.236**		

\*p < .05      Blacks OVERALL  $F(7, 52) = 4.371^{**}$ ,  $R^2 = .370$       Whites OVERALL  $F(7, 169) = 9.805^{**}$ ,  $R^2 = .288$   
 \*\*p < .01      Males OVERALL  $F(7, 111) = 9.345^{**}$ ,  $R^2 = .370$       Females OVERALL  $F(7, 110) = 5.180^{**}$ ,  $R^2 = .247$   
 Total  $R^2 = .308$

Table 6  
Means, Standard Deviations for the Path Variables  
by Race and Sex for Preadolescent Youth (1969)

	Males (N=230) $\bar{X}$ (SD)	Females (N=273) $\bar{X}$ (SD)	Blacks (N=181) $\bar{X}$ (SD)	Whites (N=322) $\bar{X}$ (SD)	Total (N=503) $\bar{X}$ (SD)
OCC	66.89 (11.00)	70.58 (7.64)	70.50 (9.40)	67.98 (9.45)	68.89 (9.50)
FBK	134.81 (22.95)	132.46 (23.28)	131.88 (23.44)	134.46 (22.95)	133.53 (23.14)
IQ	90.77 (13.48)	92.79 (13.74)	83.15 (12.11)	96.77 (11.92)	91.87 (13.65)
SEL	65.30 (8.76)	67.89 (8.49)	67.72 (9.15)	66.13 (8.39)	66.70 (8.70)
AC	29.66 (5.19)	31.84 (3.87)	31.67 (4.62)	30.38 (4.60)	30.85 (4.65)
FTK	5.23 (1.84)	5.52 (1.82)	5.01 (1.65)	5.61 (1.90)	5.39 (1.83)
ED	5.79 (1.39)	5.84 (1.35)	6.03 (1.32)	5.70 (1.37)	5.82 (1.36)

OCC--Occupational Aspirations  
 FBK--Family Background  
 IQ---Mental Ability  
 SEL--Self-concept  
 AC---Academic Motivation  
 FTK--Significant Others' Influence  
 ED---Educational Goals

males, females, blacks, whites, and the combined total sample in 1969. The overall mean occupational aspiration score was 68.89, with blacks and females having a slightly higher mean score of 70.50 and 70.58, respectively.

Table 7 shows the zero order relationships between the variables used in the path analyses. Occupational aspirations correlated significantly with educational goals ( $r = .267$ ,  $p < .01$ ), sex ( $r = -.193$ ,  $p < .01$ ), and race ( $r = -.127$ ,  $p < .01$ ). The highest correlations were between self-concept and academic motivation ( $r = .486$ ,  $p < .01$ ), and family background and mental ability ( $r = .359$ ,  $p < .01$ ).

#### Examination of the Path Model for Preadolescent Youth (1969)

An examination of the summary table for the total sample reveals that the primary independent variables accounted for approximately 13% of the variability in occupational aspirations ( $F(7, 495) = 10.718$ ,  $p < .01$ ) (refer back to Table 1). The general decomposition table presented in Table 3 breaks down the contribution of each variable in terms of direct and indirect effects. As can be seen for the preadolescents in 1969, the primary variable which influenced occupational aspirations was educational goals. Sex and race evidenced a greater direct effect than an indirect effect. The remaining variables seemed to be of minimal importance. The path diagram depicted in Figure 2 shows the causal ordering of the variables.

Table 7  
 Total Zero Order Correlation Matrix for the  
 Sample of Preadolescent Youth (1969)

	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1 OCC	.133	.079	.077	.203	.070	.267**	-.193**	-.127**
2 FBK		.359**	.055	-.011	.099	.266**	.050	.053
3 IQ			.026	-.028	.289**	.169**	-.073	.479
4 SEL				.486**	.088	.195	-.147	-.087
5 AC					.152**	.249**	-.234**	-.132*
6 FTK						.079	-.078	.157
7 ED							-.019	-.117**
8 SEX								-.060
9 RACE								

\* $p < .05$   
 \*\* $p < .01$

OCC--Occupational Aspirations  
 FBK--Family Background  
 IQ---Mental Ability  
 SEL--Self-concept  
 AC---Academic Motivation  
 FTK--Significant Others' Influence  
 ED---Educational Goals



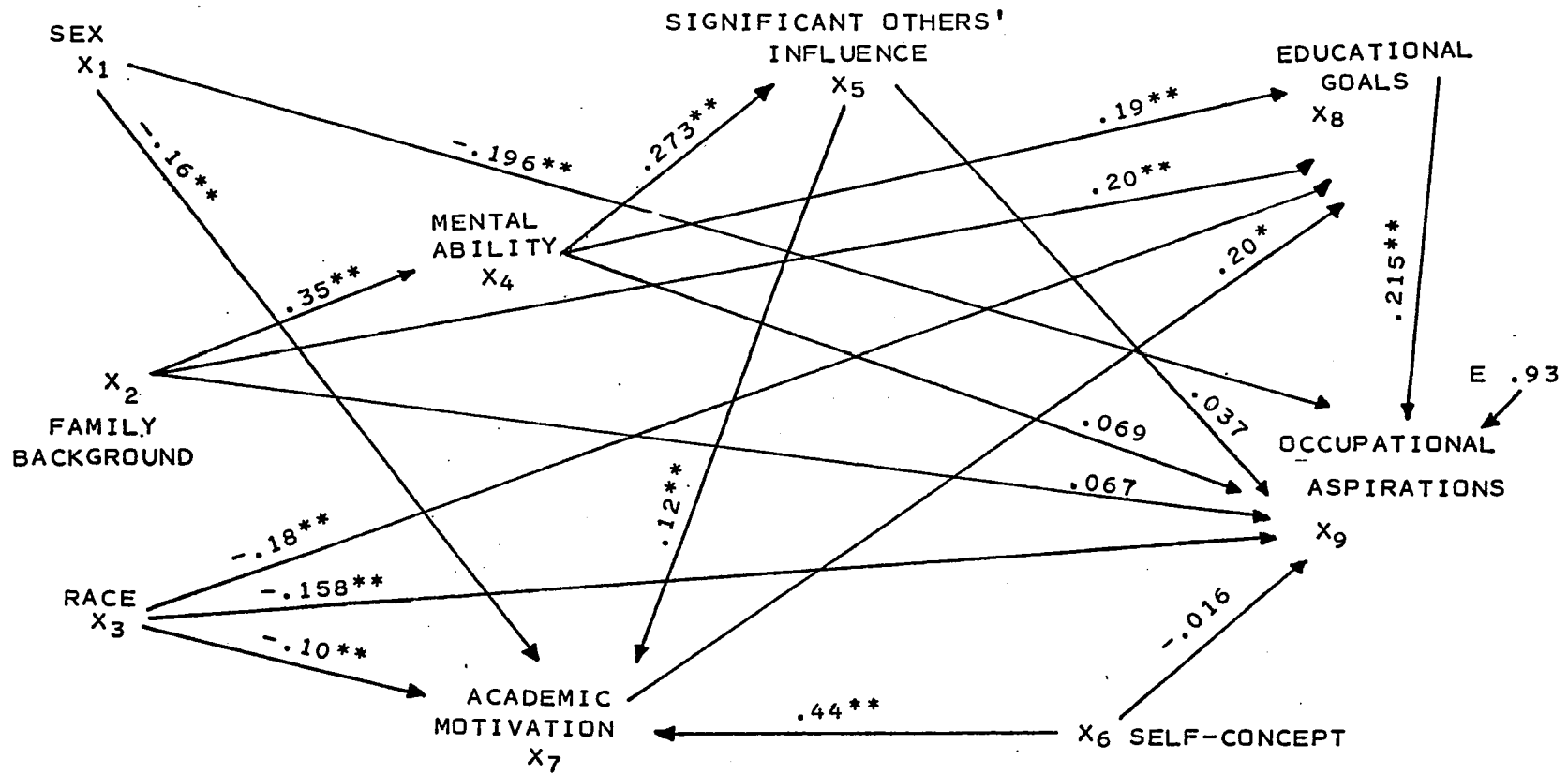


Figure 2. Path diagram for occupational aspirations for the sample of adolescent youth.

\*  $p < .01$   
 \*\*  $p < .05$   
 $R^2 = .13$

In terms of the causal model that was examined for pre-adolescent youth using the selected independent variables, only a small portion of the variability in occupational aspirations was explained. The model was significant, although the causal linkages were weak with differences noted between race and sex.

Preadolescent males. An examination of the summary table for males (see Table 8) shows that the independent variables accounted for 10.3% of the variability in occupational aspirations. As with the total sample, educational goals exerted the greatest direct influence on occupational aspirations. However, unlike the total sample, significant others' influence affected self-concept, which in turn influenced academic motivation. Figure 3 depicts the causal ordering of the variables for the sample of preadolescent males. The general decomposition table presents the direct and indirect effects for the variables in the model (refer back to Table 2). Although only 10.3% of the variability was explained, the model was significant ( $F = 5,224 = 5.18$ ,  $p < .01$ ).

For the males in the sample, educational goals and family background had the greatest direct effects on occupational aspirations. It was predicted that if differences existed between the subgroups in the preadolescent years, it would be found in race rather than gender differences which was not the case.

Table 8

Summary Table for the Path Variable for Preadolescent  
Black Youth and White Youth and Males and Females

Occupational Aspirations	R <sup>2</sup>		R <sup>2</sup> Change		Beta	
	Blacks	Whites	Blacks	Whites	Blacks	Whites
Family Background	.016	.022	.016	.022	.039	.055
Mental Ability	.027	.037	.010	.015	.058	.085
Significant Others' Influence	.048	.037	.021	.000	.133	.002
Educational Goals	.089	.081	.040	.043	.201**	.224**
Self-concept	.091	.081	.002	.000	.050	-.014

	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
Family Background	.033	.011	.033	.011	.078	.083
Mental Ability	.041	.016	.007	.004	.073	-.119
Significant Others' Influence	.041	.023	.000	.006	.007	.083
Educational Goals	.100	.077	.059	.054	.266**	.227**
Self-concept	.103	.081	.003	.003	-.059	.064

\*p &lt; .05

\*\*p &lt; .01

Blacks OVERALL  $F(5, 175) = 3.52^{**}$ ,  $R^2 = .091$   
Whites OVERALL  $F(5, 316) = 5.58^{**}$ ,  $R^2 = .081$   
Males OVERALL  $F(5, 224) = 5.18^{**}$ ,  $R^2 = .103$   
Females OVERALL  $F(5, 267) = 4.73^{**}$ ,  $R^2 = .081$

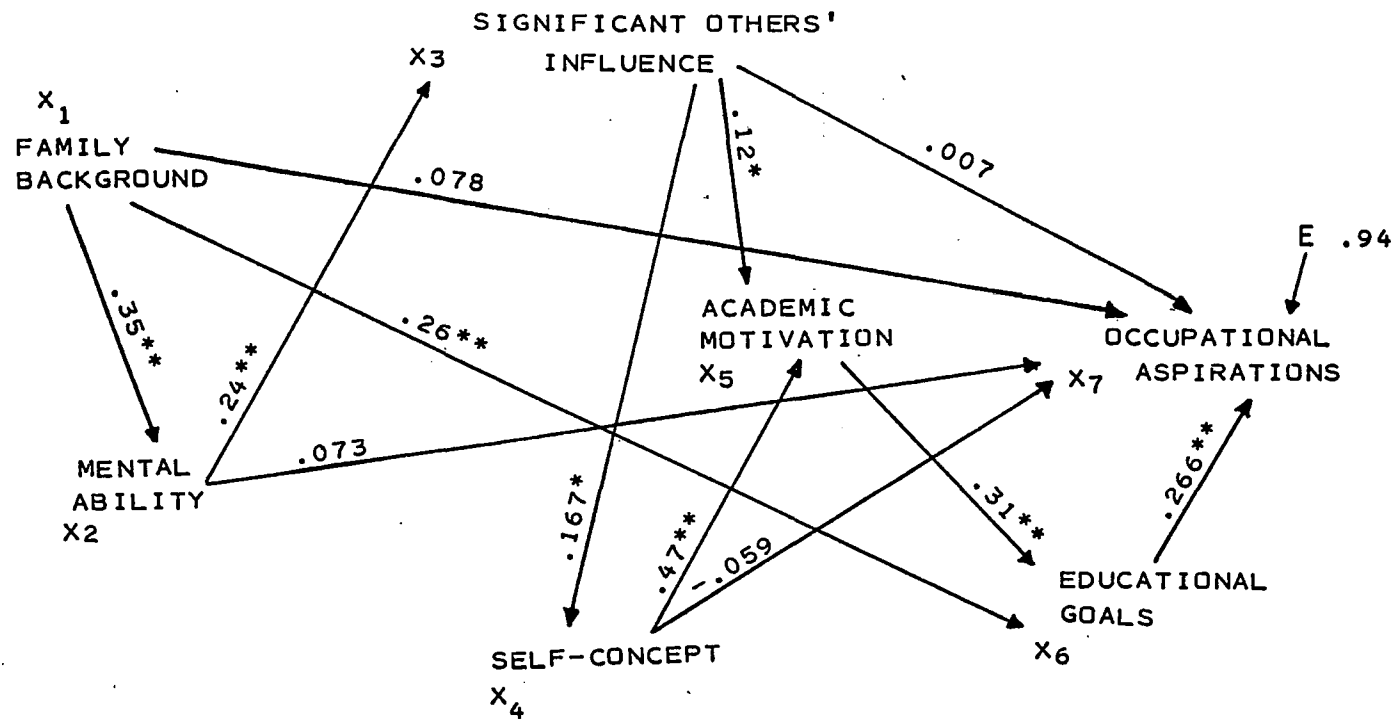


Figure 3. Path diagram for occupational aspirations for the sample of preadolescent males.

\*  $p < .05$   
 \*\*  $p < .01$   
 $R^2 = .10$

Preadolescent females. Females, similarly to their male counterparts, were affected primarily by the same sets of variables. Table 2 shows the summary table of the path variables for females. The model explained approximately 8% of the variability in occupational aspirations ( $F(5, 257) = 4.73$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Educational goals, again, had the greatest direct effect on occupational aspirations. Table 2 presents the general decomposition of the direct and indirect effects for the path variables. A comparison with the males evidenced a similar pattern of direct and indirect effects on occupational aspirations. Figure 4 shows the causal ordering of variables for the sample of preadolescent females.

Preadolescent black youths. As anticipated, the primary variables changed in importance when the sample was broken down by race. For the sample of black youths in 1969, as shown in Table 8, the primary independent variables explained approximately 9% of the variability in occupational aspirations ( $F(5, 175) = 3.52$ ,  $p < .01$ ). When the general decomposition table was examined, significant others' influence and educational goals exerted greatest effect on occupational aspirations (refer back to Table 2). Family background was less of a primary factor than it was when the total sample was examined and when the sample was broken down into males and females.

Figure 5 depicts the causal ordering of the primary variables for the sample of black youth. The importance of significant others was shown by the direct effect on academic

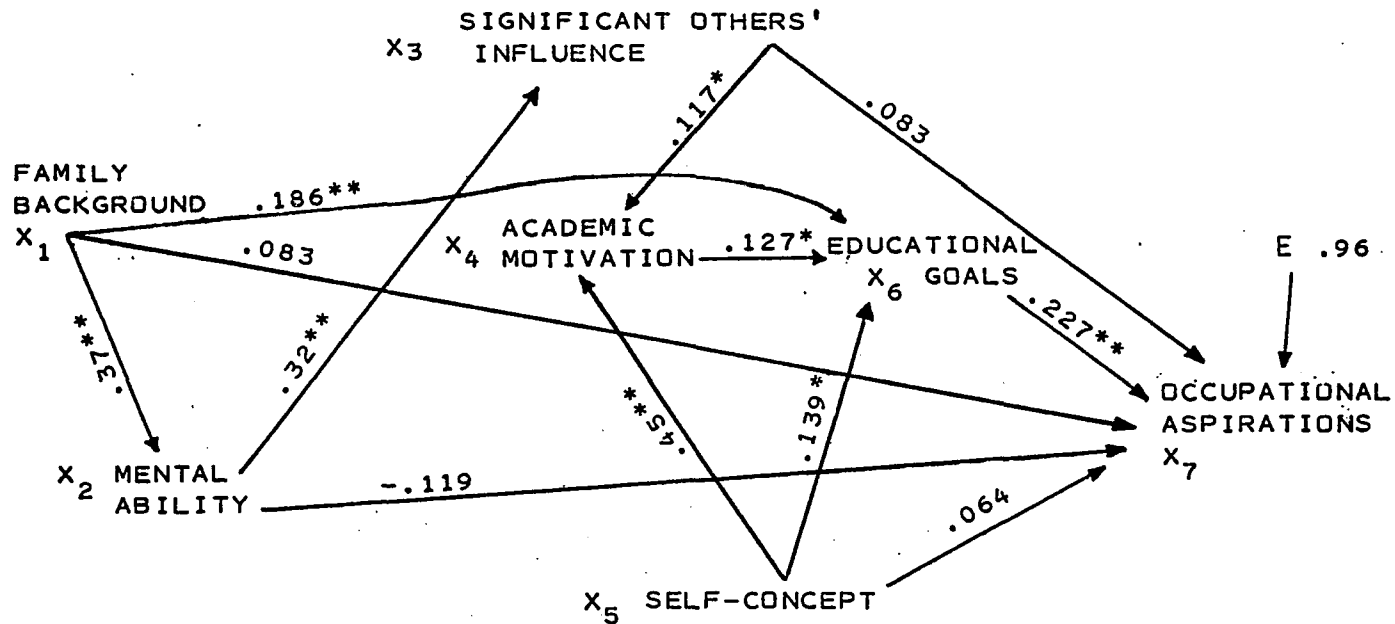


Figure 4. Path diagram for occupational aspirations for the sample of preadolescent females.

\*  $p < .05$   
 \*\*  $p < .01$   
 $R^2 = .08$

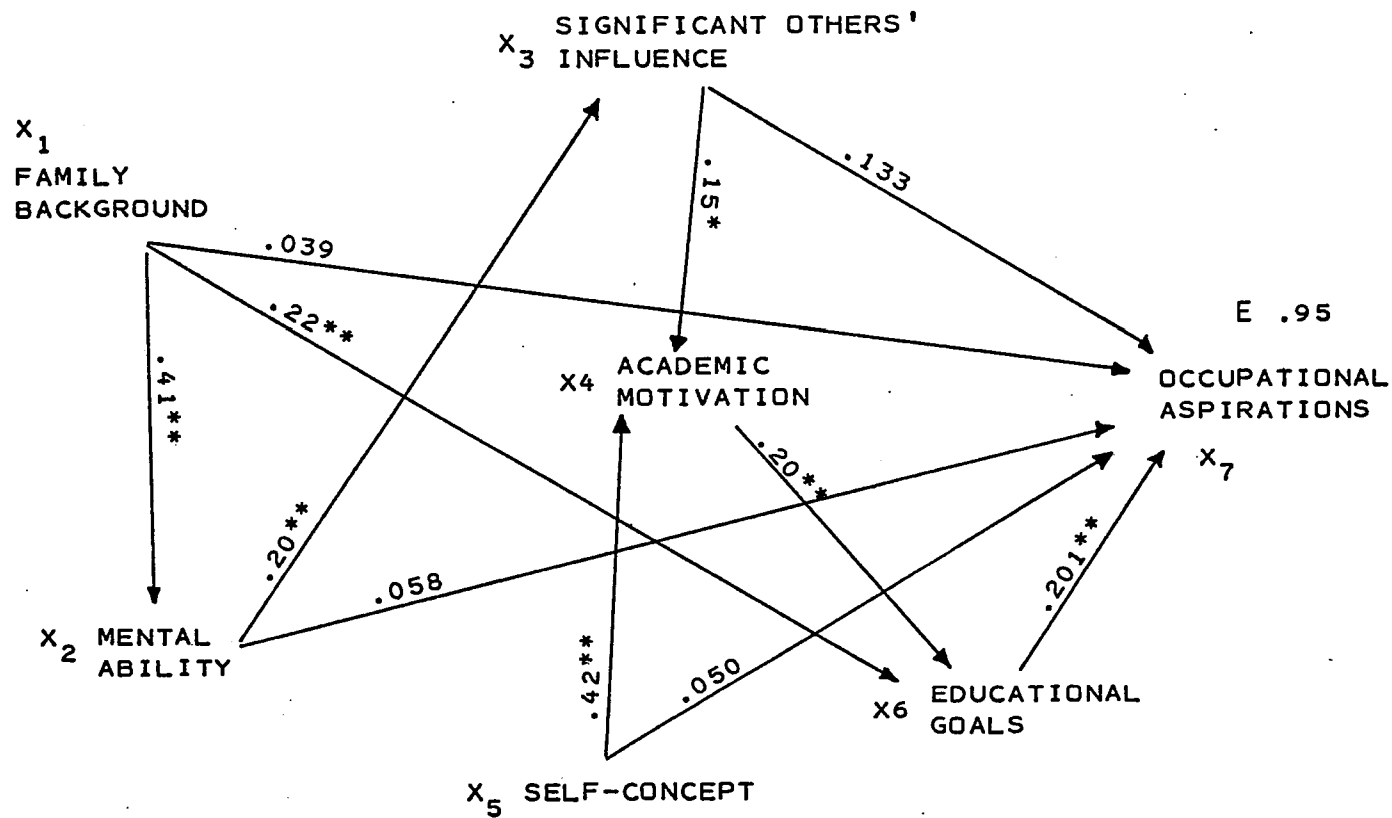


Figure 5. Path diagram for occupational aspirations for the sample of preadolescent black youth.

\*  $p < .05$   
 \*\*  $p < .01$   
 $R^2 = .09$

motivation and the total effect on occupational aspirations.

Preadolescent white youths. In contrast to the sample of black youths, white youths tended to be more influenced by family background, mental ability, and educational goals (see Table 2). Although the amount of variability accounted for was similar to that of the black sample (approximately 8.1%, see Table 8), the importance of the primary variables changed. For white youths, mental ability became a much more predominant factor than for the sample of black youths. As depicted in Figure 6, the causal linkages between the variables and their beta weights are shown. Unlike the black youth significant others' influence was not a salient factor in occupational aspirations.

In summary, the variable that was of primary importance in influencing occupational aspirations for the sample of preadolescent youth was educational goals. When the sample was broken down into subgroups of males, females, black youth, and white youth primary differences were found by race. Specifically, in their occupational aspirations, the black youths were more influenced by familial significant others than were the white youths. Conversely, white youths were more influenced by family background and mental ability in their occupational aspirations than were black youths.

#### Examination of the Path Model for Adolescents (1975)

The means and standard deviations for the path variables for adolescents are shown in Table 9. The mean occupational aspirations for adolescents in 1975 is 66.85 which was slightly



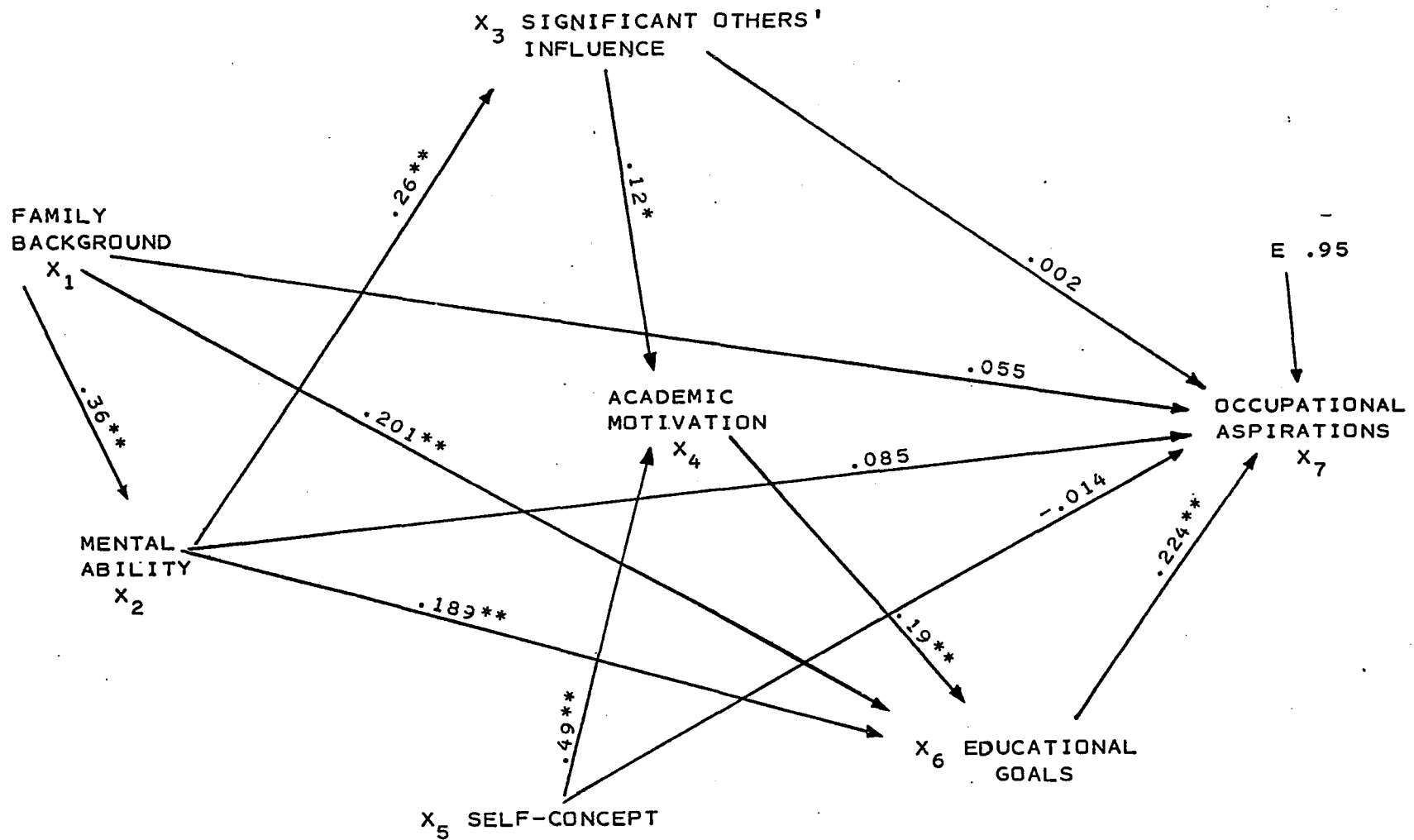


Figure 6. Path diagram for occupational aspirations for the sample of preadolescent white youth.

\*  $p < .05$   
 \*\*  $p < .01$

$R^2 = .081$

Table 9  
Means, Standard Deviations for Path Variables  
by Race and Sex for Adolescents (1975)

	Males (N=210) $\bar{X}$ (SD)	Females (N=255) $\bar{X}$ (SD)	Blacks (N=154) $\bar{X}$ (SD)	Whites (N=311) $\bar{X}$ (SD)	Total (N=465) $\bar{X}$ (SD)
OCC2	64.21 (9.31)	69.03 (7.39)	67.89 (8.46)	66.34 (8.69)	66.85 (8.64)
FBK	135.30 (22.98)	133.74 (22.62)	134.26 (23.03)	134.54 (22.68)	134.45 (22.77)
IQ	90.56 (13.71)	94.09 (13.21)	84.00 (12.23)	96.70 (12.12)	92.50 (13.54)
AC2	22.93 (3.94)	25.46 (2.94)	24.46 (2.99)	24.25 (3.93)	24.32 (3.65)
ED2	5.20 (1.57)	5.00 (1.56)	5.70 (1.42)	4.79 (1.55)	5.09 (1.57)
FTK2	7.82 (2.06)	7.51 (2.05)	7.14 (2.03)	7.91 (2.03)	7.65 (2.06)

OCC2--Occupational Aspirations  
 FBK---Family Background  
 IQ----Mental Ability  
 AC2---Academic Motivation  
 ED2---Educational Goals  
 FTK2--Significant Others' Influence

lower than that found for the subjects when they were pre-adolescents in 1969. Blacks and females continued to have higher mean aspirations than whites and males; however, for all groups the occupational aspirations were lower among adolescents than they had been in 1969.

In addition, the mean I.Q. had risen along with the index of family background. Through the sample attrition those subjects remaining in the 1975 study differed from the total population in 1969.

An examination of the correlation matrix in 1975 revealed a difference in the correlation pattern from that found in 1969 (see Table 10). Significant correlations were found between occupational aspirations and mental ability ( $\underline{r} = .254$ ,  $\underline{p} < .01$ ), educational goals and occupational aspirations ( $\underline{r} = .476$ ,  $\underline{p} < .01$ ), and sex and occupational aspirations ( $\underline{r} = -.277$ ,  $\underline{p} < .01$ ). Family background was significantly correlated with mental ability, educational goals, and significantly correlated with mental ability, educational goals, and significant others' influence. Mental ability was correlated with educational goals and significant others' influence.

The path variables excluding self-concept presented in the summary table (refer to Table 1) for adolescent youth, accounted for approximately 35% of the variability in occupational aspirations ( $\underline{F} (6,458) = 41.34$ ,  $\underline{p} < .01$ ). For pre-adolescent youth (1969), using similar measures, approximately 13% of the variability was explained.

Table 10  
Total Zero Order Correlation Matrix for  
the Sample of Adolescent Youth (1975)

	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1 OCC2	.216	.254**	.349	.476**	.129	-.277**	-.084
2 FBK		.329**	.070	.294**	.220**	.034	.005
3 IQ			.118	.142**	.241**	-.129	.441
4 AC2				.310**	.090*	-.344**	-.026*
5 ED2					.157*	.065**	-.270**
6 FTK2						.073*	.174*
7 SEX							-.095
8 RACE							

\* $\underline{p} < .05$   
\*\* $\underline{p} < .01$

OCC2--Occupational Aspirations  
 FBK---Family Background  
 IQ----Mental Ability  
 AC2---Academic Motivation  
 ED2---Educational Goals  
 FTK2--Significant Others' Influence

Referring back to Table 3, the general decomposition of the path variables is shown. Unlike the case during the preadolescent period, race had less of a direct effect on occupational aspirations which suggests a convergence between the races during the adolescent years. Mental ability, however, had a greater effect on occupational aspirations than it did in 1969 or the preadolescent years. As can be seen from Figure 7, race affected significant others' influence, academic motivation, and educational goals. Similarly in 1969, educational goals had the greatest direct influence on occupational aspirations.

Sample of adolescent males. In examining the summary table for adolescent males, the primary independent variables accounted for approximately 32% of the variability in occupational aspirations (refer back to Table 4). This is in contrast to the preadolescent period when only 10% of the variability was explained. In contrast to the situation in 1969, mental ability explained approximately 13% of the variability in occupational aspirations among adolescent males. A direct examination of the decomposition table (see Table 11) shows mental ability and educational goals had the greatest direct effect on occupational aspirations. Family background had the largest indirect effect on occupational aspirations. Figure 8 depicts the causal ordering of the primary independent variables for the sample of adolescent males in 1975.

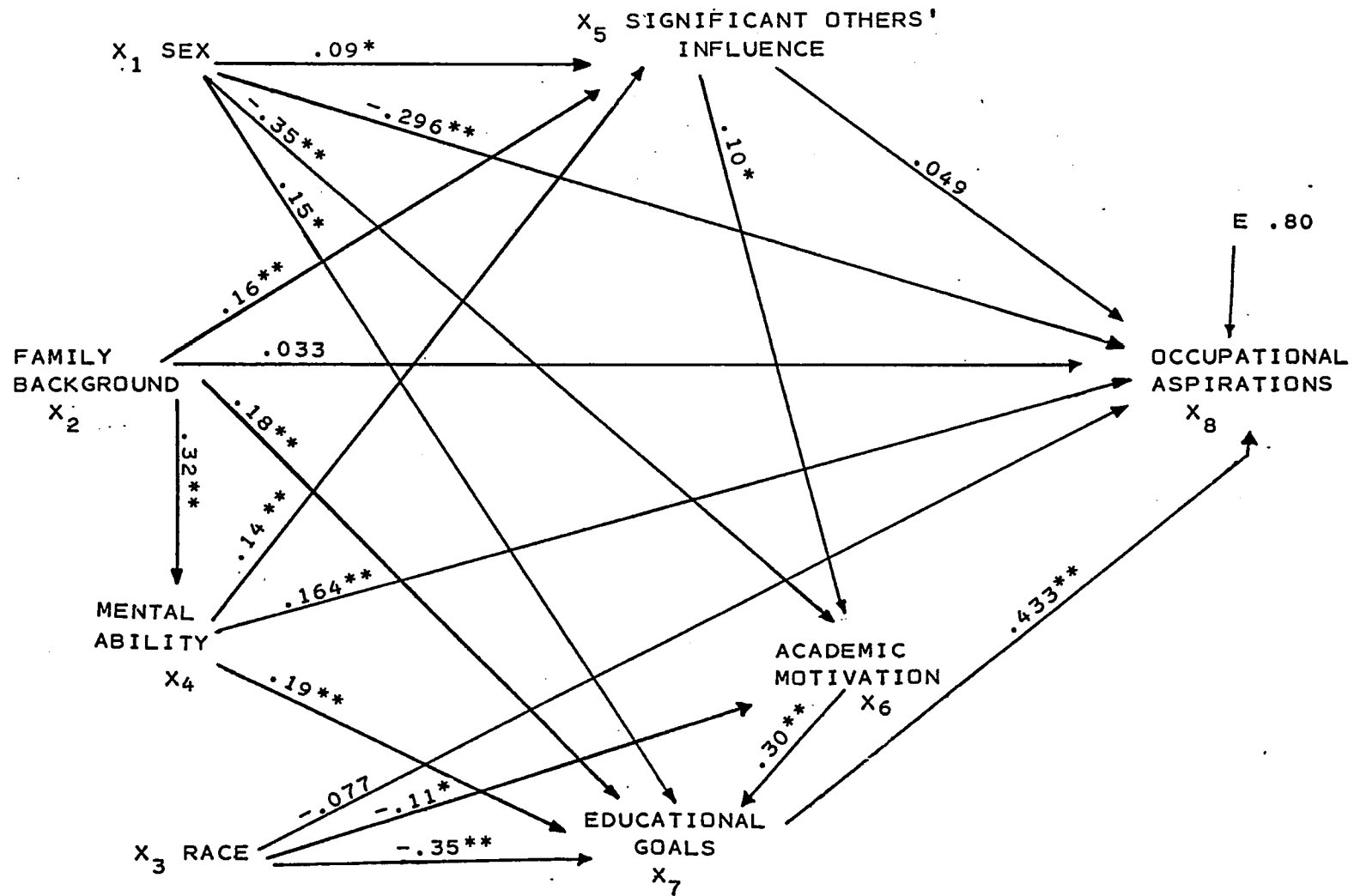


Figure 7. Path diagram for occupational aspirations for the sample of adolescent youth in 1975.

\*  $p < .05$

\*\*  $p < .01$

$R^2 = .351$

Table 11

General Decomposition Table for Occupational Aspirations of Adolescent  
Black Youth and White Youth and Males and Females

Bivariate Relationship	r		Direct Effect		Indirect Effect		Total Effect	
	Blacks	Whites	Blacks	Whites	Blacks	Whites	Blacks	Whites
FBK, OCC2	.186	.232	.028	.008	.161	.223	.189	.231
IQ, OCC2	.311	.333	.239**	.165**	.042	.121	.281	.286
FTK2, OCC2	.069	.185	.010	.014	.007	.187	.017	.201
ED2, OCC2	.378	.514	.331**	.477**	None	None	.331	.447
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
FBK, OCC2	.276	.194	.063	.018	.111	.150	.174	.168
IQ, OCC2	.314	.139	.198**	.056	.048	.026	.246	.082
FTK2, OCC2	.153	.162	.059	.025	.009	.089	.069	.114
ED2, OCC2	.511	.527	.456**	.508**	None	None	.456	.508

\*p < .05      Blacks OVERALL  $F(4, 149) = 9.67^{**}$ ,  $R^2 = .206$   
 \*\*p < .01      Whites OVERALL  $F(4, 306) = 31.269^{**}$ ,  $R^2 = .290$   
                   Males OVERALL  $F(4, 205) = 24.44^{**}$ ,  $R^2 = .332$   
                   Females OVERALL  $F(4, 250) = 24.723^{**}$ ,  $R^2 = .283$

OCC2--Occupational Aspirations                      ED2--Educational Goals  
 IQ----Mental Ability                                      FBK--Family Background  
 FTK2--Significant Others' Influence

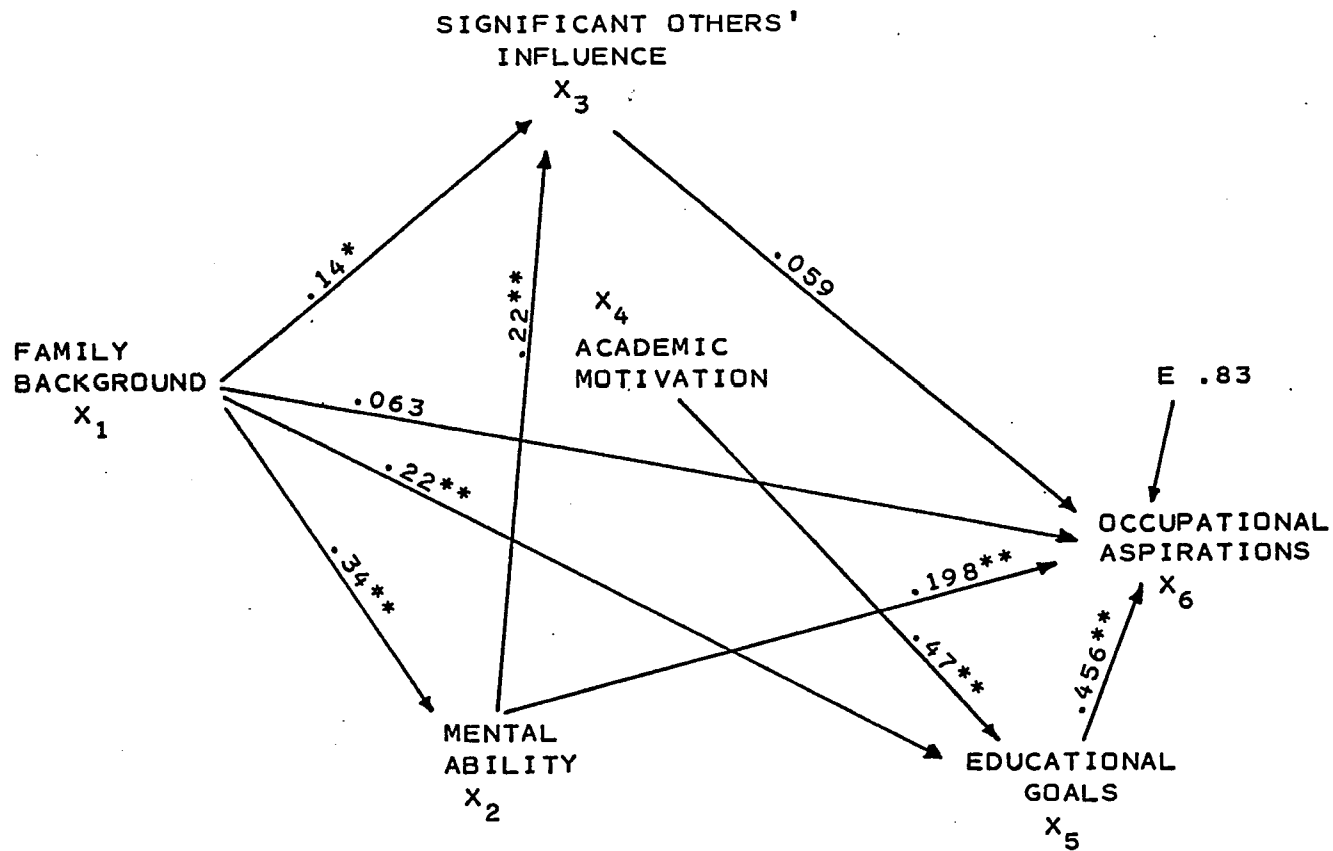


Figure 8. Path diagram for occupational aspirations for the sample of adolescent male youth.

\*  $p < .05$   
 \*\*  $p < .01$

$R^2 = .322$



Sample of adolescent females. The primary independent variables for the sample of adolescent females explained approximately 28.3% of the variability in occupational aspirations (refer back to Table 4). However, unlike the sample of adolescent males, mental ability was of minor importance. Table 11 shows the decomposition of the path variables for the sample of adolescent females. Educational goals exerted the greatest influence on occupational aspirations. Figure 9 depicts the path diagram for females.

Although the amount of explained variability was similar between males and females, differences in the importance of mental ability in occupational aspirations became a salient factor for male youth.

Adolescent black youth. When the sample was broken down by race, there were differences in explained variability in occupational aspirations. For the sample of black youth (refer back to Table 4), the primary independent variables explained approximately 20.6% of the variance in occupational aspirations ( $F(4, 149) = 9.67$   $p < .01$ ). Table 11 shows the general decomposition of the path variables. As can be seen, educational goals and mental ability exerted the greatest direct effect on occupational aspirations. Family background evidenced the largest indirect effect on occupational aspirations. Significant others' influence was only of minor importance, which was in sharp contrast to the sample of black youth in 1969. Figure 10 depicted the causal ordering of the path variables for the black youth in 1975.

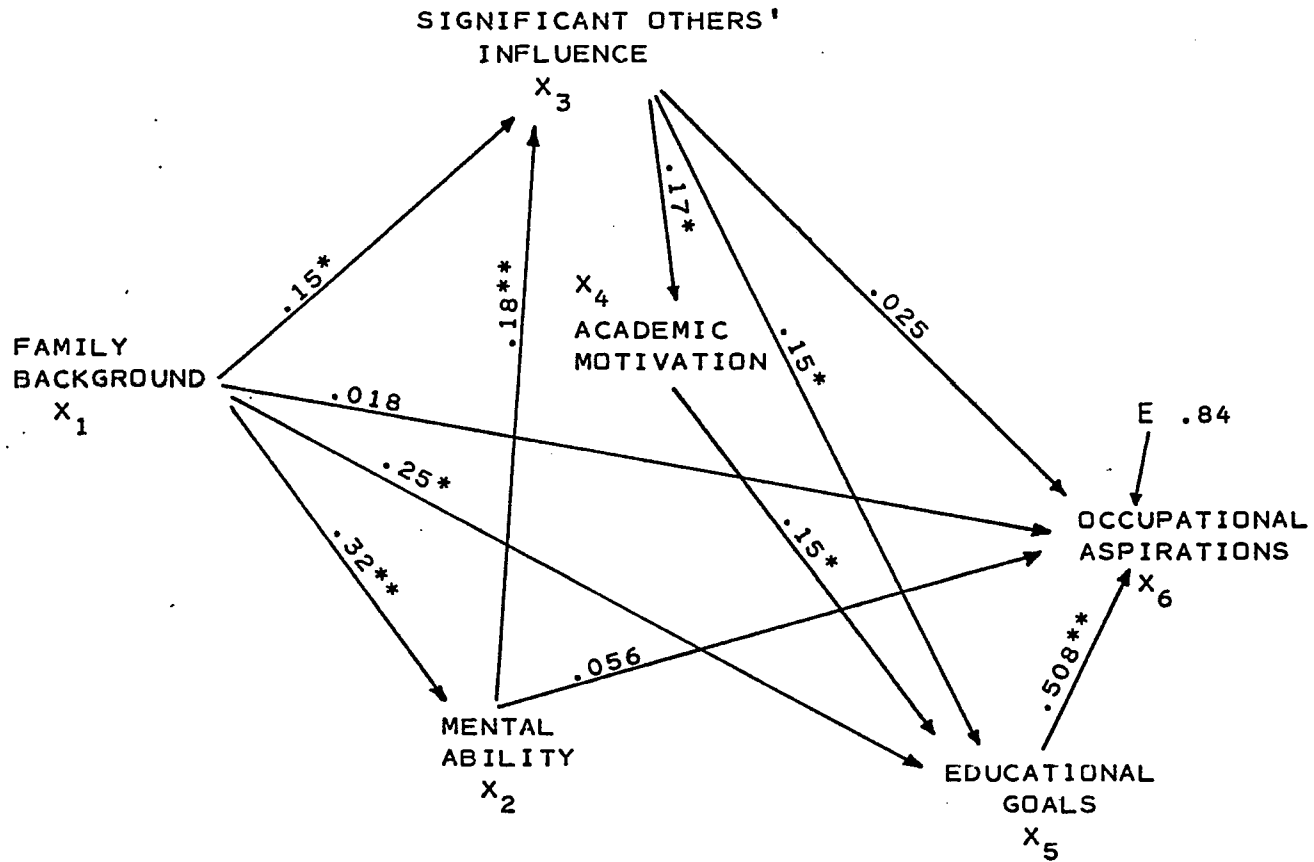


Figure 9. Path diagram for occupational aspirations for the sample of adolescent female youth.

\*  $p < .05$   
 \*\*  $p < .01$

$R^2 = .283$

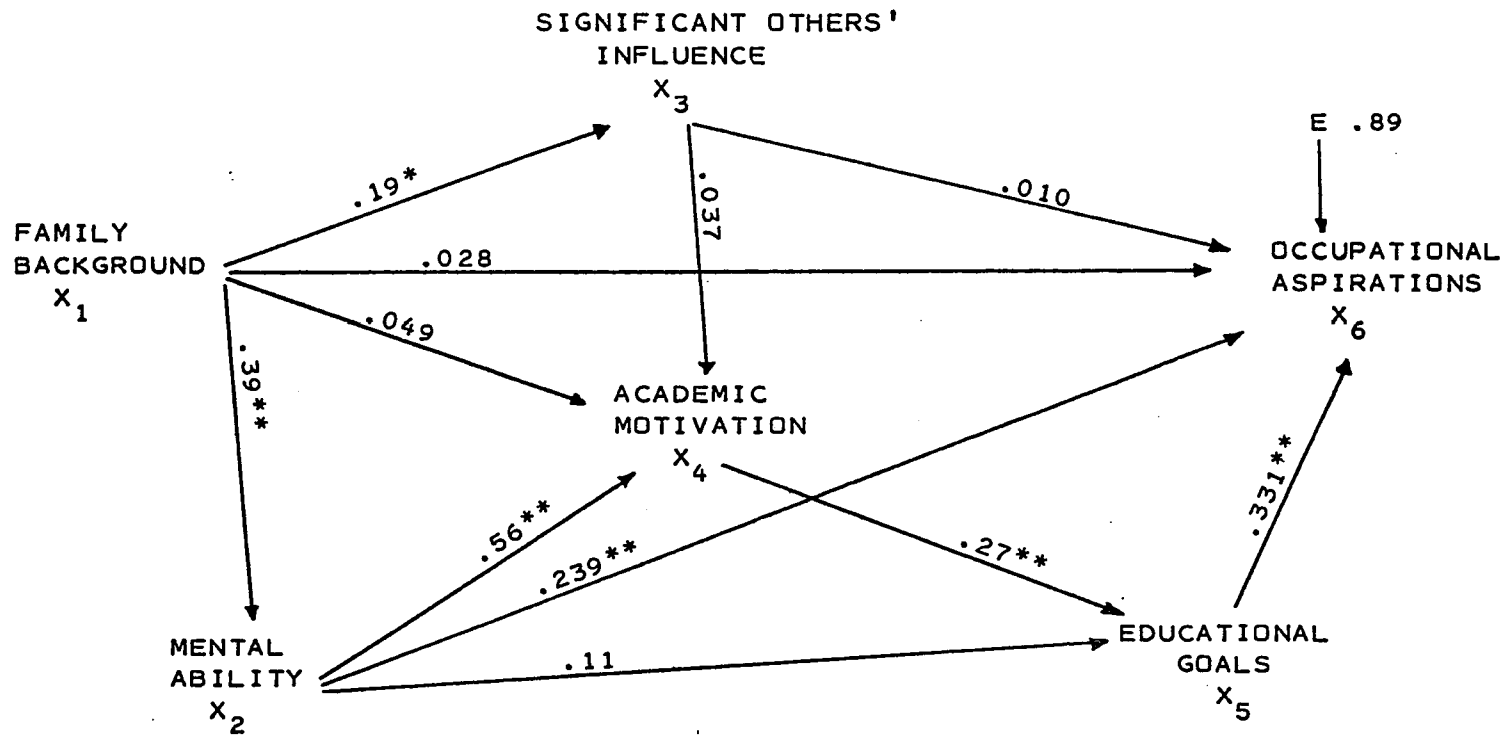


Figure 10. Path diagram for occupational aspirations for the sample of adolescent black youth.

\*  $p < .05$   
 \*\*  $p < .01$

$\bar{R}^2 = .206$

Adolescent white youth. In contrast to the sample of black youth in 1975, the primary independent variables explained approximately 29% of the variability in occupational aspirations for white youth ( $F(4, 306) = 31.269, p < .01$ ) (refer back to Table 4). Table 11 shows the general decomposition of the path variables. For the sample of white youth, mental ability and educational goals exerted the greatest direct influence on occupational aspirations. Unlike the situation in the sample of adolescent black youth, significant others' influence was important, in the indirect effect it had on occupational aspirations. In terms of total effects, the major variables exerted greater influence on occupational aspirations than for the sample of black youth. Figure 11 presents the causal diagram for the path variables leading to occupational aspirations.

#### Examination of the Path Model for Post-High-School Youth

The means and standard deviations shown in Table 12 for the selected path variables showed a slight increase in aspirational level compared to the 1975 mean levels for adolescents, particularly for the black sample. It is also noteworthy that in 1979, educational goals and actual educational attainment were assessed. Educational goals as an indication of occupational aspirations were not as prominent as a factor as actual educational attainment.

An examination of the correlation matrix (see Table 13) showed significant correlations between occupational

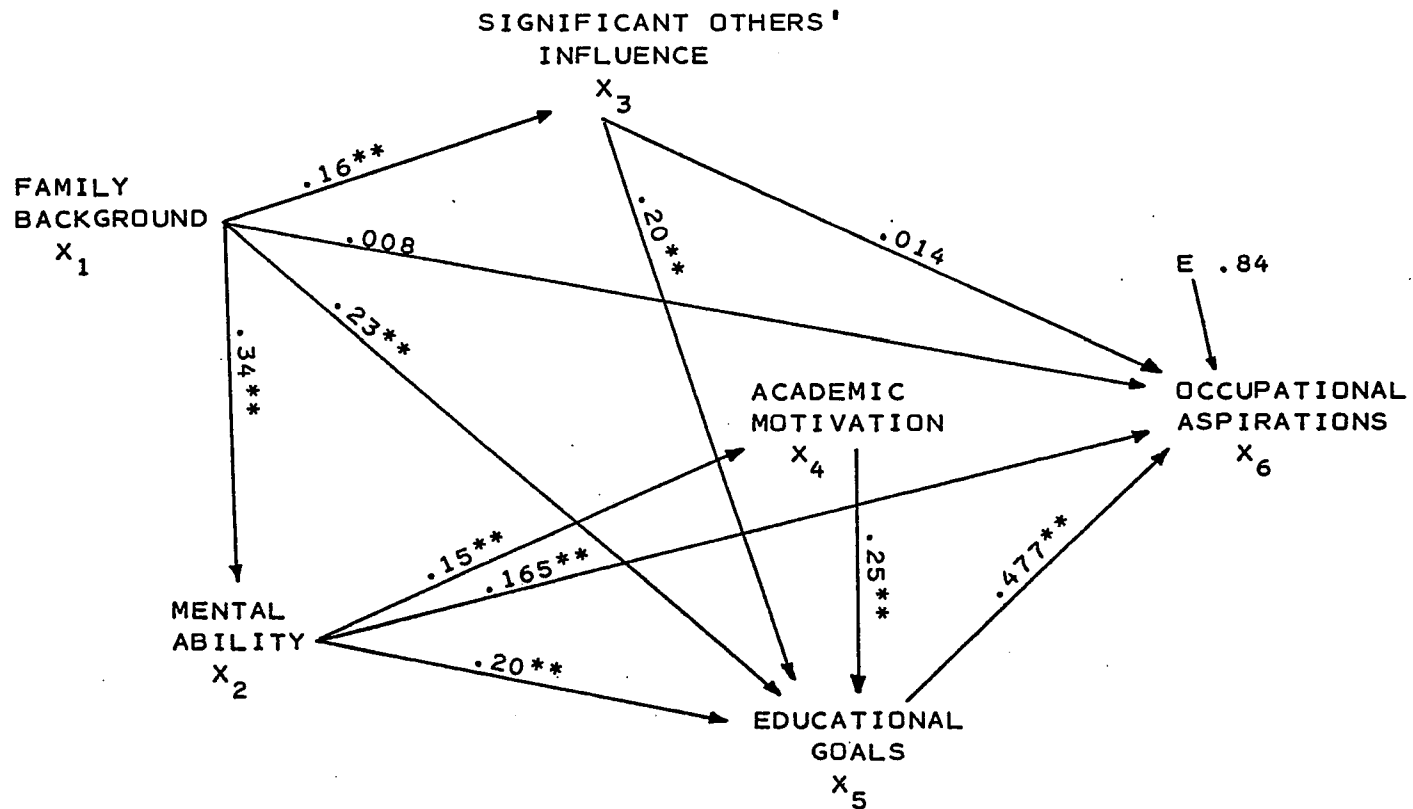


Figure 11. Path diagram for occupational aspirations for the sample of adolescent white youth.

\*  $p < .05$   
 \*\*  $p < .01$

$R^2 = .290$

Table 12  
Means, Standard Deviations for the Path Variables  
by Race and Sex for Post-High-School Youth (1979)

	Males (N=119) $\bar{X}$ (SD)	Females (N=118) $\bar{X}$ (SD)	Blacks (N=60) $\bar{X}$ (SD)	Whites (N=177) $\bar{X}$ (SD)	Total (N=237) $\bar{X}$ (SD)
OCC3	65.85 (10.73)	68.47 (9.06)	69.66 (10.20)	66.31 (9.81)	67.16 (10.00)
FBK	138.47 (21.78)	139.50 (23.73)	140.70 (21.95)	138.40 (23.02)	138.98 (22.73)
IQ	94.47 (13.07)	99.00 (11.62)	89.06 (12.68)	99.32 (11.42)	96.73 (12.55)
SEL2	21.88 (2.71)	21.40 (2.42)	22.11 (2.61)	21.48 (2.55)	21.64 (2.57)
EDA	5.52 (1.52)	5.75 (1.54)	5.85 (1.92)	5.56 (1.38)	5.63 (1.53)
FTK3	4.61 (2.25)	5.29 (2.28)	4.95 (2.20)	5.94 (2.32)	4.95 (2.28)
ED3	5.19 (2.06)	5.00 (2.17)	4.78 (2.07)	5.20 (2.13)	5.09 (2.12)

OCC3--Occupational Aspirations  
 FBK---Family Background  
 IQ----Mental Ability  
 SEL2--Self-concept  
 EDA---Educational Attainment  
 FTK3--Significant Others' Influence  
 ED3---Educational Goals

Table 13  
 Total Zero Order Correlation Matrix for the Sample  
 of Post-High-School Youth (1979)

	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1 OCC3	.294	.202*	.298**	.420**	.083	.119	-.131*	-.146*
2 FBK		.342**	.121	.260**	.113	.009	-.022	-.044
3 IQ			.105	.148	.082	-.003	-.180**	.356**
4 SEL2				.129	.193**	-.005	.092	-.106
5 EDA					.110	.172	-.075	-.080
6 FTK3						-.015	-.149*	.001
7 ED3							.046	.086
8 SEX								-.055
9 RACE								

\* $p < .05$   
 \*\* $p < .01$

OCC3--Occupational Aspirations  
 FBK---Family Background  
 IQ----Mental Ability  
 SEL2--Self-concept  
 EDA---Educational Attainment  
 FTK3--Significant Others' Influence  
 ED3---Educational Goals

aspirations and mental ability ( $\underline{r} = .303, \underline{p} < .05$ ), self-concept ( $\underline{r} = .298, \underline{p} < .01$ ), and educational attainment in 1979 ( $\underline{r} = .420, \underline{p} < .01$ ). Family background was correlated with mental ability ( $\underline{r} = .342, \underline{p} < .01$ ) and educational attainment ( $\underline{r} = .260, \underline{p} < .01$ ).

The summary table for occupational aspirations for post-high-school youth (1979) is presented in Table 5. Approximately 30.8% of the variability was accounted for in occupational aspirations of the total sample in 1979 ( $\underline{F} (8, 228) = 12.685, \underline{p} < .01$ ). The primary independent variables accounted for approximately as much variability as they did in the adolescent years (adolescent years,  $\underline{R}^2 = .351$ ; post-high school years,  $\underline{R}^2 = .308$ ). Educational attainment, however, was a more robust variable than educational goals accounting for approximately 9.1% of the variability in occupational aspirations.

Figure 12 depicts the path diagram causal ordering of the variables in 1979. An examination of the decomposition table (refer back to Table 3), shows the importance of family background, mental ability, educational attainment, and self-concept. Most of the effects indicated were more direct than indirect on occupational aspirations in 1979.

Post-high-school males. Referring back to Table 5, the summary of the path variables for 1979, approximately 37.0% of the variability was accounted for in occupational aspirations for the sample of male youth ( $\underline{F} (7, 111) = 9.345, \underline{p} < .01$ ). Educational attainment accounted for approximately



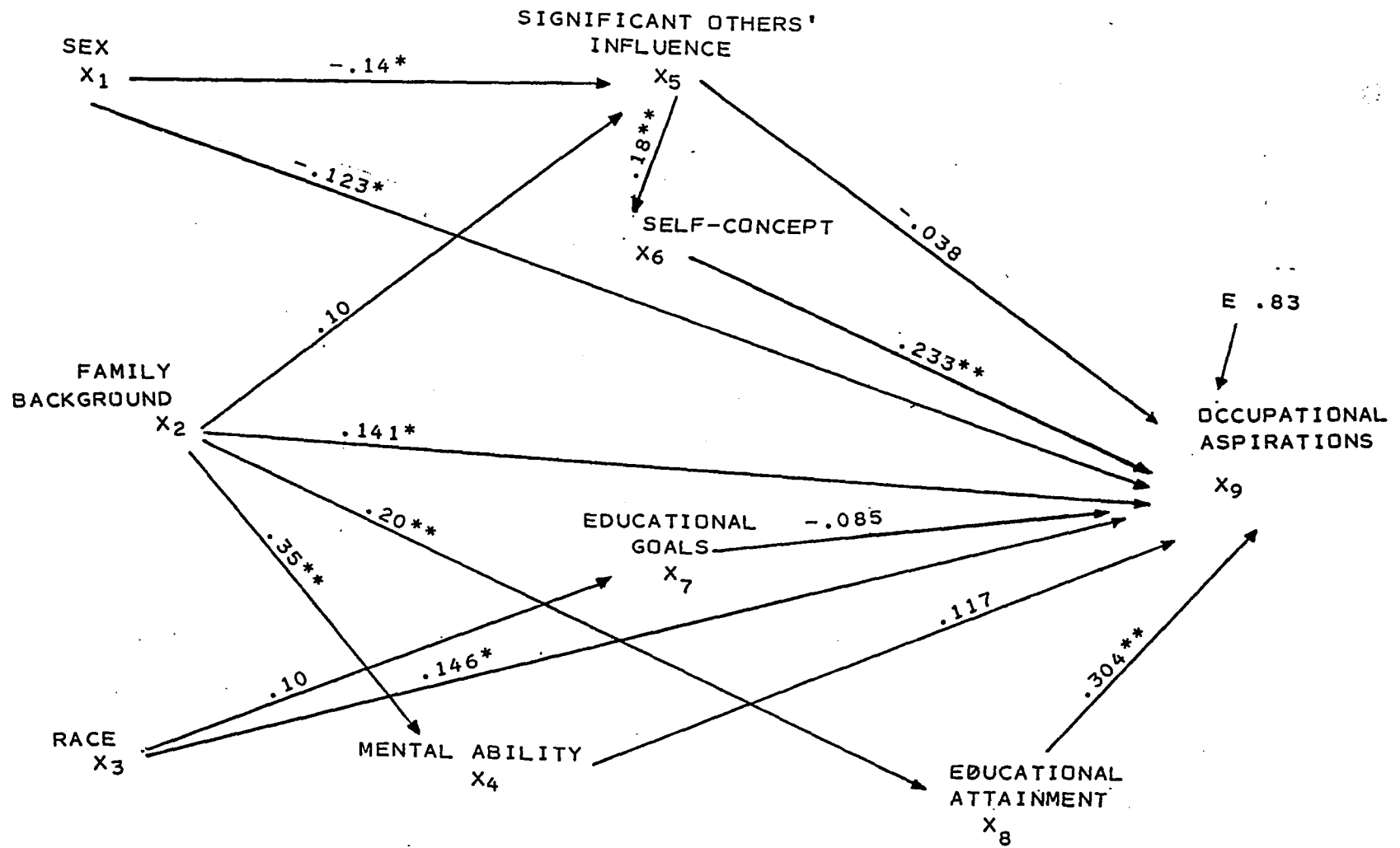


Figure 12. Path diagram for occupational aspirations for the sample of post-high school youth.

\*  $p < .05$

\*\*  $p < .01$

$R^2 = .308$

14.7% of the variability in occupational aspirations. The general decomposition of the path variables is presented in Table 14. The general pattern of the variables indicated more direct than indirect effects. Educational attainment and self-concept had the largest total effects on occupational aspirations. Figure 13 depicts the causal ordering of the variables leading to occupational aspirations.

Post-high-school females. For the remaining sample of post-high-school females in 1979, was depicted in Table 5, the primary path variables accounted for approximately 24.7% of the variability in occupational aspirations ( $F(7, 110) = 5.180, p < .01$ ). In contrast to their male counterparts, educational goals and actual educational attainment were important variables in the model. Mental ability was a less salient variable for the post-high-school females than it was for the sample of post-high-school males. Alternatively, family background was a significant path variable for the females which was not the case for the male sample. An examination of the general decomposition table (see Table 14) indicated that family background had the largest total effect on occupational aspirations. Figure 14 diagrams the causal ordering of the path variables leading to occupational aspirations.

Post-high-school blacks. In examining the sample of post-high school blacks in 1979, the primary path variables (see Table 5) accounted for approximately 37% of the variability in occupational aspirations ( $F(7, 52) = 4.371, p < .01$ ). In

Table 14

General Decomposition Table for Occupational Aspirations for Post-High-School Black Youth and White Youth and Males and Females

Bivariate Relationship	r		Direct Effect		Indirect Effect		Total Effect	
	Blacks	Whites	Blacks	Whites	Blacks	Whites	Blacks	Whites
FBK, OCC3	.299	.289	.102	.159*	.106	.098	.208	.257
IQ, OCC3	.318	.258	.203	.055	.050	.091	.253	.146
FTK3, OCC3	-.082	.139	-.170	.002	.062	.040	-.108	.042
ED3, OCC3	.189	.115	.027	.089	None	None	.027	.089
EDA, OCC3	.385	.434	.281*	.331**	None	None	.281	.331
SEL2, OCC3	.391	.251	.349**	.200**	None	None	.349	.200

	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
FBK, OCC3	.287	.307	.117	.223*	.099	.091	.216	.314
IQ, OCC3	.272	.062	.187*	-.047	.083	.048	.270	.001
FTK3, OCC3	-.005	.147	-.061	.031	.041	.089	-.020	.120
ED3, OCC3	.092	.167	.029	.169*	None	None	.029	.169
EDA, OCC3	.473	.351	.360**	.217**	None	None	.360	.217
SEL2, OCC3	.353	.264	.226**	.236**	.065	None	.291	.236

\* $p < .05$  Blacks OVERALL  $F(7, 52) = 4.371^{**}$ ,  $R^2 = .370$  Males OVERALL  $F(7, 111) = 9.345^{**}$ ,  $R^2 = .370$   
 \*\* $p < .01$  Whites OVERALL  $F(7, 169) = 9.805^{**}$ ,  $R^2 = .288$  Females OVERALL  $F(7, 110) = 5.180^{**}$ ,  $R^2 = .247$   
 Total  $R^2 = .31$

OCC3--Occupational Aspirations

EDA--Educational Attainment

FBK---Family Background

IQ---Mental Ability

ED3---Educational Goals

SEL2--Self-concept

FTK3--Significant Others' Influence

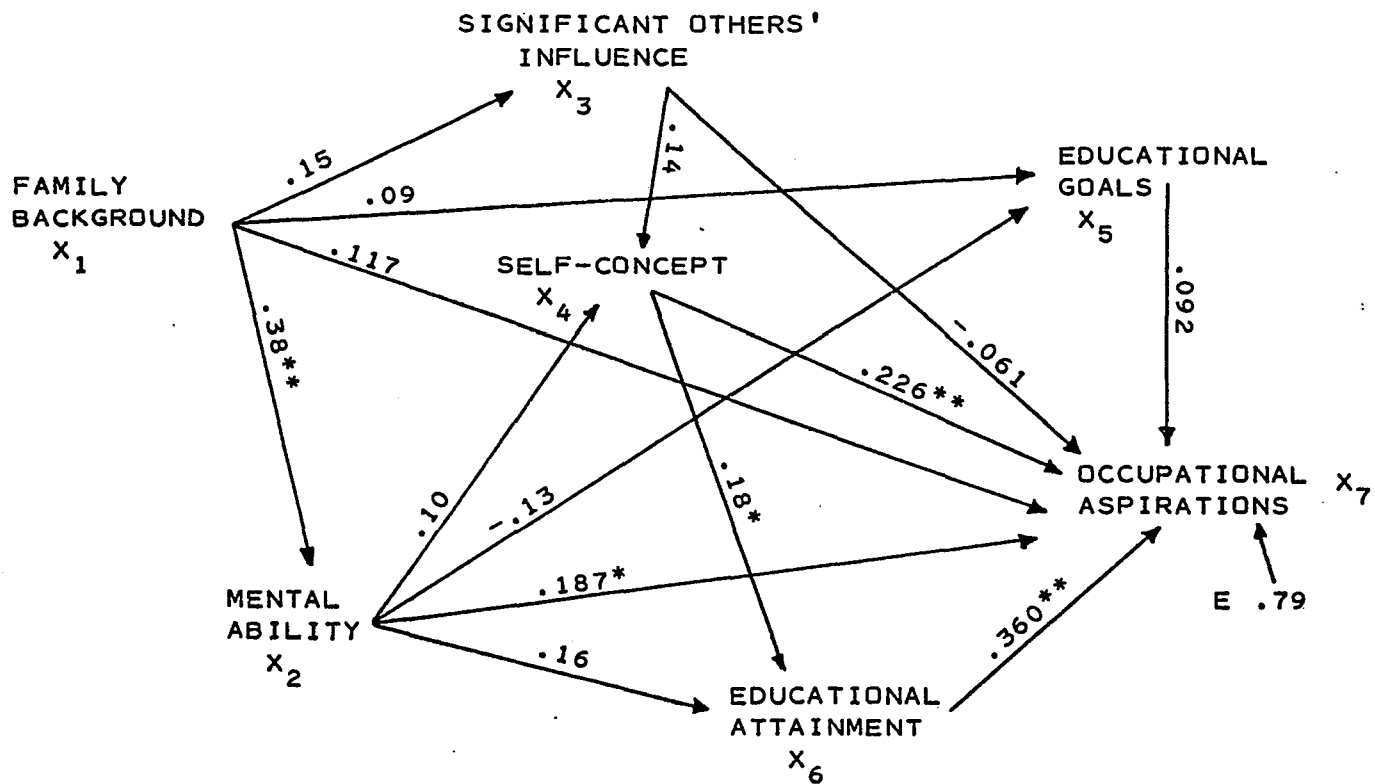


Figure 13. Path diagram for occupational aspirations for the sample of post-high-school males.

\*  $p < .05$   
 \*\*  $p < .01$   
 $R^2 = .37$

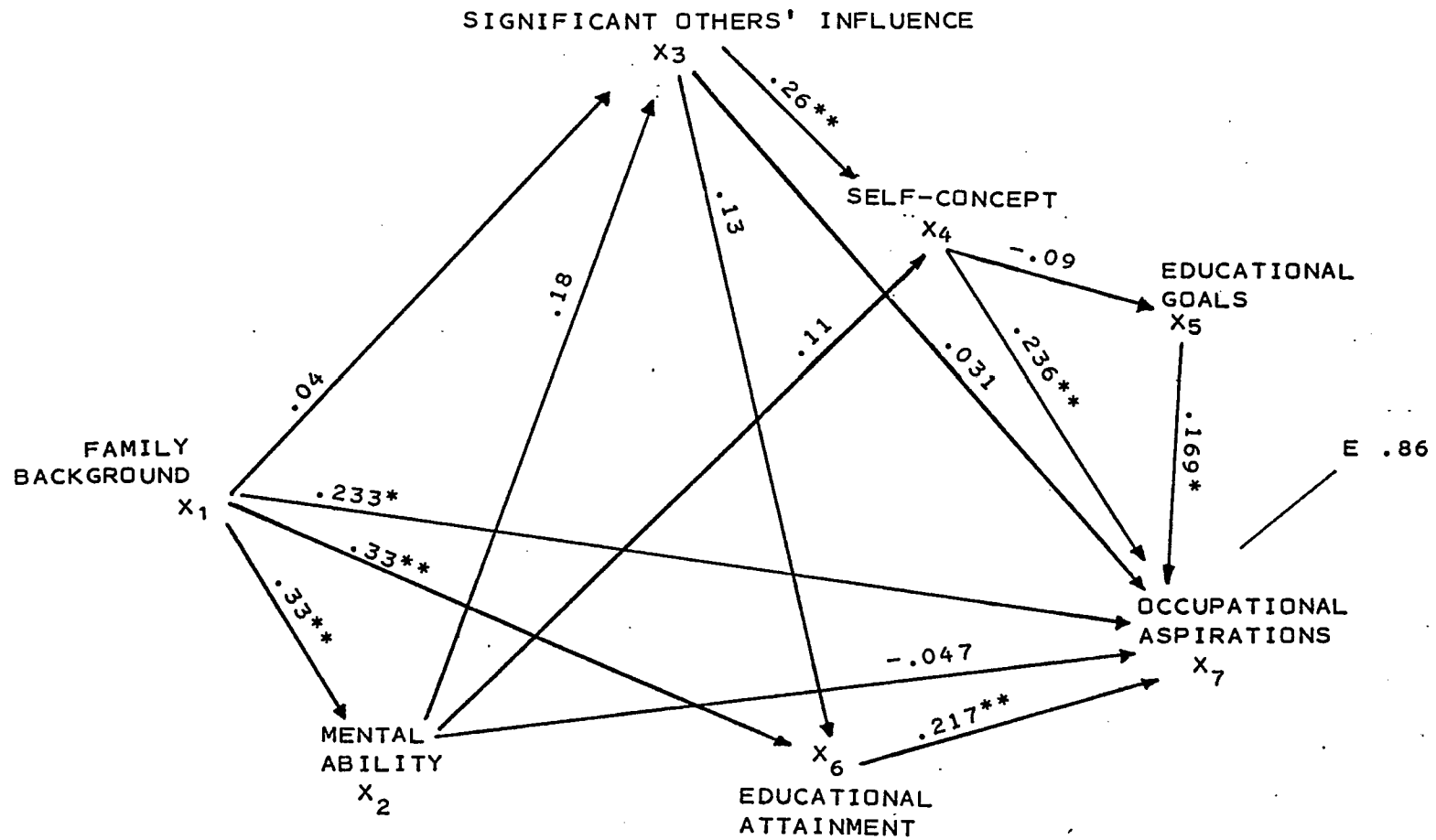


Figure 14. Path diagram for occupational aspirations for the sample of post-high-school females.

\*  $p < .05$   
 \*\*  $p < .01$

$R^2 = .247$

some contrast between the breakdown between males and females, black youths were more influenced by self-concept in terms of their occupational aspirations (approximately 11% of the variability was accounted for in occupational aspirations by self-concept). Table 14 depicts the general decomposition of the path variables which again showed the importance of self-concept. Actual educational attainment showed the next strongest influence on occupational aspirations after self-concept. Figure 15 presents the causal ordering of the path variables for the sample of post-high-school blacks.

Post-high-school whites. In contrast to the post-high-school blacks, the primary path variables shown in Table 5 accounted for approximately 28.8% of the variability in occupational aspirations ( $F(7, 169) = 9.805, p < .01$ ) for post-high school white youth. Family background for the white youth was more important than it was for the black youths. The general decomposition of the path variables shown in Table 14 indicated the importance of family background, educational attainment, and self-concept. Figure 16 shows the causal ordering of the path variables for the sample of white youth.

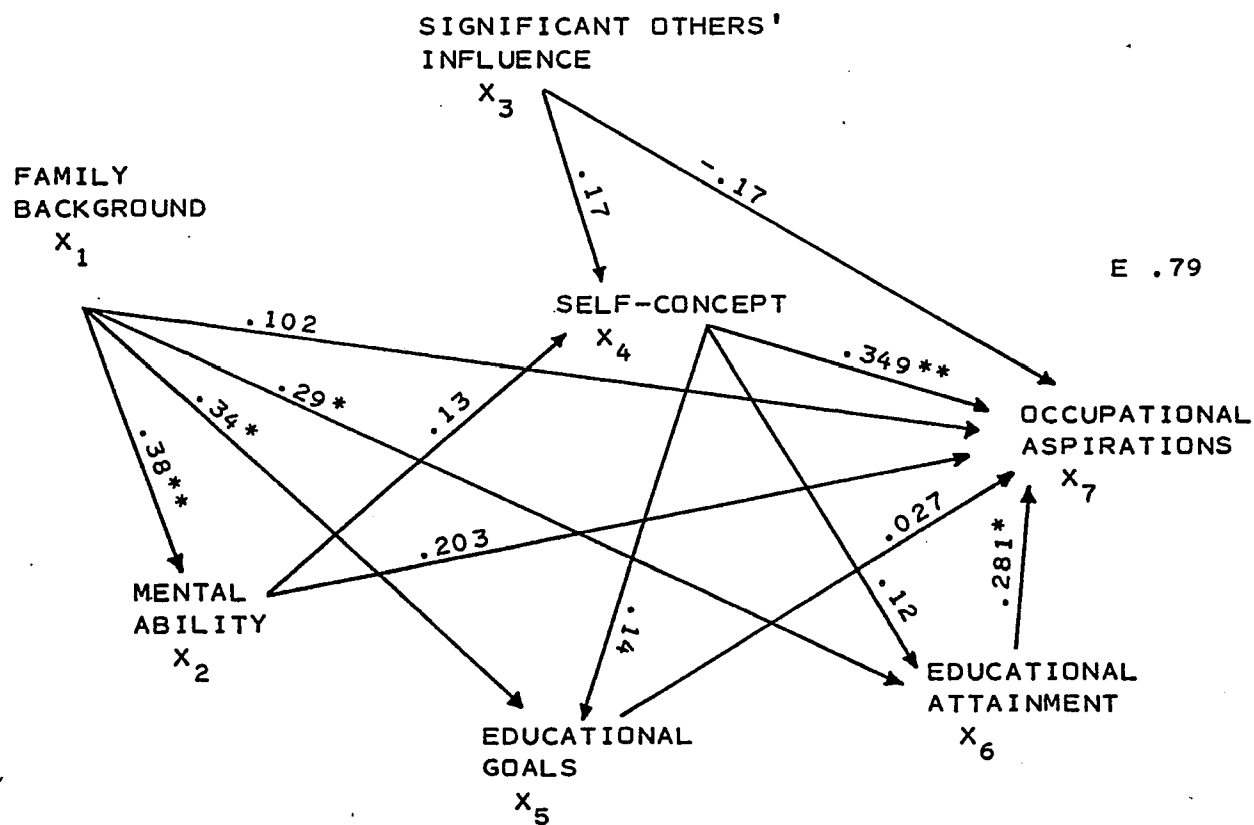


Figure 15. Path diagram for occupational aspirations for the sample of post-high-school blacks.

\*  $p < .05$   
 \*\*  $p < .01$

$R^2 = .370$

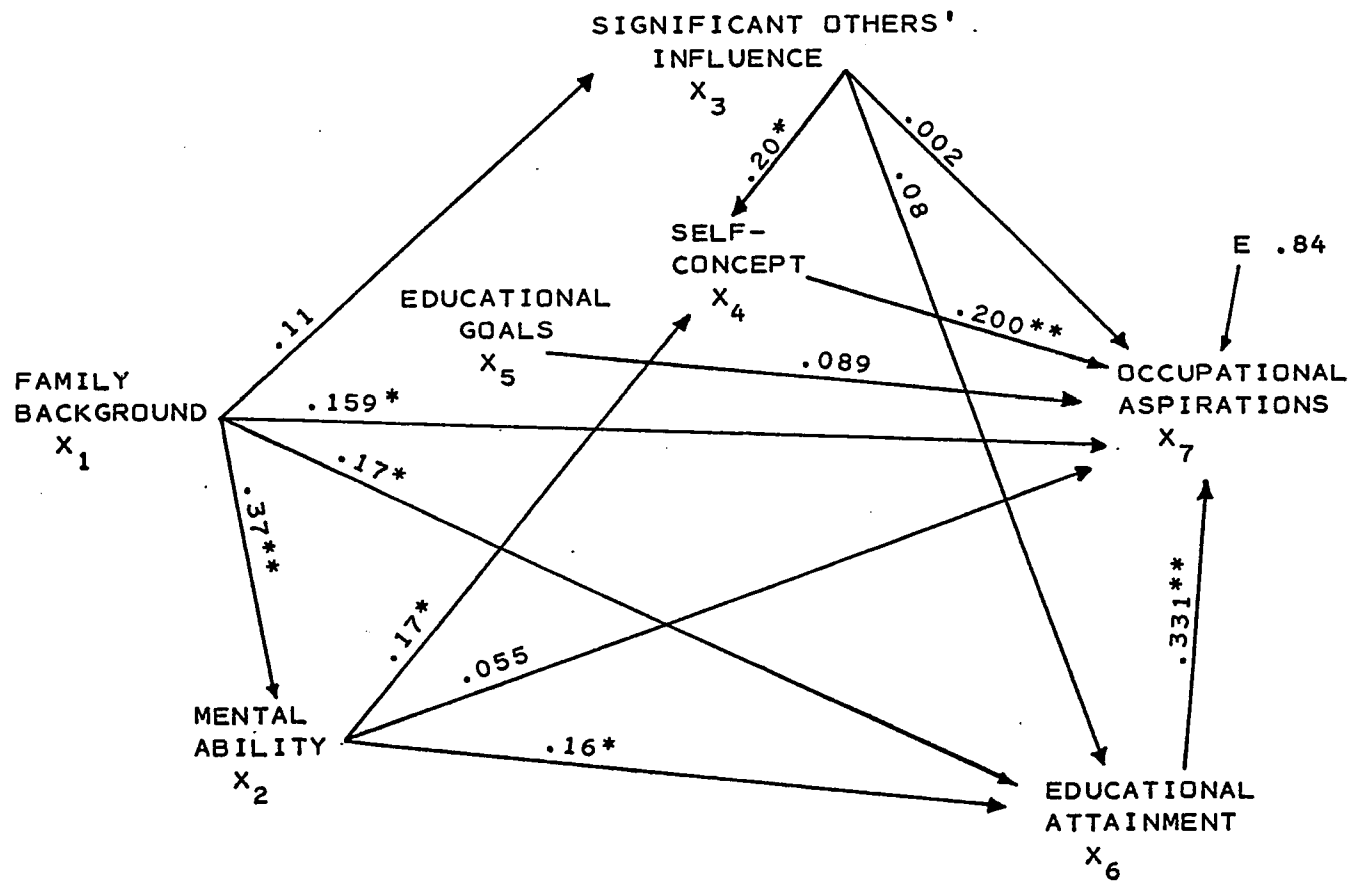


Figure 16. Path diagram for occupational aspirations for the sample of post-high-school white.

\*  $p < .05$   
 \*\*  $p < .01$   
 $R^2 = .288$



CHAPTER V  
SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, AND CONCLUSIONS

Research in the area of occupational aspirations has focused on path modeling efforts designed to examine causal connections among variables which influence occupational aspirations. Through the work of many researchers, selected variables have been delineated which are known to influence occupational aspirations. The literature indicates that path models have been examined among a variety of groups. However, using a low-income longitudinal sample to examine a standard path model of occupational aspirations has indicated that the selected independent variables change in importance in their impact on occupational goals.

Summary

The primary emphasis of the present research was to examine the selected independent variables of race, sex, mental ability, academic motivation, educational goals, significant others' influence, family background, and self-concept on occupational aspirations. This examination considered responses from youth who had been followed over a 10-year period beginning when the sample members were in the fifth and sixth grades and continuing through the post-high-school years or early adulthood. The path modeling efforts utilized were based on the work of Blau and Duncan (1967) and Sewell et al. (1969).

The sample for the study ( $N = 544$ ) represented youth from six Southeastern states: 91 black males, 150 white

males, 97 black females, and 206 white females. The data from three data bases had been collected through in-class and mail survey questionnaire procedures during the years from 1969-1979.

Based on an examination of the path modeling efforts of Blau and Duncan (1967) and Sewell et al. (1969) five hypotheses were formulated. The specific hypothesis that the selected independent variables would have less explanatory power in the preadolescent years than in the adolescent years was supported. However, what was of particular interest in this study was the changing importance of the variables over time. When the initial sample of youth was broken down by race and gender, specific variables seemed to be more salient than others in influencing occupational aspirations. The initial path model in the preadolescent years examined the relationship among the selected independent variables for the total sample, and included three exogenous variables (sex, race, and family background) and five intervening variables (mental ability, significant others' influence, self-concept, educational goals, and academic motivation). The subsequent path models examined the selected independent variables by race and sex. This procedure was repeated in the adolescent and post-high-school years. In the analyses for the post-high-school youth, educational attainment replaced educational goals as an intervening variable, and academic motivation was not included in the model.

The findings did not support the hypothesis that the overall importance of the independent variables in the pre-adolescent years was greater for white youth than black youth. However, the hypothesis that the selected independent variables would have greater explanatory power in the adolescent years than in either the preadolescent years or post-high school years was partially supported in that the model was more robust in the adolescent years than in the preadolescent years. Additionally, the findings indicated that there were gender and race differences in terms of explained variability in the adolescent years.

In reference to the last general hypothesis, the findings indicated that when educational attainment replaced educational goals, the model remained robust in the post-high-school years in contrast to losing explanatory power. Although not hypothesized specifically, the selected independent variables changed in importance over time.

The remaining portion of this chapter is a detailed discussion of the changing impact of the selected independent variables over the three developmental periods. A final section includes recommendations for future research.

#### Discussion of Changes in the Selected Independent Variables

##### The Total Model in the Preadolescent, Adolescent, and Post-High-School Years

The preadolescent years. In the preadolescent years, the setting of educational goals had the greatest direct influence

on occupational aspirations. As Proctor (1974) has noted, it is difficult at times to establish causal ordering of educational goals prior to occupational aspirations. That is, does the individual set his or her educational goals first and then decide on an occupational goal or does the latter come first? According to Jencks et al. (1979), the general inclination is that in order to get ahead one must obtain the desired educational goal first. The reasoning set forth by Jencks et al. (1979) seems to fit the initial preadolescent group. For the preadolescent youth, family background, mental ability, and academic motivation significantly influenced the educational goals that were formed.

It is of some interest that in the preadolescent years educational goals were the more salient variable than occupational aspirations. That is, since youths of this age range are rather far removed from the occupational workplace, it appears that their primary interest is in the school or educational setting. At this point in the process of forming occupational aspirations, the traditional variables utilized by Blau and Duncan (1967) and Sewell et al. (1969) are not as important in the formation of occupational aspirations as they will be in the adolescent years.

The adolescent years. In the adolescent years, the primary independent variables were more robust in explaining occupational aspirations than they were in the preadolescent years. During these years, based on the theoretical perspective of Ginzberg et al. (1951), youths may have been more

reality-oriented than they were in the preadolescent years. The overall level of occupational aspirations had declined between the preadolescent and adolescent years. As in the preadolescent years, educational goals had the strongest direct influence on occupational aspirations. It would appear from the data that youths in the adolescent years realize the importance of educational attainment in relation to occupational aspirations more than in the preadolescent years. In addition to educational goals, other factors such as mental ability directly influenced occupational aspirations. The data support the assumption that youth are beginning to realize that upward mobility to a certain extent is dependent on individual talents and educational achievement. Because self-concept was not assessed in the adolescent years, it was not possible to examine its importance in the formation of occupational aspirations. By moving forward to the post-adolescent years, where self-concept was assessed, it can be postulated that self-concept in the adolescent years may have been of some significance in influencing occupational aspirations. The relationship between self-concept and occupational goals that Super (1957) suggested appeared to be substantiated by the present study. Examining the sample by gender and race categories provides additional information as to the changing importance of the primary variables.

The post-high-school years. In the post-high-school years, the primary independent variables that directly influenced occupational aspirations were self-concept, family

background, and educational attainment. The last variable of educational attainment was incorporated into the model, since it was assumed that the majority of individuals had reached an educational plateau. Essentially, educational goals were not as salient a factor as they had been in the preadolescent and adolescent years. Sex and race differences in occupational aspirations were also indicated.

For the post-high-school individual, many of whom were already in the work place, the importance of self-concept became a prominent issue. Generally, during this period the individual not only works to attain monetary compensation, but appears to receive personal benefits from his or her work (Chappel, 1980). From the present data, the positive relationship between self-concept and occupational aspirations seemed to indicate that the higher the individual's self-concept, the higher the occupational aspirations.

The variable of family background both directly and indirectly influenced occupational aspirations. The importance of family background was indicated in terms of its impact on mental ability, educational attainment and significant others. An implication that may be drawn is the critical aspect of learning and family environment as a determinant of occupational aspirations. As the sample was examined by race and sex, convergence between groups appeared to develop. The opportunity structure in 1979 may have been more nearly equal between groups, and a greater similarity in experience of the post-high-school youth may have produced this convergence.

However, certain unique differences remained in the importance of the primary variables as they influenced occupational aspirations.

Male Youth in the Preadolescent, Adolescent,  
and Post-High-School Period

Male youth in the preadolescent years. The most important direct influence on occupational aspirations for the sample of males was their educational goals. Educational goals were influenced by academic motivation and family background. The relationship was such that the higher the family background and the greater the academic motivation, the higher the educational goals and subsequent occupational aspiration. Tracing the influence on academic motivation, the variables of significant others' influence and self-concept were particularly important. Essentially, family members had a direct influence on the child's academic motivation. It would appear from the path modeling findings that family members are in a position to raise or lower academic motivation. The child's self-concept was also directly influenced by significant others. Significant others were in turn influenced by the mental ability of the child. For male youth in general, traditional patterns of achievement appeared to exist in the preadolescent years. Occupational and educational goal setting are dependent on one's ability and background which influence aspirational level.

Male youth in the adolescent years. In the adolescent years, for the sample of male youth, the importance of mental

ability and educational goals as direct influences on occupational aspirations was evidenced. In addition, the total model increased in explanatory ability. At this point in time, occupational aspirations would appear to be a more salient issue for male youth than in the preadolescent years. The traditional variables of mental ability and educational goals appear to be factors which youths realize as necessary for success. In terms of significant others' influence, this variable diminishes in importance. A possible explanation for the diminished role may be related to when the variable was measured. Significant others' influence was a measure of familial importance. Since youth in the adolescent years are influenced by a variety of individuals other than family members, the variable would take on less importance. For example, during the adolescent years, teachers may be more of a direct influence on aspirations than family members may be. Consequently, familial members may have less of an impact on male youth in regard to educational and occupational goal setting.

Male youth in the post-high-school years. The model is very robust for low-income male youth in terms of explaining occupational aspirations. Traditional factors that would lead to upward mobility impacted directly on occupational aspirations. Mental ability and educational attainment were important determinants for the sample of males in 1979. The other variable of interest that influenced occupational aspirations was self-concept. It would appear that the perception the



individual had of himself directly related to his occupational aspirations. Self-concept not only directly influenced occupational aspirations, but also educational attainment. Low-income Southern males in the post-high-school period demonstrated the importance of psychological determinants (i.e., self-concept) in social mobility. Super (1957) suggested the strong relationship in terms of occupational aspirations; however, the relationship appeared to be evident in the educational process as well in this study.

Female Youth in the Preadolescent, Adolescent,  
and Post-High School Period

Female youth in the preadolescent years. In the preadolescent years, female youths seemed to respond and were influenced in much the same manner as their male counterparts. Females, however, reported higher mean occupational aspirations than did males. The range of choice was also narrower than the range of choice for male youth. This may partially be explained by the fact that preadolescent females were aspiring to traditional career choices. Using the NORC classification schema, choices such as nurse or teacher are given higher prestige rating than choices such as carpenter or machinist which were typical of the male respondents.

Female youth in the preadolescent years also evidenced higher mean scores for mental ability, self-concept, academic motivation, perceived influence of significant others, and educational goals than did male youth in the same period. Although the path modeling was approximately the same for

both males and females, the relationships between the variables differed.

For female youths unlike their male cohorts, family background did not have a significant direct influence on educational goals. A possible explanation for the minimal effects of family background may be the result of traditional expectations. Upward mobility or assuming a provider role may not be as crucial a factor for female youth as it is for male youth. Although the literature is somewhat contradictory as to the relative influence families have on their sons versus their daughters, Thomas and Falk (1978) suggested that at least for Southern youth, traditional role expectations seemed to exist.

Females were influenced by significant others in terms of academic motivation, however, not in terms of their self-concept. This finding again points to the minimal role family influence has on educational and occupational aspirations of female youth in the preadolescent years. The formation of self-concept for preadolescent females was not significantly influenced by significant others as it was for preadolescent male youths. It would appear from the present findings, that female youths may be more independent in terms of family influence on educational and career aspirations than are male youths.

Female youth in the adolescent years. Female youths like their male counterparts perceived educational goals as important in occupational attainment. However, mental ability

did not directly influence occupational aspirations. Low-income female youth realize that occupational attainment is not as important as becoming married. Kenkel (1981), Howell (1975), and others who studied these same low-income Southern youths have noted the early age of marriage for many females particularly white females. Although females tended to have higher aspirations than males, they generally indicated traditional career choices such as nurses and teachers. In addition, female youth in contrast to male youth in the adolescent years seemed to be influenced by significant others in terms of educational goals. Female youth in the adolescent years may be more influenced by familial members than non-familial individuals (e.g., teachers).

Female youth in the post-high-school years. For low-income Southern females, the importance of educational goals as well as educational attainment was significant in forming occupational aspirations. A possible explanation for the continuing importance of educational goals may have been that females had not necessarily reached their educational plateau. The sample of females in 1979 suggested that upward mobility was a desired and salient feature of their lives. According to Kenkel (1980), many low-income females marry early and hence drop out of the job market. For females, however, dropping out of the job market did not mean giving up occupational aspirations. Post-high-school females continued to endorse high career aspirations.

Similar to their male counterparts self-concept was an important determinant of occupational aspirations. However, unlike the sample of males, self-concept did not directly impact on educational attainment or educational goals. In explanation, female youth may not have incorporated self-concept in terms of educational goals or attainment, but may have involved self-concept in other aspects of their development (e.g., interpersonal relationships). Educational attainment, however, is affected by family background which was not the case for post-high school males.

Again, assuming that the sample of females was somewhat different from the females who dropped out of the study, family background was important in the formation of their occupational aspirations. That is, females from families that were active and had a family background score (FBK) were more influenced to attain careers. The sample of post-high-school female youth appeared to be more dependent on familial involvement in their occupational development than the sample of post-high-school males.

An interesting aspect of the sample of low-income females was the limited role of mental ability in occupational aspirations. If occupational aspirations are based on mental ability and educational attainment, it would seem that mental ability should also have been a crucial variable. This, however, was not the case for the present sample of post-high-school females. The anomaly is difficult to explain. Porter's (1974) explanation for black mobility may provide some insight into the

occupational pattern of low-income females. Females in the post-high-school years may have aspired toward career goals; however, advancement may have been based on a system of sponsored mobility. Low-income females may feel that career goals and educational attainment are based on being chosen rather than in terms of their ability. A similar pattern appeared to exist for the sample of low-income black youth which will be discussed in the next section.

Black Youth in the Preadolescent, Adolescent,  
and Post-High-School Period

Black youth in the preadolescent years. When the sample was broken down between black and white youth, little variation was found in the primary variables that influenced occupational aspirations. However, black youths in the preadolescent years had higher mean occupational aspirations than did their white counterparts. This is of particular interest since the literature has pointed to blacks as being cast in traditionally lower status occupations (Porter, 1974; Portes & Wilson, 1976; Treas, 1978). Another interesting finding is that compared to their white counterparts, black youths were more directly influenced by significant others in terms of occupational aspirations. The findings suggest that black youths, at least in the preadolescent years, were being influenced toward high levels of occupational attainment. This finding is in contradiction to Hall's (1979) argument that blacks may have separate value orientations. It would appear that at an early age low-income black youths are being

encouraged to attain high occupational goals. The question of how realistic goal formation may be in the preadolescent years, particularly for black youth, is of considerable importance. Black youths of this age may not realize the limitations and barriers toward attainment that they face. Believing the opportunity structure to be equitable black youth tended to set high levels of aspiration. Familial influence tended to encourage the high goal setting.

Although aspiring toward higher occupational goals, black youth evidenced a lower mean mental ability level than white youth ( $\bar{X}$  = 83.15 for black youth as compared to  $\bar{X}$  = 96.77 for white youth). This finding would seem to support Porter's (1974) conceptualization of a sponsored mobility system for black attainment. Thus, at an early age black youth may be influenced toward high attainments; however, mental ability is not a key factor in the process. Mental ability, as Porter (1974) suggested, does influence significant others and through significant others, occupational aspirations.

Black youth in the preadolescent years evidenced slightly higher mean levels of self-concept, academic motivation, and educational goals than white youth. Whether this indicates a rather unrealistic expectation on the part of black youth, is difficult to ascertain. It would appear that future research in the area of occupational aspirations should incorporate a variable that assesses the probability of realistic goals.

Black youth in the adolescent years. For black adolescent youth the primary independent variables became more meaningful in the model than was evident in the preadolescent years. Mental ability and educational goals exerted significant direct influence on occupational aspirations. This finding would appear to be in contrast to Porter's (1974) argument that blacks advance based on a system of sponsored mobility, that is, that advancement for blacks was based on being chosen rather than on ability. The importance of mental ability suggests that desire for advancement for black low-income youth is at least partially based on ability.

Significant others' influence seemed to have exerted little influence on blacks' educational and occupational goal setting. Assuming that the opportunity structure between 1969 and 1975 had changed in a direction toward equality of choice, black youths may have been setting goals independent of their parents (Kerckhoff & Huff, 1974). As a consequence, significant others' influence would have had little impact on educational and occupational aspirations. In relation to other variables of importance, family background directly influenced significant others' influence. The importance of family background in terms of the positive influence that it had on significant others may possibly be explained as a function of socialization. In addition, significant others' influence is actually a measure of familial influence, and family background to a certain extent is a measure of familial involvement. Therefore, the two variables may partially be measuring similar

dimensions and hence correlated. At least for black youth, parental involvement and socioeconomic level were important determinants of familial influence.

Black youth in the post-high-school years. In the post-high-school years, black youth's occupational aspirations were directly influenced by self-concept and educational attainment. Family background indirectly influenced occupational aspirations. Mental ability, however, was not significantly related to either educational attainment or occupational aspirations. Low-income black youth appeared to form goals independently of familial influence. Since the opportunity structure had become more equitable than it was in the earlier years, black youth may have tended to form goals that reflected this change. Discrimination is perhaps less a salient factor for black youth than it was for their parents. Consequently, low-income black youth in the post-high-school years were similar to their white counterparts in forming occupational aspirations. The difference for low-income black youth was in the limited role mental ability played in both educational attainment and occupational aspirations.

Educational attainment for low-income black youth was directly related to family background. In terms of influencing youth in the direction of educational attainment, black parents appeared to endorse the completion of educational requirements as well as the initial aspirations themselves. Occupational aspirations, however, were formed independently



of family background. The educational process may be emphasized by black parents as a means of gaining racial equality (Hall, 1979); thus, family background acts as a means toward reinforcing educational attainment. In contrast to low-income black youth in the post-high-school years, white youth evidenced a somewhat different pattern of occupational aspirations.

White Youth in the Preadolescent, Adolescent,  
and Post-High-School Period

White youth in the preadolescent years. Preadolescent white youth displayed much the same pattern in terms of occupational aspirations as black youth. Unlike black youth, however, white youth had a higher mean mental ability score and a slightly higher socioeconomic level. An interesting question about low-income Southern white youths is the lower occupational aspirations that they have. It would appear from the data, that low-income white youths may have more realistic appraisals of the opportunity structure than low-income black youths.

Drawing a parallel between the findings in the preadolescent years and the Ginzberg et al. (1951) theory of occupational attainment, low-income youth may have generally unrealistic aspirations in regard to career choices. In the preadolescent stage of occupational development, external constraints that might inhibit attainments are not seriously considered; therefore, occupational choices tend to be rather unrealistic.

White youth in the adolescent years. For white youth, the overall path modeling was similar to that of black youth. This finding lends support to the Howell and Frese (1979) race convergence hypothesis. The differences that existed between black youth and white youth in the adolescent years were in the differential importance of the independent variables influencing occupational aspirations.

White youths unlike black youths were directly influenced by significant others' influence in terms of educational goal setting. As black youths were perhaps setting goals independently of their parents (Kerckhoff & Huff, 1974), white youth may have been more directed by familial members. Upward mobility is generally dependent on high educational aspirations and for white youths families may be influencing the aspirational goals. Alternatively, white may simply have had the same educational goals as their parents, and hence were more disposed to the influence by familial others than black youths.

Another significant difference between black and white youth was in the influence of mental ability on educational goals. Porter (1974) argued that educational achievement may be based on a system of sponsored mobility for blacks as opposed to a system of contest mobility for whites. The present data tended to support Porter's (1974) conjecture at least for white youth. Educational aspirations for white youth were dependent on mental ability as were occupational aspirations. For black youth, however, only occupational

aspirations were significantly influenced by mental ability. Black youth in the adolescent years, like white youth, may realize that occupational aspirations are based on a contest system of mobility. However, educational advancement for black youth may be a product of a system of sponsored mobility.

White youth in the post-high-school years. The importance of mental ability in the educational attainment process and family background in the formation of occupational aspirations differentiated low-income post-high school white youth from the sample of black youth. In the first instance, mental ability, although not directly influencing occupational aspirations, did exert a significant indirect effect. Mental ability directly impacted on self-concept and educational attainment. For low-income white youth, the importance of ability in terms of educational attainment appeared to be a very salient issue. Educational advancement appeared to follow a system of contest mobility (Porter, 1974). Alternatively, occupational aspirations were not influenced by ability.

In terms of occupational aspirations, family background became an important determinant. Youths may have formed occupational goals similar to those of their parents. This finding tended to support Thomas and Falk's (1978) finding that low-income youth have roughly the same occupational attainment levels as their parents. Unlike low-income post-high school black youths, who appeared to set occupational aspirations somewhat independently of their parents, low-income post-high-school white youth seemed to set goals congruent

with those of their parents. Black youth may have held somewhat unrealistic notions of occupational attainment since their aspirations were higher than those of their white counterparts. White youth may realize that upward mobility is dependent on a number of factors beyond their control. For low-income youth in general, advancement may be based on the notion of selection rather than ability. The present study suggests the importance of continued research in the area of occupational development. Future research which further explores the differential importance of selected variables may provide additional information and insight into race and gender differences in the occupational attainment process.

#### Conclusions

The following conclusions may be made based upon the findings from the present study:

1. The overall explanatory power of the causal model for occupational aspirations was greater in the adolescent than preadolescent years.
2. In the preadolescent years, the variable of educational goals was the only variable that had significant direct effects on occupational aspirations.
3. In the adolescent years, the variables of educational goals and mental ability directly affected occupational aspirations.

4. In the post-high-school years, family background, educational attainment, and self-concept evidenced significant direct effects on occupational aspirations.
5. Race and gender differences evidenced a convergence in the adolescent years in that the causal model's explanatory power was similar across groups.
6. In the post-high-school years, race and gender differences existed in the path model's explanatory power and in the differential importance of the selected path variables. For white youth, family background had a significant direct effect on occupational aspirations which it did not for black youth.
7. In the post-high-school years, female youth evidenced significant direct effects on occupational aspirations from educational goals and family background. Male youth however were influenced by mental ability and not family background or educational goals.

#### Recommendations for Future Research

In examining a model of occupational aspirations, several alternatives might be considered for future research. One area which needs additional research is that involving the scale of measurement of occupational aspirations. In the present study, the scale of measurement was based on a prestige continuum (Reiss, 1961). However, the scale was constructed in the 1950's and occupational prestige may be considerably

different for today's youth, certainly the range of jobs available has expanded considerably in 30 years.

Another area in which future research may be indicated is the incorporation of different variables. Such variables might include more dimensions of personality than were incorporated in the present study. In addition, new variables that are suggested from the present study might be a measure of obstacles toward attainment and a measure of the opportunity structure. The importance of a measure of the probability of attaining a particular goal, whether educational or occupational, also needs to be incorporated into future research.

The present study focused on low-income Southern youth. Future research would be indicated for other minority groups in terms of incorporation of different types of variables. Findings from the present study indicated that a large portion of variability in occupational aspirations is still unexplained. Thus, the need to develop better measures for existing variables and to incorporate new variables is important.

In terms of theory building, future qualitative research may be desirable in addition to quantitative research. A certain number of low-income youths faced with many disadvantages toward attainment nevertheless do succeed. It would be of much theoretical benefit to study this group of individuals.

A final area of study suggested by the present investigation is the importance of self-concept in the occupational

development process. Self-concept not only directly influences occupational aspirations, but is in turn influenced by what the individual does. The relationship between self-concept and occupational aspirations suggests more than a simple linear relationship. Future research might focus on more sophisticated multivariate techniques in delineating the occupational development process.

## BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Alexander, K. L., & Eckland, B. K. Sex differences in the educational attainment process. American Sociological Review, 1974, 39, 668-682.
- Bachman, J. G., O'Malley, P. M., & Johnson, J. Youth in transition (Vol. 6). Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan, 1978.
- Balkwell, J. W., Bates, F. L., & Garbin, A. P. On the inter-subjectivity of occupational status evaluations: A test of a key assumption underlying the Wisconsin model of status attainment. Social Forces, 1980, 58, 865-881.
- Blau, P. M., & Duncan, O. D. The American occupational structure. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1967.
- Butler, R. R., & Baird, A. W. Influences on the child's occupational educational status projections. In Southern Regional Research Project S-63, Influences on occupational goals of young people in three Southern subcultures. Cooperative Research Science and Education Administration, USDA, 1974.
- Chappell, N. L. Paid labor confirming a conceptual distinction between commitment and identification. Sociology of Work and Occupations, 1980, 7, 81-116.
- Cosby, A. G., & Charner, I. (Eds.). Education and work in rural America the social context of early career decision and achievement. Houston: Stafford-Lowdon, 1978.
- Cosby, A. G., & McDermott, V. P. Rural youth in context. In A. G. Cosby, & I. Charner (Eds.), Education and work in rural America: The social context of early career decision and achievement. Houston: Stafford-Lowdon, 1978.
- Cosby, A. G., & Picou, J. S. Structural models and occupational aspirations: Black-white variations among deep-south adolescents. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 1973, 3, 1-14.
- Della Fave, R. L. Success values: Are they universal or class-differentiated? American Journal of Sociology, 1974, 80, 153-169.



- Della Fave, R. L. Public-policy implications of research and liberal sensitivities: A reply to Goodwin. American Journal of Sociology, 1976, 81, 1156-1159.
- Duncan, O. D., Featherman, D. L., & Duncan, B. Socioeconomic background and achievement. New York: Seminar Press, 1972.
- Elder, G. Adolescent achievement and mobility aspirations. Chapel Hill, North Carolina: Institute for Research in Social Science, 1962.
- Empey, L. T. Social class and occupational aspirations. American Sociological Review, 1956, 21, 703-709.
- Falk, W. W., & Cosby, A. G. Women and the status attainment process. Social Science Quarterly, 1975, 56, 307-313.
- Featherman, D. L. The socioeconomic achievement of white religio-ethnic subgroups: Sociological and psychological explanations. American Sociological Review, 1971, 36, 207-222.
- Featherman, D. L., Jones, F. L., & Hauser, R. N. Assumptions of social mobility research in the U.S.: The case of occupational status. Social Science Research, 1975, 4, 329-360.
- Furstenberg, F. F., Jr. The transmission of mobility orientation in the family. Social Forces, 1971, 49, 595-603.
- Ginzberg, E., Ginsburg, S. W., Axelrad, S., & Herma, J. L. Occupational choice. New York: Columbia University Press, 1951.
- Hall, L. D. The occupational choice process among low-income Southern youth: A longitudinal analysis. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Kentucky, 1979.
- Han, W. S. Two conflicting themes: Common values versus class differentiated values. American Sociological Review, 1969, 34, 678-690.
- Horan, P. M. Is status attainment research atheoretical? American Sociological Review, 1978, 43, 534-541.
- Howell, F. M. Making life plans: Race and gender in the formation and maintenance of career decisions. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Mississippi State University, 1979.

- Howell, F. M., & Frese, W. Race, sex, and aspirations: Evidence for the race convergence hypothesis. Sociology of Education, 1979, 52, 34-46.
- Hyman, H. H. The value systems of different classes: A social-psychological contribution to the analysis of stratification. In R. Bendix, & M. Lipset (Eds.), Class, status, and power. Glencoe, Il.: Free Press, 1953.
- Jencks, C. Who gets ahead? New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1979.
- Kandel, D. B., & Lesser, G. S. Parental and peer influences on educational plans of adolescents. American Sociological Review, 1969, 34, 213-223.
- Kenkel, W. F. Factors affecting the life plans of low-income rural youth. Paper presented at the Conference of Research Committee on Youth Sociology, Deutsche Landjugend Akademie, Fredeburg, Germany, 1981.
- Kerckhoff, A. C. The status attainment process: Socialization or allocation. Social Forces, 1976, 55, 368-381.
- Kerckhoff, A. C., & Campbell, R. T. Race and social status differences in the explanation of educational ambition. Social Forces, 1977, 55, 701-714.
- Kerckhoff, A. C., & Huff, J. L. Parental influence on educational goals. Sociometry, 1974, 37, 307-327.
- Kraus, V., Schild, E. O., & Hodge, R. W. Occupational prestige in the collective conscience. Social Forces, 1978, 56, 900-918.
- Kuipers, J. L., Southworth, L. E., & Reed, H. M. Occupational and educational goals of rural Appalachian children and their mothers. Knoxville: The University of Tennessee, 1979.
- Kuvlesky, W. P., & Bealer, R. C. A clarification of the concept occupational choice. Rural Sociology, 1966, 31, 265-276.
- Kuvlesky, W. P., & Reynolds, D. H. Occupational aspirations and expectations of youth: A bibliography of research literature (Report No. 70-4). College Station: Texas A & M University, 1970.

- Lefcourt, H. M. Recent developments in the study of locus of control. In B. A. Maher (Ed.), Progress in experimental personality research (Vol. 6). New York: Academic Press, 1972.
- Lewis, O. A study of slum culture: Backgrounds for La Vida. New York: Random House, 1968.
- Lipsit, L. P. A self-concept scale for children and its relationship to the children's form of the manifest anxiety scale. Child Development, 1958, 29, 463-472.
- Marini, M. M., & Greenberger, E. Sex differences in occupational aspirations and expectations. Sociology of Work and Occupations, 1978, 5, 147-178.
- McClendon, M. J. The occupational status attainment process of males and females. American Sociological Review, 1976, 41, 52-64.
- Merton, R. K. Theory and social structure. New York: The Free Press, 1961.
- Miller, W. B. Lower class culture as a generating milieu of gang delinquency. Journal of Social Issues, 1958, 14, 5-19.
- Nie, N. H., Hull, C. H., Jenkins, J. G., Steinbrenner, K., & Bent, D. H. Statistical package for the social sciences. New York: McGraw Hill Book Co., 1975.
- Otis, A., & Lennon, R. Otis-Lennon mental ability test. New York: Harcourt, Brace, and World, Inc., 1967.
- Parsons, T. General theory in sociology. In R. K. Merton, L. Broom, & L. S. Cottrell, Jr. (Eds.), Sociology today. New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1959.
- Peters, D. F., Peterson, G. W., & Southworth, L. E. The significant others of Appalachian youth. Paper presented at the Second Annual Appalachian Conference on Children and Families, University of Tennessee, Knoxville, Tenn., June 1981.
- Porter, J. N. Race, socialization, and mobility in educational and early occupational attainment. American Sociological Review, 1974, 39, 303-316.
- Portes, A., & Wilson, K. L. Black-white differences in educational attainment. American Sociological Review, 1976, 41, 414-431.

- Proctor, C. Methodology for the baseline study. In Influences on occupational goals of young people in three Southern subcultures (Southern Regional Research Project S-63). Greensboro: University of North Carolina, 1974.
- Reiss, A. J., Jr. Occupations and social status. New York: The Free Press, 1961.
- Rodman, H. The lower class value stretch. Social Forces, 1963, 42, 205-215.
- Rodman, H., Voydanoff, P., & Lovejoy, A. E. The range of aspirations: A new approach. Social Problems, 1974, 22, 184-198.
- Rodman, H., & Voydanoff, P. Social class and parents' range of aspirations for their children. Social Problems, 1978, 25, 333-344.
- Sewell, W. H., Haller, A. O., & Portes, A. The educational and early occupational attainment process. American Sociological Review, 1969, 34, 82-92.
- Sewell, W. H., & Hauser, R. M. Education, occupation, and earnings. New York: Academic Press, 1975.
- Shoffner, S. M. Respondent location procedures in a longitudinal study: Career projections and attainments of low income youth: Changes over time. Paper presented at the Second Annual Appalachian Conference on Children and Families, Knoxville, Tenn., June 1981.
- Slocum, W. L. Occupational careers: A sociological perspective. Chicago, Il.: Aldine Publishing Co., 1966.
- Southern Regional Technical Committee for Family Life. Research report-baseline and experimental phases: Influences on occupational goals of young people in three Southern subcultures. Greensboro: University of North Carolina, 1974.
- Spitz, G. D., & Waite, L. J. Labor force and work attitudes young women's early experiences. Sociology of Work and Occupations, 1980, 7, 3-32.
- Stroupe, A. F. A ten-year analysis of the influence of significant others on future plans of low-income Southern youth. Unpublished masters thesis, University of North Carolina at Greensboro, 1980.
- Super, D. E. Vocational development. New York: American Book-Stratford Press, Inc., 1957.

- Thomas, J. K., & Falk, W. W. Career attitudes and achievements. In A. G. Cosby, & I. Charner (Eds.), Education and work in rural America: The social context of early career decision and achievement. Houston: Stafford-Lowdon, 1978.
- Tittle, C. K. Careers and family: Sex roles and adolescent life plans. Beverly Hills, Calif.: Sage Publications, 1981.
- Treas, J. Differential achievement: Race, sex, and jobs. Sociology and Social Research, 1978, 62, 387-400.
- Treiman, D. J., & Terrell, K. Sex and the process of status attainment: A comparison of working women and men. American Sociological Review, 1975, 40, 174-200.
- Turner, R. H. Sponsored and contest mobility and the school system. American Sociological Review, 1960, 25, 855-867.
- Van Zeyl, C. J. Ambition and social structure. Lexington, Mass.: D. C. Heath and Co., 1974.

APPENDIX A

STUDENT SURVEY FORM,  
BASELINE QUESTIONNAIRE

(The questionnaire in this appendix appeared as it was used in the study except for the addition of some phrases which name the variables being measured and the source of the scale or items. These phrases are printed in Gothic style.)

BASELINE PHASE

SURVEY OF STUDENT PLANS FOR WORK AND SCHOOL

ITEMS 1-7

(Background Information)

1. Name \_\_\_\_\_  
     State \_\_\_\_\_  
     School \_\_\_\_\_  
     Grade \_\_\_\_\_
2. \_\_\_\_\_ 1. Boy  
     \_\_\_\_\_ 2. Girl
3. Parents' Name \_\_\_\_\_
4. Address (give road or street and number if possible)  
     \_\_\_\_\_  
     \_\_\_\_\_
5. Telephone Number \_\_\_\_\_
6. How old are you?  
     \_\_\_\_\_ 1. nine                      \_\_\_\_\_ 4. twelve  
     \_\_\_\_\_ 2. ten                        \_\_\_\_\_ 5. thirteen  
     \_\_\_\_\_ 3. eleven                     \_\_\_\_\_ 6. fourteen
7. Do you live with your mother (or stepmother)?  
     \_\_\_\_\_ 1. no  
     \_\_\_\_\_ 2. yes      What is her name?

\_\_\_\_\_  
 First                      Middle                      Last

We are interested in finding out something about your future plans, and would like to know your feelings about certain things. This is NOT a test and there are no right and wrong answers. I will read each question out loud and you read it to yourself as I read it, then check the answer which is closest to your feeling. **MAKE SURE THAT YOU ANSWER EACH QUESTION. REMEMBER, WE WANT YOU TO ANSWER EACH QUESTION IN THE WAY THAT SEEMS BEST TO YOU.**

I. FUTURE PLANS FOR WORK AND SCHOOL

ITEMS 8-16

(Occupational Aspirations and Expectations)

8. Have you ever thought about what kind of job you might have when you grow up?
- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. yes, a lot
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. yes, a little
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. no
9. a. If you could choose any job you wanted, what kind of job would you really like to have when you grow up?
- 
- b. How far do you have to go in school to get that kind of job?
- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. finish 8th grade
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. finish 8th grade and go to a trade school
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. finish high school
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. finish high school and go to a trade school
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. finish college
- \_\_\_\_\_ 6. don't know
10. What kind of job do you think you really will have when you grow up?
- 
11. Put a check by each of the people who have talked with you about the kind of job you might have when you grow up? (You may check more than one.)



- 1. mother
- 2. father
- 3. older brother or sister
- 4. another relative
- 5. teacher
- 6. preacher
- 7. adult friend or neighbor
- 8. other kids
- 9. other (Who? \_\_\_\_\_)
- 0. no one

12. Whose advice is more important to you about your future plans? (Check only one.)

- 1. mother
- 2. father
- 3. older brother or sister
- 4. another relative
- 5. teacher
- 6. preacher
- 7. adult friend or neighbor
- 8. other kids
- 9. other (Who? \_\_\_\_\_)
- 0. no one

13. If you had your choice, how far would you like to go in schools?

- 1. 8th grade
- 2. 1 or 2 years of high school
- 3. go to a trade school instead of finishing high school
- 4. finish high school
- 5. finish high school and go to a trade school
- 6. 1 or 2 years of college
- 7. finish college

14. How far do you think you really will go in school?

- 1. 8th grade
- 2. 1 or 2 years of high school
- 3. go to a trade school instead of finishing high school
- 4. finish high school
- 5. finish high school and go to a trade school
- 6. 1 or 2 years of college
- 7. finish college

15. Put a check by each of the people who have talked with you about how far you should go in school.

- 1. mother
- 2. father
- 3. older brother or sister
- 4. another relative
- 5. teacher
- 6. preacher
- 7. adult friend or neighbor
- 8. other kids
- 9. other (Who? \_\_\_\_\_)
- 0. no one

16. How far do you think your parents would like you to go in school?

- 1. 8th grade
- 2. 1 or 2 years of high school
- 3. go to a trade school instead of finishing high school
- 4. finish high school
- 5. finish high school and go to a trade school
- 6. 1 or 2 years of college
- 7. finish college

17. How do your parents feel about your finishing high school?

- 1. they insist I finish
- 2. they would rather I finish
- 3. they don't care
- 4. they would rather I didn't finish
- 5. they won't let me finish

#### ITEM 18

(Talking with parents about education)

18. Have you ever talked to your parents about dropping out before finishing high school?

- 1. yes, a lot
- 2. yes, a little
- 3. no

#### ITEMS 19-24

(Elder--Academic Motivation)

II. FEELINGS ABOUT SCHOOL. Read each statement as I read it and check one answer that best tells me how you feel about school.

19. I am interested in my school work

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. always
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. most of the time
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. sometimes
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. hardly ever
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. never

20. I really try to get good grades

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. always
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. most of the time
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. sometimes
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. hardly ever
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. never

21. I study or read at home

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. about every day
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. two or three times a week
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. about once a week
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. hardly ever
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. never

22. When the teacher gives us homework, I finish it

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. always
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. most of the time
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. sometimes
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. hardly ever
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. never

23. When I get a grade I don't like, I try hard to do better

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. always
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. most of the time
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. sometimes
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. hardly ever
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. never

24. If I had my way about coming to school, I would come

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. always
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. most of the time
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. sometimes
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. hardly ever
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. never

III. GENERAL QUESTIONS. Read each statement as I read it and check one answer that best tells how you feel.

ITEMS 25-44

(Weiner--Achievement Motivation)

25. I prefer  
\_\_\_\_\_ 1. working with others  
\_\_\_\_\_ 2. working by myself
26. I prefer jobs  
\_\_\_\_\_ 1. that I might not be able to do  
\_\_\_\_\_ 2. which I'm sure I can do
27. I would rather learn  
\_\_\_\_\_ 1. fun games  
\_\_\_\_\_ 2. games where I would learn something
28. I prefer a game  
\_\_\_\_\_ 1. where I'm better than anyone else  
\_\_\_\_\_ 2. where everyone is about the same
29. I would rather  
\_\_\_\_\_ 1. play a team game  
\_\_\_\_\_ 2. play against just one other person
30. I would rather  
\_\_\_\_\_ 1. wait one or two years and have my parents  
buy me one big present  
\_\_\_\_\_ 2. have them buy me several smaller presents  
over the same period of time
31. When I am sick, I would rather  
\_\_\_\_\_ 1. rest and relax  
\_\_\_\_\_ 2. try to do my school work
32. I  
\_\_\_\_\_ 1. like giving reports before the class  
\_\_\_\_\_ 2. don't like giving reports before the class
33. Before a class test I am  
\_\_\_\_\_ 1. often nervous  
\_\_\_\_\_ 2. hardly ever nervous

34. When I am playing in a game or sport I am  
\_\_\_\_\_ 1. more interested in having fun than in winning  
\_\_\_\_\_ 2. more interested in winning
35. When I am sure I can do a job  
\_\_\_\_\_ 1. I enjoy doing it more  
\_\_\_\_\_ 2. I become bored
36. When I play a game.  
\_\_\_\_\_ 1. I hate to lose  
\_\_\_\_\_ 2. I love to win
37. After summer vacation I am  
\_\_\_\_\_ 1. glad to get back to school  
\_\_\_\_\_ 2. not glad to get back to school
38. I talk in class (answer questions or discuss)  
\_\_\_\_\_ 1. less than other students  
\_\_\_\_\_ 2. more than other students
39. I enjoy sports more when I play against  
\_\_\_\_\_ 1. one other player  
\_\_\_\_\_ 2. several other players
40. If I were getting better from a serious illness I would like to  
\_\_\_\_\_ 1. spend my time learning how to do something  
\_\_\_\_\_ 2. relax
41. I like playing a game when I am  
\_\_\_\_\_ 1. as good as my playmate  
\_\_\_\_\_ 2. much better than my playmate
42. I prefer classes in which  
\_\_\_\_\_ 1. the students were all as good as one another at the work  
\_\_\_\_\_ 2. I was better than almost all the others
43. When I do things to help at home, I prefer to  
\_\_\_\_\_ 1. do usual things I know I can do  
\_\_\_\_\_ 2. do things that are hard and I'm not sure I can do

44. I would choose as work-partners

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. other children who do well in school  
 \_\_\_\_\_ 2. other children who are friendly

IV. MOTHERS AND CHILDREN. The following questions are about different ways that mothers act toward their children. Read each statement as I read it and check the answer which you think is most like your mother.

ITEMS 45-49

(Elder Scale)

(Child's Perception of Mother's Degree of Communication and Independence Training)

45. When she punishes me she tells me why, if I don't know.

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. always  
 \_\_\_\_\_ 2. most of the time  
 \_\_\_\_\_ 3. sometimes  
 \_\_\_\_\_ 4. hardly ever  
 \_\_\_\_\_ 5. never

46. When she decides things or makes rules for me, she tells my why.

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. always  
 \_\_\_\_\_ 2. most of the time  
 \_\_\_\_\_ 3. sometimes  
 \_\_\_\_\_ 4. hardly ever  
 \_\_\_\_\_ 5. never

47. When I do something she doesn't like she talks to me and explains or reasons with me, instead of punishing me.

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. always  
 \_\_\_\_\_ 2. most of the time  
 \_\_\_\_\_ 3. sometimes  
 \_\_\_\_\_ 4. hardly ever  
 \_\_\_\_\_ 5. never

48. Does she let you decide things for yourself more than she did a year or two ago?

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. much more  
 \_\_\_\_\_ 2. a little more  
 \_\_\_\_\_ 3. about the same  
 \_\_\_\_\_ 4. a little less  
 \_\_\_\_\_ 5. much less

49. How are most things decided between you and your Mother?

- 1. she just tells me what to do
- 2. we talk about it, but she usually does the deciding
- 3. we talk about it, but I usually get to do what I want
- 4. I can do what I want no matter what she thinks

ITEMS 50-94

(Bronfenbrenner Parent Behavior Questionnaire)

(Mother's Behavior as Perceived by the Child) (loving, demanding, and punishing)

50. I can talk to her about anything

- 1. always
- 2. most of the time
- 3. sometimes
- 4. hardly ever
- 5. never

51. When I go someplace for the first time, she comes with me to make sure that everything goes well.

- 1. always
- 2. most of the time
- 3. sometimes
- 4. hardly ever
- 5. never

52. She says that I have to get her permission first when I want to go somewhere or play with my friends

- 1. always
- 2. most of the time
- 3. sometimes
- 4. hardly ever
- 5. never

53. She makes me work hard on everything I do

- 1. always
- 2. most of the time
- 3. sometimes
- 4. hardly ever
- 5. never

54. I can talk her into most anything
- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. always
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 2. most of the time
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 3. sometimes
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 4. hardly ever
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 5. never
55. She is fair when she punishes me
- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. always
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 2. most of the time
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 3. sometimes
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 4. hardly ever
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 5. never
56. She seems to be upset and unhappy when I do not behave myself
- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. always
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 2. most of the time
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 3. sometimes
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 4. hardly ever
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 5. never
57. She is happy to be with me
- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. always
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 2. most of the time
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 3. sometimes
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 4. hardly ever
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 5. never
58. She makes me feel good and helps me when I have troubles
- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. always
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 2. most of the time
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 3. sometimes
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 4. hardly ever
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 5. never
59. She worries and is afraid that I cannot take care of myself
- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. always
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 2. most of the time
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 3. sometimes
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 4. hardly ever
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 5. never



60. She wants to know exactly how I spend my money when I want to buy some little thing for myself
- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. always
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 2. most of the time
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 3. sometimes
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 4. hardly ever
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 5. never
61. She tells me that I have to do better than other children
- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. always
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 2. most of the time
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 3. sometimes
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 4. hardly ever
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 5. never
62. She lets me off easy when I am bad
- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. always
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 2. most of the time
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 3. sometimes
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 4. hardly ever
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 5. never
63. When I have to do something for her she explains why
- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. always
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 2. most of the time
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 3. sometimes
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 4. hardly ever
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 5. never
64. She makes me feel ashamed when I am bad
- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. always
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 2. most of the time
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 3. sometimes
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 4. hardly ever
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 5. never
65. She says nice things about me to other people
- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. always
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 2. most of the time
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 3. sometimes
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 4. hardly ever
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 5. never
66. I feel that she is there for me when I need her
- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. always
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 2. most of the time
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 3. sometimes
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 4. hardly ever
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 5. never

67. She tells me I can't roam or wander around because something might happen to me

- 1. always
- 2. most of the time
- 3. sometimes
- 4. hardly ever
- 5. never

68. She tells me exactly when I should be home

- 1. always
- 2. most of the time
- 3. sometimes
- 4. hardly ever
- 5. never

69. She tells me that I must get very good grades in school

- 1. always
- 2. most of the time
- 3. sometimes
- 4. hardly ever
- 5. never

70. She finds it hard to punish me

- 1. always
- 2. most of the time
- 3. sometimes
- 4. hardly ever
- 5. never

71. When she punishes me, she explains why

- 1. always
- 2. most of the time
- 3. sometimes
- 4. hardly ever
- 5. never

72. She tells me, "I don't want to have anything more to do with you," when I do not behave myself

- 1. always
- 2. most of the time
- 3. sometimes
- 4. hardly ever
- 5. never

73. My mother is very good to me

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. always
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. most of the time
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. sometimes
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. hardly ever
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. never

74. She says nice things to me when I do something good

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. always
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. most of the time
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. sometimes
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. hardly ever
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. never

75. She punishes me by sending me out of the room

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. almost every day
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. about once a week
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. about once a month
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. only once or twice a year
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. never

76. She teaches me things I want to learn

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. almost every day
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. about once a week
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. about once a month
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. only once or twice a year
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. never

77. She tells me that other children behave better than I do

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. almost every day
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. about once a week
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. about once a month
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. only once or twice a year
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. never

78. She slaps me

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. almost every day
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. about once a week
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. about once a month
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. only once or twice a year
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. never

79. She punishes me by making me do extra work

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. almost every day
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. about once a week
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. about once a month
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. only once or twice a year
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. never

80. She goes on pleasant walks and trips with me
- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. almost every day
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 2. about once a week
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 3. about once a month
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 4. only once or twice a year
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 5. never
81. She wants me to run errands or do favors for her
- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. almost every day
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 2. about once a week
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 3. about once a month
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 4. only once or twice a year
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 5. never
82. She punishes me by not letting me play with other children
- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. almost every day
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 2. about once a week
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 3. about once a month
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 4. only once or twice a year
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 5. never
83. She helps me with my hobbies or things I like to do
- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. almost every day
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 2. about once a week
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 3. about once a month
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 4. only once or twice a year
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 5. never
84. She pesters me and keeps telling me to do things
- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. almost every day
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 2.. about once a week
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 3. about once a month
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 4. only once or twice a year
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 5. never
85. She spansks or hits me
- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. almost every day
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 2. about once a week
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 3. about once a month
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 4. only once or twice a year
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 5. never

86. She punishes me by not letting me do things I really enjoy

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. almost every day
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. about once a week
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. about once
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. only once or twice a year
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. never

87. She enjoys talking with me

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. almost every day
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. about once a week
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. about once a month
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. only once or twice a year
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. never

88. She wants me to keep my own things in good order

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. almost every day
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. about once a week
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. about once a month
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. only once or twice a year
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. never

89. She punishes me by sending me to bed early

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. almost every day
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. about once a week
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. about once a month
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. only once or twice a year
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. never

90. She helps me with my school work when I do not understand something

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. almost every day
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. about once a week
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. about once a month
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. only once or twice a year
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. never

91. She tells me I am bad and yells at me

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. almost every day
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. about once a week
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. about once a month
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. only once or twice a year
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. never

92. She says she will spank or hit me if I am bad

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. almost every day
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. about once a week
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. about once a month
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. only once or twice a year
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. never

93. She punishes me by taking my favorite things away

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. almost every day
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. about once a week
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. about once a month
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. only once or twice a year
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. never

94. She wants me to help around the house or yard

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. almost every day
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. about once a week
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. about once a month
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. only once or twice a year
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. never

ITEMS 95-116

(Lipsitt Self-Concept Scale)

V. FEELINGS ABOUT YOURSELF. There are no right and wrong answers. Answer each question in the way that seems best to you. Read each statement as I read it and check the answer that shows how you really feel about yourself, not what others tell you, but what you believe.

95. I am friendly

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. not at all
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. not very often
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. some of the time
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. most of the time
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. all of the time

96. I am happy

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. not at all
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. not very often
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. some of the time
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. most of the time
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. all of the time

97. I am kind
- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. not at all
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 2. not very often
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 3. some of the time
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 4. most of the time
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 5. all of the time
98. I am brave (bold, courageous)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. not at all
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 2. not very often
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 3. some of the time
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 4. most of the time
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 5. all of the time
99. I am honest (truthful)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. not at all
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 2. not very often
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 3. some of the time
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 4. most of the time
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 5. all of the time
100. I am likeable (I am somebody that others like)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. not at all
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 2. not very often
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 3. some of the time
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 4. most of the time
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 5. all of the time
101. I am trusted (people have faith or confidence in me)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. not at all
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 2. not very often
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 3. some of the time
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 4. most of the time
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 5. all of the time
102. I am good
- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. not at all
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 2. not very often
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 3. some of the time
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 4. most of the time
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 5. all of the time

103. I am proud

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. not at all
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. not very often
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. some of the time
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. most of the time
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. all of the time

104. I am lazy

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. not at all
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. not very often
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. some of the time
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. most of the time
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. all of the time

105. I am loyal (faithful, can be depended on)

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. not at all
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. not very often
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. some of the time
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. most of the time
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. all of the time

106. I am cooperative (I work well with others)

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. not at all
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. not very often
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. some of the time
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. most of the time
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. all of the time

107. I am cheerful

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. not at all
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. not very often
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. some of the time
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. most of the time
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. all of the time

108. I am thoughtful (I think of others' needs)

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. not at all
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. not very often
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. some of the time
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. most of the time
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. all of the time



109. I am popular (liked by most people)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. not at all
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 2. not very often
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 3. some of the time
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 4. most of the time
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 5. all of the time
110. I am courteous
- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. not at all
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 2. not very often
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 3. some of the time
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 4. most of the time
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 5. all of the time
111. I am jealous (envious, hurt because others have something you don't have)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. not at all
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 2. not very often
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 3. some of the time
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 4. most of the time
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 5. all of the time
112. I am obedient (dutiful, I do as I am told)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. not at all
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 2. not very often
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 3. some of the time
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 4. most of the time
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 5. all of the time
113. I am polite
- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. not at all
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 2. not very often
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 3. some of the time
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 4. most of the time
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 5. all of the time
114. I am bashful (shy)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. not at all
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 2. not very often
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 3. some of the time
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 4. most of the time
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 5. all of the time

115. I am clean

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. not at all
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. not very often
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. some of the time
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. most of the time
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. all of the time

116. I am helpful (lend a hand, aid)

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. not at all
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. not very often
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. some of the time
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. most of the time
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. all of the time

APPENDIX B

SURVEY OF YOUTH PLANS FOR THE FUTURE



d. Who do you live with? (Check one or more)

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. both parents
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. father (or stepfather, foster father)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. mother (or stepmother, foster mother)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. your wife or husband
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. someone else (tell who and what kin) \_\_\_\_\_
- 

We are interested in finding out something about your future plans and would like to know your feelings about certain things. This is NOT a test and there are no right and wrong answers. I will read each question out loud and you read it to yourself as I read it, then check the answer which is closest to your feeling. **MAKE SURE THAT YOU ANSWER EACH QUESTION.** REMEMBER, WE WANT YOU TO ANSWER EACH QUESTION IN THE WAY THAT SEEMS BEST TO YOU.

4. Have you ever thought about what kind of job you might have in the future?

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. yes, a lot
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. yes, a little
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. no

5. a. If you could choose any job you wanted, what kind of job would you really like to have in the future? (Describe clearly what you would do.) \_\_\_\_\_

---

b. How far do you have to go in school to get that kind of job?

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. finish 8th grade
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. finish 8th grade and go to a trade or vocational school
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. finish high school
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. finish high school and go to a trade or vocational school
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. finish college

\_\_\_\_\_ 6. go beyond college (graduate or professional school)

\_\_\_\_\_ 7. don't know

c. In what ways have you heard about that kind of job?  
(Check all of the ways in which you have heard about it.)

\_\_\_\_\_ 1. Someone in my family has that kind of job.

\_\_\_\_\_ 2. Someone else I know has that kind of job.

\_\_\_\_\_ 3. I heard about it in school.

\_\_\_\_\_ 4. I read about it in a book.

\_\_\_\_\_ 5. I read about it in a newspaper or magazine.

\_\_\_\_\_ 6. I heard about it on television or radio.

\_\_\_\_\_ 7. I saw it in the movies.

\_\_\_\_\_ 8. Someone told me about it.

\_\_\_\_\_ 9. I heard about it in some other way.

(How? \_\_\_\_\_)

d. How long have you thought that you would really like to have that kind of job?

\_\_\_\_\_ 1. Since I was a child

\_\_\_\_\_ 2. For several years

\_\_\_\_\_ 3. Only recently

\_\_\_\_\_ 4. I have not really thought about it much before today.

e. How likely do you think it is that you will be able to get that kind of job?

\_\_\_\_\_ 1. very likely

\_\_\_\_\_ 2. pretty likely

\_\_\_\_\_ 3. not so likely

\_\_\_\_\_ 4. not at all likely

6. What kind of job do you think you really will have in the future? (Describe clearly what you would do.)
- 
- 

7. Put a check by each of the people who have talked with you about the kind of job you might have in the future. (Check all who have talked with you.)

1. mother  
 2. father  
 3. brother or sister  
 4. another relative  
 5. teacher  
 6. preacher  
 7. adult friend or neighbor  
 8. classmate or other young friend  
 9. someone else (Who? \_\_\_\_\_)  
 10. no one

8. Besides the job you said you would like or expect you will have, we would like to know what other jobs you may have been considering for yourself. In the sample list of jobs below, put a check beside any others that you have recently been thinking about for yourself. (Check all that you have seriously thought about, except those you have already given above.)

- |   |   |
|---|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 01. Fireman or policeman | <input type="checkbox"/> 06. Secretary      |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 02. Teacher              | <input type="checkbox"/> 07. Mechanic       |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 03. Athlete              | <input type="checkbox"/> 08. Beautician     |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 04. Nurse                | <input type="checkbox"/> 09. Truck driver   |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 05. Doctor               | <input type="checkbox"/> 10. Factory worker |

- |                           |  |
|---------------------------|--|
| _____ 11. Race car driver | _____ 17. Carpenter                              |
| _____ 12. Housewife only  | _____ 18. Airline Stewardess                     |
| _____ 13. Farmer          | _____ 19. Artist                                 |
| _____ 14. Maid            | _____ 20. Something else<br>(What job?<br>_____) |
| _____ 15. Pilot           |  |
| _____ 16. Seamstress      |  |

9. How much do you think the following things might keep you from getting the job you would really like? (Check one blank after each thing.)

	Very Much	Some	Very Little
a. Not enough money to go to college	___3.	___2.	___1.
b. Lack of information about jobs	___3.	___2.	___1.
c. My race	___3.	___2.	___1.
d. My sex	___3.	___2.	___1.
e. Don't want to move away from friends and family	___3.	___2.	___1.
f. Not smart enough	___3.	___2.	___1.
g. The schools I have gone to	___3.	___2.	___1.
h. Lack of good job opportunities around here	___3.	___2.	___1.
i. Something else (Tell what it is: _____)	___3.	___2.	___1.



10. In picking the job you would most like to have, how important are the following things about that job? (Check one blank after each thing.)

	<u>Extremely Important</u>	<u>Important</u>	<u>Not very Important</u>
a. Offers you the chance to make a lot of money	___ 3.	___ 2.	___ 1.
b. Gives you a chance to become an important person	___ 3.	___ 2.	___ 1.
c. Offers a chance for exciting and interesting work	___ 3.	___ 2.	___ 1.
d. Give you steady employment	___ 3.	___ 2.	___ 1.
e. Gives you a chance to help other people	___ 3.	___ 2.	___ 1.
f. Gives you a chance to be your own boss	___ 3.	___ 2.	___ 1.
g. Something else (Tell what it is: _____)	___ 3.	___ 2.	___ 1.

- 11a. Which of the following kinds of jobs of work experience have you had? (Check as many as apply. Count nonpaying work such as volunteer work or work for your family, if it was like a regular job.)

- \_\_\_ 1. Summer job, full-time
- \_\_\_ 2. Part-time job (Summer or through the year)
- \_\_\_ 3. Full-time job other than just summer work
- \_\_\_ 4. No regular work experience

- b. If you have had work experience, what kind of work have you done most often? (Describe clearly what you did.)
- \_\_\_\_\_

- c. If you have had more than one kind of work experience, what kind of work have you done next most often? (Describe clearly what you did.)
- 

12. If you have your choice, how far would you really like to go in school?

1. 8th grade
2. 1 or 2 years of high school
3. go to a trade or vocational school instead of finishing high school
4. finish high school
5. finish high school and go to a trade or vocational school
6. 1 or 2 years of college
7. finish college (4 years)
8. Beyond college (graduate or professional school)

13. How far do you think you really will go in school?

1. I have already quit school for good (what was the highest grade you finished? \_\_\_\_\_)
2. 1 or 2 years of high school
3. go to a trade or vocational school instead of finishing high school
4. finish high school
5. finish high school and go to a trade or vocational school
6. 1 or 2 years of college
7. finish college (4 years)
8. Beyond college (graduate or professional school)

14. Put a check by each of the people who have talked with you about how far you should go in school.

- 1. mother
- 2. father
- 3. brother or sister
- 4. another relative
- 5. teacher
- 6. preacher
- 7. adult friend or neighbor
- 8. classmate or other young friend
- 9. someone else (Who? \_\_\_\_\_)
- 10. no one

15. How far do you think your parents would like you to go in school?

- 1. 8th grade
- 2. 1 or 2 years of high school
- 3. go to a trade or vocational school instead of finishing high school
- 4. finish high school
- 5. finish high school and go to a trade or vocational school
- 6. 1 or 2 years of college
- 7. finish college (4 years)
- 8. Beyond college (graduate or professional school)

16. How do your parents feel about your finishing high school?

- 1. they insist I finish
- 2. they would rather I finish
- 3. they don't care
- 4. they would rather I did not finish
- 5. they won't let me finish

17. Have you ever talked to your parents about dropping out before finishing high school?

- 1. yes, a lot
- 2. yes, a little
- 3. no

Now I have some questions on how you feel about school. Read each statement as I read it and check one answer that best tells how you feel. If you have already quit school, answer for how you felt when you were in school.

18. I am interested in my school work.

- 1. always
- 2. most of the time
- 3. sometimes
- 4. hardly ever
- 5. never

19. I really try to get good grades.

- 1. always
- 2. most of the time
- 3. sometimes
- 4. hardly ever
- 5. never

20. I study or read at home.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. about every day
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 2. two or three times a week
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 3. about once a week
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 4. hardly ever
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 5. never
21. When the teacher gives us homework, I finish it.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. always
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 2. most of the time
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 3. sometimes
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 4. hardly ever
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 5. never
22. When I get a grade I don't like, I try hard to do better.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. always
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 2. most of the time
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 3. sometimes
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 4. hardly ever
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 5. never
23. If I had my way about coming to school, I would come
- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. always
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 2. most of the time
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 3. sometimes
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 4. hardly ever
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 5. never
24. When I am sick, I would rather
- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. rest and relax
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 2. try to do my school work

25. I
- 1. like giving reports before the class
  - 2. don't like giving reports before the class
26. After summer vacation I am
- 1. glad to get back to school
  - 2. not glad to get back to school
27. If I were getting better from a serious illness I would like to
- 1. spend my time learning how to do something
  - 2. relax
28. a. What kind of grades have you been making this year?
- 1. mostly A's (90-100)
  - 2. mostly B's (80-89)
  - 3. mostly C's (70-79)
  - 4. mostly D's and F's (below 70)
- b. Check here  if not in school.
- c. About what is your overall high school grade average?
- 1. A (between 90 and 100)
  - 2. B (between 80 and 89)
  - 3. C (between 70 and 79)
  - 4. D or F (below 70)
29. Whose advice is most important to you about your future plans? (check only one.)
- 1. mother
  - 2. father
  - 3. brother or sister
  - 4. another relative
  - 5. teacher

6. preacher  
 7. adult friend or neighbor  
 8. classmates or other young friends  
 9. someone else (Who? \_\_\_\_\_)  
 10. no one

Now I have some questions on how you feel about marriage, children, and where to live.

30. If you had your choice, where would you really like to live in the future?

a. In what part of the country or the world? (check one)

1. In this community or very near here  
 2. Somewhere else in this state (Where? \_\_\_\_\_)  
 3. In another state near here (Which one? \_\_\_\_\_)  
 4. In a different part of the USA (What state or area? \_\_\_\_\_)  
 5. On some other country (Which one? \_\_\_\_\_)

b. Would you rather live in the country, in a town, or in a city? (Check one)

1. In the country or a small town  
 2. In a big town or small city (Which one? \_\_\_\_\_)  
 3. In a very big city or its suburbs (Which city? \_\_\_\_\_)

31. How old do you think you will be when you get married?

\_\_\_\_\_

Check here if you are already married or have been married

Check here if you don't think you will ever marry

32. a. Do you have any children?

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. no  
\_\_\_\_\_ 2. yes

b. In all, how many children would you like to have?

\_\_\_\_\_

33. Have any of the following people influenced your ideas about how old a person should be when he or she gets married? (Check all that have influenced you.)

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. mother  
\_\_\_\_\_ 2. father  
\_\_\_\_\_ 3. brother or sister  
\_\_\_\_\_ 4. another relative  
\_\_\_\_\_ 5. teacher  
\_\_\_\_\_ 6. preacher  
\_\_\_\_\_ 7. adult friend or neighbor  
\_\_\_\_\_ 8. classmate or other young friend  
\_\_\_\_\_ 9. someone else (Who? \_\_\_\_\_)  
\_\_\_\_\_ 10. no one

34. Have one of the following people influenced your ideas about how many children you would like to have? (Check all that have influenced you.)

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. mother  
\_\_\_\_\_ 2. father  
\_\_\_\_\_ 3. brother or sister  
\_\_\_\_\_ 4. another relative  
\_\_\_\_\_ 5. teacher  
\_\_\_\_\_ 6. preacher  
\_\_\_\_\_ 7. adult friend or neighbor



8. classmate or other young friend  
 9. someone else (Who? \_\_\_\_\_)  
 10. no one
35. What do you think a married woman should do about working outside the home? Which one of the following statements comes closest to your opinion? (Check the one that comes closest.)
1. She shouldn't work at all unless her husband is not able to work.  
 2. She should work only if she has no children or all the children are in high school.  
 3. It is all right for her to work, as long as her children are in school or she has a good sitter.  
 4. The children are the husband's as much as hers; she should be able to work if she wants to.
36. Have any of the following people had something to do with your ideas about married women working outside the home? (Check all that have influenced you.)
1. mother  
 2. father  
 3. brother or sister  
 4. another relative  
 5. teacher  
 6. preacher  
 7. adult friend or neighbor  
 8. classmate or other young friend  
 9. someone else (Who? \_\_\_\_\_)  
 10. no one

The next questions have to do with what you think about certain things. There are no right or wrong answers. We just want to know which statement in each pair is closest to your opinion. If you think both statements in a pair are kind of true, or neither one is true, we still want to know which statement is nearest what you believe.

37. Check one of these two statements:

1. Many of the unhappy things in people's lives are partly due to bad luck.
2. People's misfortunes result from the mistakes they make.

38. Check one of these two statements:

1. In the long run, people get the respect they deserve in this world.
2. Unfortunately, an individual's worth often passes unrecognized, no matter how hard he tries.

39. Check one of these two statements:

1. Without the right breaks, one cannot be an effective leader.
2. Capable people who fail to become leaders have not taken advantage of their opportunities.

40. Check one of these two statements:

1. Becoming a success is a matter of hard work; luck has little or nothing to do with it.
2. Getting a good job depends mainly on being in the right place at the right time.

41. Check one of these two statements:

1. What happens to me is my own doing.
2. Sometimes I feel that I don't have enough control over the direction my life is taking.

42. Check one of these two statements:

1. When I make plans, I am almost certain that I can make them work.
2. It is not always wise to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune anyhow.

43. Check one of these two statements:

1. In my case, getting what I want has little or nothing to do with luck.
2. Many times we might just as well decide what to do by flipping a coin.

44. Check one of these two statements:

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. Who gets to be boss often depends on who was lucky enough to be in the right place first.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. Getting people to do the right thing depends upon ability; luck has little or nothing to do with it.

45. Check one of these two statements:

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. Most people don't realize the extent to which their lives are controlled by accidental happenings.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. There is really no such thing as "luck."

46. Check one of these two statements:

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. In the long run, the bad things that happen to us are balanced by the good ones.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. Most misfortunes are the result of lack of ability, ignorance, laziness, or all three.

47. Check one of these two statements:

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. Many times I feel that I have little influence over the things that happen to me.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. It is impossible for me to believe that chance or luck plays an important role in my life.

Now we have a few questions about your family:

48. What kind of work does your father (stepfather, foster father) do? (GIVE AS SPECIFIC A DESCRIPTION AS POSSIBLE-- Describe clearly what he does in his main job.)

Check here \_\_\_\_\_ if retired or not working, then give usual or former work below.

---

(describe type of work here)

---

\_\_\_\_\_ Don't know, or don't have a father, stepfather or foster father.

49. Does your mother (stepmother, foster mother) work?

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. no, housewife only
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. yes, part-time work only
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. yes. If yes, what kind of work does she do?  
(GIVE AS SPECIFIC A DESCRIPTION AS POSSIBLE--  
Describe clearly what she does in her main  
job.)

Check here \_\_\_\_\_ if retired or not working, then give  
usual or former work below.

---

(describe type of work here)

---

- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. Usually works, but out-of-job now
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. Don't know, or don't have a mother, stepmother,  
or foster mother.

50. If your father's or mother's occupation (above) is  
farmer, which one of the following best describes the  
kind of farming or farm work he or she does (check  
one)

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. Landowner who mainly gets (his) (her) income  
from renting land to others and doesn't do  
much actual operation of the farm (himself)  
(herself).
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. Farm operator with one or more regular paid  
laborers.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. Farm manager (paid salary to operate farm for  
someone else).
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. Small farm owner-operator with no regular  
paid laborers.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. Tenant operator with no regular paid help,  
or hired foreman.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 6. Sharecroppers or regular paid laborer.

51. What are the main sources of your family's income? Do any members of your family get any income from the following sources? (Check as many as apply)

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. Salary or wages from employment or work
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. Profit or fees from operating a farm, business or profession
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. Rents from property owned or interest on savings and investments
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. Board money or contributions from others who live in the household
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. Money from children or relatives not in the household
- \_\_\_\_\_ 6. Social Security or other pensions
- \_\_\_\_\_ 7. Government welfare, (food stamps, Aid to Dependent Children, etc.)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 8. Unemployment compensation
- \_\_\_\_\_ 9. Gifts or private relief
- \_\_\_\_\_ 10. Other (Tell what \_\_\_\_\_)

52. From which of the above sources does your family get the most income? From which one does it get the second most income? (Enter the number from above.)

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. most income
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. second most income

53. In all, how many people live in your household? (Include persons considered members of the family or household who are temporarily away, or who sleep in another building if they eat with you, but don't include persons who have a separate apartment and cook separately.)

\_\_\_\_\_ (number)

54. We may want to get in touch with you once more in the future. Please give the names and addresses of two people who will always know where you are or where you have moved. If possible, include one person other than your parents.

1. Name \_\_\_\_\_

Address \_\_\_\_\_

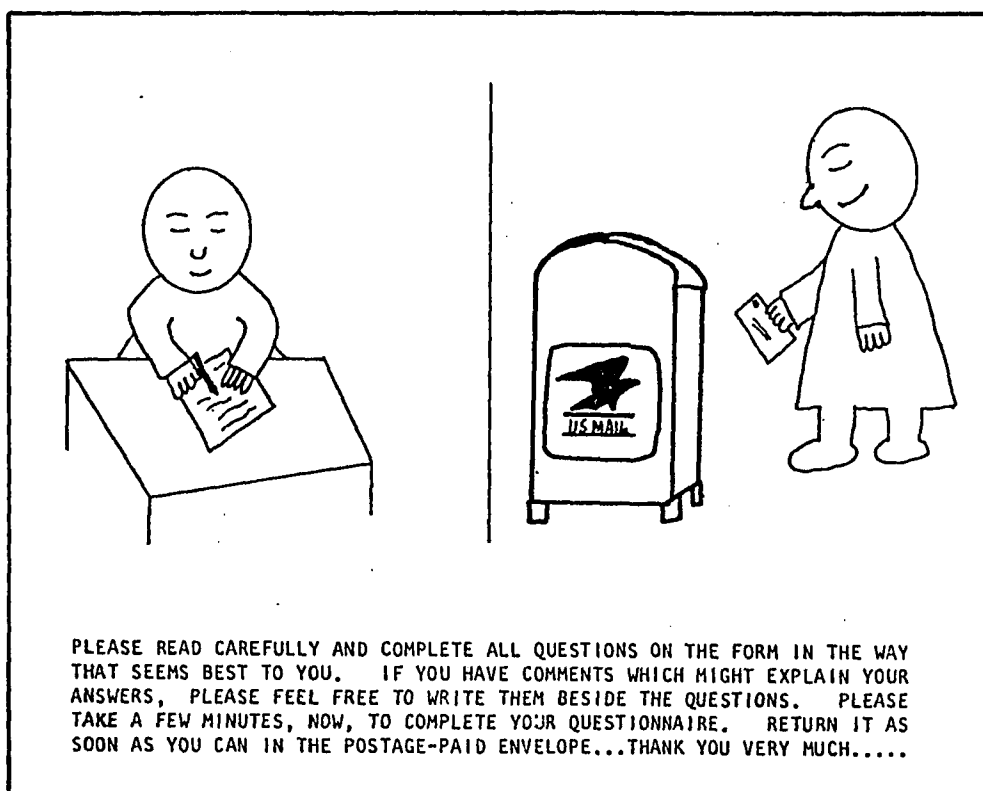
2. Name \_\_\_\_\_

Address \_\_\_\_\_

APPENDIX C

TEN-YEAR FOLLOW-UP SURVEY OF YOUNG PEOPLE

As indicated in the enclosed letter, we want to know what you are doing and planning now, ten years after you first gave us information about yourself. You are part of a sample of over 1,000 young people who grew up in the South. Your answers are important because it is hoped that this information will help young people take better advantage of their educational and job opportunities.



● ● Agricultural Experiment Stations in these Southern states and universities:  
 ALABAMA--Alabama A & M University, Normal ● KENTUCKY--University of Kentucky, Lexington ● MISSISSIPPI--Alcorn State University, Lorman ● NORTH CAROLINA--University of North Carolina at Greensboro ● North Carolina State University, Raleigh ● SOUTH CAROLINA--Winthrop College, Rock Hill ● TENNESSEE--University of Tennessee, Knoxville ● VIRGINIA--Virginia Polytechnic Institute & State University, Blacksburg ● USDA / SEA, Cooperative Research, Washington, DC ● ●



## TEN-YEAR FOLLOW-UP SURVEY OF YOUNG PEOPLE

CASE CODE \_\_\_\_\_  
 1975  
 NAME \_\_\_\_\_

COUNTY \_\_\_\_\_  
 1969  
 SCHOOL \_\_\_\_\_

## YOUR PRESENT SITUATION

1. Do you now live in the country, in a town, or in a city?
  - \_\_\_ 1. In the open country or a small town (under 10,000 people)
  - \_\_\_ 2. In a big town or small city (10,000-49,999 people)
  - \_\_\_ 3. In a big city or its suburbs (50,000 and up)
  - \_\_\_ 4. In the country near a big city or its suburbs (50,000 and up)
2. How close are you living now to where you were living when you were growing up and going to school?
  - \_\_\_ 1. In the same community or very near
  - \_\_\_ 2. In the same state, but a different community
  - \_\_\_ 3. In a nearby state
  - \_\_\_ 4. In a different part of the USA
3. With whom do you now live?
  - \_\_\_ 1. By myself (or by myself with children)
  - \_\_\_ 2. With my parents
  - \_\_\_ 3. With my husband or wife
  - \_\_\_ 4. With parents and husband or wife
  - \_\_\_ 5. With other relatives
  - \_\_\_ 6. With person(s) not related to me (in house, apartment house, dormitory, rooming house, the Armed Forces, etc.)
4. Are you presently
  - \_\_\_ 1. Single (never married)
  - \_\_\_ 2. Married
  - \_\_\_ 3. Divorced or separated
  - \_\_\_ 4. Widowed
5. When were you (first) married?
 

Month \_\_\_\_\_ Year \_\_\_\_\_

How old were you? \_\_\_\_\_

Check (✓) here if never married.
6. How many children do you have? \_\_\_\_\_

7. What were you doing in each of the years since 1975?

*If you were doing more than one thing during the year, check (✓) as many boxes as apply. You may wish to start with 1975 and read down the list of items, checking each one you were doing that year. Then go to the next year.*

How many of <u>these things</u> were you doing .....	In 1975?	In 1976?	In 1977?	In 1978?	Now 1979?
a. Going to high school or graduating . . . . .					
b. Working in a full-time or part-time job or self-employed . . . . .					
c. Enrolled in graduate or professional school . . . . .					
d. Taking academic courses at a two- or four-year college . . . . .					
e. Taking vocational or technical course(s) at any kind of school or college (for example, trade, vocational, business, correspondence course, or other career training) . . . . .					
f. On active duty in the Armed Forces (or service academy) . . . . .					
g. Homemaker / Housewife . . . . .					
h. Unemployed, temporary layoff from work, looking for work, or waiting to report to work . . . . .					
i. Working without pay (for parents, relatives, or others) . . . . .					
j. Something else (tell what) _____					

8. Now, what have been your job experiences? Please give the name of the job or type of work you had during each of the following years. (Please write in "same" if the job was the same as the year before. If you had no regular job, please write "none".)

1975 \_\_\_\_\_  
 \_\_\_\_\_

1976 \_\_\_\_\_  
 \_\_\_\_\_

1977 \_\_\_\_\_  
 \_\_\_\_\_

1978 \_\_\_\_\_  
 \_\_\_\_\_

Present (now), 1979 \_\_\_\_\_  
 \_\_\_\_\_

9. During last year (1978), how many weeks of the 52 were you without work because you couldn't find a job or were laid off?

weeks

10. If you were unemployed during 1978, what was the main reason? Check (✓) one.

- \_\_\_ 1. The job I had was discontinued.  
 \_\_\_ 2. I was fired.  
 \_\_\_ 3. I quit my job to look for a better job.  
 \_\_\_ 4. I quit because I didn't like the job I had.  
 \_\_\_ 5. I quit for personal or family reasons.  
 \_\_\_ 6. I quit for other reasons.  
 \_\_\_ 7. I did not find work when school ended.  
 \_\_\_ 8. I've never had a regular job.

11. Check (✓) the category that best describes the amount of money you are making (before tax and other deductions). If married, also check the category that best describes the amount of money your husband or wife makes (before tax and other deductions).

SELF	HUSBAND OR WIFE	
___	___	1. None
___	___	2. Less than \$300 per month (less than \$75 per week)
___	___	3. \$300-\$499 per month (\$75-\$124 per week)
___	___	4. \$500-\$699 per month (\$125-\$174 per week)
___	___	5. \$700-\$999 per month (\$175-\$249 per week)
___	___	6. \$1000-\$1499 per month (\$250-\$374 per week)
___	___	7. \$1500 or more per month (\$375 or more per week)

12. Check (✓) all of the sources from which you are now getting money. (If married, answer for self and husband or wife.)

- \_\_\_ 1. Salary or wages from employment or work  
 \_\_\_ 2. Profit or fees from operating a farm, business or profession  
 \_\_\_ 3. Rents from property owned or interest on savings and investments  
 \_\_\_ 4. Money from parents or relatives  
 \_\_\_ 5. Social Security or other pensions  
 \_\_\_ 6. Government welfare (food stamps, Aid to Dependent Children, etc.)  
 \_\_\_ 7. Unemployment compensation  
 \_\_\_ 8. Gifts or private relief (scholarships, fellowships, or other financial aid for schooling)  
 \_\_\_ 9. Other (tell what) \_\_\_\_\_

13. Now, read the list again in question #12 and CIRCLE the source from which you get the most money.

14. How often did you use the following methods in looking for or getting the jobs you have held since the beginning of 1975? Check (✓) all that apply.

Method	Often Used	Sometimes Used	Never Used
a. State employment office . . . . .			
b. Private employment agency . . . . .			
c. Community action or welfare groups . . . . .			
d. Newspaper, TV, or radio ads . . . . .			
e. Telephoned or went around on my own to places where there might be a job (without knowing whether or not one was available). . . . .			
f. Employer asked me to work . . . . .			
g. Registration with a union . . . . .			
h. Parents or relatives . . . . .			
i. Friends . . . . .			
j. Teachers or school counselors . . . . .			
k. School or college placement service . . . . .			
l. Applied for a government job (federal, state, or local) . . . . .			
m. Applied to a military service (Army, Navy, etc.) . . . . .			
o. Other (tell what) _____			

Check here if the question does not apply to you.

15. How much have the following things kept you from getting the JOBS you really wanted?  
 Check (✓) one box after each reason.

	Very Much	Some	Very Little
a. Not enough money to go to vocational/ technical school or college . . . .			
b. Lack of information about jobs . . . .			
c. My race . . . . .			
d. My sex . . . . .			
e. Didn't want to move away from friends or family . . . . .			
f. Not smart enough . . . . .			
g. The schools I have gone to . . . . .			
h. Lack of good job opportunities where I grew up . . . . .			
i. Lack of chance to develop leadership qualities when I was growing up . .			
j. Lack of parents' interest and encouragement . . . . .			
k. Good jobs are getting too scarce in the USA . . . . .			
l. No vocational/technical school or college nearby . . . . .			
m. Didn't know the right people . . . . .			
n. The effort or work it would have taken to find the right job . . . .			
o. Family responsibilities . . . . .			
p. Something else (tell what it is) . . .			

Check here if the question does not apply to you.

16. How far have you gone in school?

- 1. left before finishing 8th grade
- 2. finished 8th grade
- 3. finished 8th grade and went to a trade or vocational/technical school
- 4. some high school
- 5. finished high school
- 6. finished high school and went to a trade or vocational/technical school or business college
- 7. started college but have not finished
- 8. finished junior or community college (2 years)
- 9. finished college (4 years)
- 0. went beyond college (graduate or professional school)

17. Are you still in school?

- 1. no
- 2. yes

18. List all the education or training you have had in addition to that above (such as short courses, on-the-job training, etc.).

---

---

---

---

---

19. How much have the following things kept you from getting the EDUCATION or TRAINING you really wanted?

Check (✓) one box after each reason.

	Very Much	Some	Very Little
a. Not enough money for training or school . . . . .			
b. Lack of information about educational opportunities . . . . .			
c. My race . . . . .			
d. My sex . . . . .			
e. Didn't want to move away from friends or family . . . . .			
f. Not smart enough . . . . .			
g. The schools I have gone to . . . . .			
h. Lack of job training opportunities where I grew up . . . . .			
i. Lack of chance to develop leadership qualities when I was growing up . . . . .			
j. Lack of parents' interest and encouragement . . . . .			
k. No vocational/technical school or college nearby . . . . .			
l. Didn't know the right people . . . . .			
m. The effort or work it would have taken to get the education or training . . . . .			
n. Family responsibilities . . . . .			
o. Something else (tell what it is) . . . . .			

Check here if the question does not apply to you.

**YOUR SATISFACTION WITH WORK**

Now that you've described your present situation, we'd like to know how satisfied you are with it.

20. How satisfied are you with different things about your present or usual job?  
Check (✓) one box after each reason.

When your work is homemaker/housewife, answer as a homemaker/housewife.

	Very Satisfied	Somewhat Satisfied	Not Important To Me	Dis-satisfied
a. It gives me the chance to make a lot of money . . . . .				
b. It gives me the chance to be an important person . . . . .				
c. It provides exciting and interesting work . . . . .				
d. It gives me steady employment . . . . .				
e. It is in a location that I like . . . . .				
f. It gives me a chance to help other people . . . . .				
g. It gives me a chance to be my own boss . . . . .				
h. It gives me the amount of physical work that I like . . . . .				
i. It gives me a chance to use my mind . . . . .				
j. Something else (tell what it is) . . . . .				

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

Check here if the question does not apply to you.



21. Taking all things together, how do you feel about your job as a whole?

- 1. very satisfied
- 2. somewhat satisfied
- 3. somewhat dissatisfied
- 4. very dissatisfied

Check here if the question does not apply to you.

22. Taking all things together, how satisfied are you with the amount of money you are making?

- 1. very satisfied
- 2. somewhat satisfied
- 3. somewhat dissatisfied
- 4. very dissatisfied

Check here if you are still in school and can't say.

23. Considering all the jobs you have had since you left school, how satisfied are you with your work experience so far?

- 1. very satisfied
- 2. somewhat satisfied
- 3. somewhat dissatisfied
- 4. very dissatisfied

Check here if the question does not apply to you.

24. Below is a picture of a ladder. Suppose we say that the top of the ladder represents the best possible job for you in the long run, and the bottom represents the worst possible job for you in the long run. At what step on the ladder would you put your present or usual job and the job you think you will have five years from now? Answer each question shown below.

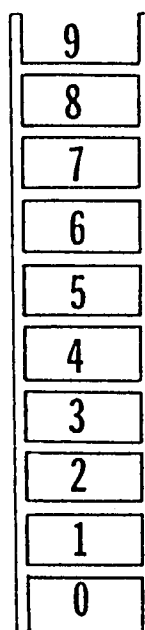
At what step on the ladder would you say you are at the present time?

STEP NUMBER

At what step on the ladder do you think you will be five (5) years from now?

STEP NUMBER

BEST POSSIBLE JOB  
IN THE LONG RUN



WORST POSSIBLE JOB  
IN THE LONG RUN

**YOUR SATISFACTION WITH EDUCATION**

25. How satisfied are you with how far you have gone in school?

- \_\_\_ 1. very satisfied  
 \_\_\_ 2. somewhat satisfied  
 \_\_\_ 3. somewhat dissatisfied  
 \_\_\_ 4. very dissatisfied

26. How satisfied are you with various parts of your HIGH SCHOOL EDUCATION?  
 Check (✓) one box after each reason.

	Very Satisfied	Somewhat Satisfied	Somewhat Dis-satisfied	Very Dis-satisfied
a. Basic academic subjects (math, science, English, etc.) offered . . . . .				
b. Practical work experience offered . . . . .				
c. Vocational and technical programs offered . . . . .				
d. Variety of elective courses offered . . . . .				
e. Counseling to help me decide what to do after high school . . . . .				
f. Attention given to my needs as an individual . . . . .				
g. How good the teachers were . . . . .				
h. Sports, clubs, and other extra-curricular activities . . . . .				
i. Equipment and library/media resources . . . . .				
j. Something else (tell what it is) . . . . .				

Check here if the question does not apply to you.

27. Taking all things together, how do you feel about your high school education?

- \_\_\_ 1. very satisfied
- \_\_\_ 2. somewhat satisfied
- \_\_\_ 3. somewhat dissatisfied
- \_\_\_ 4. very dissatisfied

Check here if the question does not apply to you.

28. Taking all things together, how satisfied are you with yourself in how well you took advantage of what your high school offered?

- \_\_\_ 1. very satisfied
- \_\_\_ 2. somewhat satisfied
- \_\_\_ 3. somewhat dissatisfied
- \_\_\_ 4. very dissatisfied

Check here if the question does not apply to you.

29. When you were growing up, how much education did your parent(s) encourage you to get?

- \_\_\_ 1. They urged me to finish high school.
- \_\_\_ 2. They urged me to go beyond high school.
- \_\_\_ 3. They never said much about it.
- \_\_\_ 4. They felt that I would be better off going to work.

**YOUR SATISFACTION WITH OTHER THINGS**

30. If you are married, answer this question.

Some people rate their marriage as happy and some as unhappy. Taking all things together, how would you describe your marriage?

- \_\_\_ 1. very happy
- \_\_\_ 2. a little happier than average
- \_\_\_ 3. just about average
- \_\_\_ 4. not too happy
- \_\_\_ 5. unhappy

31. How satisfied are you with the following aspects of where you are living?

	Very Satisfied	Somewhat Satisfied	Somewhat Dis-satisfied	Very Dis-satisfied
a. How close it is to where I grew up . . . . .				
b. The size of the community I'm living in . . . . .				
c. My living arrangement (such as alone, with husband or wife, parents, others, etc.) . . . . .				
d. Quality of my housing . . . . .				

We've been asking you about satisfaction with jobs, education, etc. Now we'd like to ask how you feel about your life as a whole.

32. Below is a picture of a ladder. Suppose we say that the top of the ladder represents the best possible life for you, and the bottom represents the worst possible life for you. Think for a minute about what would be the best possible life and the worst possible life for you personally. Considering the things you've thought about, where on the ladder would you place yourself in the past, the present, and in the future? Answer each question shown below.

a. At what step on the ladder would you say you are at the present time?

STEP NUMBER

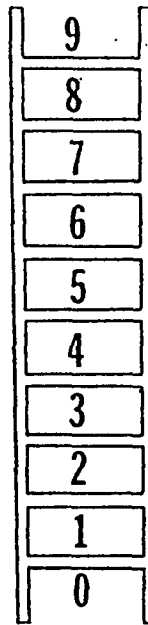
b. At what step on the ladder would you say you were five (5) years ago?

STEP NUMBER

c. At what step on the ladder do you think you will be five (5) years from now?

STEP NUMBER

BEST POSSIBLE LIFE FOR YOU



WORST POSSIBLE LIFE FOR YOU

**YOUR GOALS FOR THE FUTURE**

33. If you could choose any job you wanted, what kind of job would you really like to have in the future? (Describe clearly what you would do.)

---



---

34. What kind of job do you think you really will have in the future? (Describe clearly what you would do.)

---



---

35. Looking into the future, which of the following statements best describes how much additional education and training you would really like to have?

- 1. go to a trade or vocational/technical school
- 2. finish high school
- 3. finish high school and go to a trade or vocational/technical school or business college
- 4. finish high school and go to college
- 5. finish college (4 years)
- 6. go beyond college (graduate or professional school)
- 7. take short courses or training
- 8. don't really want any further education or training

36. Looking into the future, which of the following statements best describes how much additional education and training you think you really will get?

- 1. go to a trade or vocational/technical school
- 2. finish high school
- 3. finish high school and go to a trade or vocational/technical school or business college
- 4. finish high school and go to college
- 5. finish college (4 years)
- 6. go beyond college (graduate or professional school)
- 7. take short courses or training
- 8. don't think I will get any further education or training

37. Whose advice is most helpful to you?

Check (✓) all who are important for advice about jobs or education

- 1. wife or husband
- 2. boyfriend or girlfriend
- 3. mother
- 4. father
- 5. brother or sister
- 6. other relative
- 7. friends
- 8. teacher or counselor
- 9. someone else

Check (✓) all who are important for advice about personal or family matters

- 1. wife or husband
- 2. boyfriend or girlfriend
- 3. mother
- 4. father
- 5. brother or sister
- 6. other relative
- 7. friends
- 8. teacher or counselor
- 9. someone else

38. If you have never been married, how old do you think you will be when you get married? \_\_\_\_\_

Check here if you don't think you will ever marry.

Check here if you are now married or have been married.

39. Counting any children you may now have, how many children would you like to have in all?

- \_\_\_ 1. none
- \_\_\_ 2. 1 or 2
- \_\_\_ 3. 3 or 4
- \_\_\_ 4. 5 or more

40. Looking into the future, in what part of the country or world would you like to live? Check (✓) one.

- \_\_\_ 1. my present community or very nearby
- \_\_\_ 2. somewhere else in the state
- \_\_\_ 3. another state near here
- \_\_\_ 4. a different part of the USA
- \_\_\_ 5. some other country

41. Looking into the future, in what type of community would you rather live?

- \_\_\_ 1. in the open country or a small town (under 10,000 people)
- \_\_\_ 2. in a big town or small city (10,000-49,999 people)
- \_\_\_ 3. in a big city or its suburbs (50,000 and up)
- \_\_\_ 4. in the country near a big city or its suburbs (50,000 and up)

42. Think back to four years ago, the spring of 1975, and what your life's plans were at that time. How would you say things are working out?

- \_\_\_ 1. better than I had hoped
- \_\_\_ 2. about the same as I had hoped
- \_\_\_ 3. worse than I had hoped

43. Some people tell us that a major happening has caused them to change their life plans. Has anything happened in your life, or your family's life, in the last four (4) years or so that has changed your educational or job plans in a very important way?

- \_\_\_ 1. no
- \_\_\_ 2. yes--if you can, tell what it was and how it changed your plans.

---



---

YOUR OPINIONS
---------------

The next questions have to do with what you think about certain things. There are no right or wrong answers. We just want to know what statement in each item is closest to your opinion.

44. What do you think a married woman should do about working outside the home? Check (✓) the one that comes closest to what you think.
1. She shouldn't work at all unless her husband is not able to work.
2. She should work only if she has no children or all the children are in high school.
3. It is all right for her to work, as long as her children are in school.
4. It is all right for her to work, as long as she has a good child care arrangement.
5. The children are the husband's as much as hers; she should be able to work if she wants to.
45. Nowadays, a person has to live pretty much for today and let tomorrow take care of itself.
1. agree
2. disagree
46. All a man should want out of life is steady work that is not too hard and enough pay to afford a nice car and home.
1. agree
2. disagree
47. In spite of what some people say, the life of the average person is getting worse not better.
1. agree
2. disagree
48. When a person is born, the success he is going to have is already in the cards, so he might just as well accept it and not fight against it.
1. agree
2. disagree
49. These days a person doesn't really know whom he can count on.
1. agree
2. disagree
50. The secret of happiness is not expecting too much out of life and being content with what comes your way.
1. agree
2. disagree
51. It's hardly fair to bring children into the world with the way things look for the future.
1. agree
2. disagree



52. Nothing is worth the sacrifice of moving away from one's parents.

- 1. agree
- 2. disagree

53. There's little use in writing to public officials because often they aren't really interested in the problems of the average person.

- 1. agree
- 2. disagree

54. A good son would try to live near his parents even if it means giving up a good job in another part of the country.

- 1. agree
- 2. disagree

55. Planning only makes a person unhappy since your plans hardly ever work out anyway.

- 1. agree
- 2. disagree

56. Nowadays with world conditions the way they are, the wise person lives for today and lets tomorrow take care of itself.

- 1. agree
- 2. disagree

57. How do you feel about each of the following statements? Check (✓) one box beside each statement.

	Agree Strongly	Agree	Disagree	Disagree Strongly
a. I take a positive attitude toward myself . . . . .				
b. Good luck is more important than hard work for success . . . . .				
c. I feel I am a person of worth, on an equal plane with others . . . . .				
d. I am able to do things as well as most other people . . . . .				
e. Every time I try to get ahead, something or somebody stops me . . . . .				
f. People who accept their condition in life are happier than those who try to change things . . . . .				
g. On the whole, I'm satisfied with myself . . . . .				



APPENDIX D

RESPONDENT TRACKING PROCEDURES

## RESPONDENT TRACKING PROCEDURES

In the 1979 10-year follow-up, tracking procedures initially were based on mail questionnaire. The procedure for locating respondents relied on address maintenance; and failing to secure a response, telephone contact was utilized for non-respondents. From the 1975 survey, addresses were recorded for respondents, along with parents' full name and home phone numbers. Prior to the 1979 mailing, respondents were sent a newsletter with a postcard for name and address correction and/or verification. The initial newsletter included a postcard and was personalized with the subject's name being handwritten. The researchers' location where the subject was to return the postcard was on the front flap of the newsletter. The newsletter contained information as to the history of subject contact, some findings from the initial phase of the study and the request for verification of present address and phone number.

Following the mail procedure, local contacts in the communities were used to locate the "hard to find individuals" and attempts were made to secure a completed questionnaire. Local contacts in the survey areas attempted to verify current addresses through school personnel and records, old classmates, the post office, telephone office, voting records, and local churches. In one state radio announcements were attempted in an effort to locate non-respondents.

Once the respondent was located, a letter on University letter-head hand signed by the researcher, and a questionnaire booklet were mailed to the subject. Following the sending of the questionnaire booklet, a mail reminder postcard was sent. In the last phase of the follow-up procedure, local interviewers telephoned the respondents to ascertain if the questionnaire had been received and then encouraged completion of the questionnaire. For a detailed description of respondent tracking procedures refer to Shoffner (1980).