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ASPIRATIONS OF URBAN BLACK COLLEGE STUDENTS.
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SEX DIFFERENCES IN THE OCCUPATIONAL ASPIRATIONS
OF URBAN BLACK COLLEGE STUDENTS

by

CAROLE GREVIOUS

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Abstract

SEX DIFFERENCES IN THE OCCUPATIONAL ASPIRATIONS
OF URBAN BLACK COLLEGE STUDENTS

by

Carole Grevious

Adviser: Professor Irwin Katz

The study focused on the occupational aspirations of urban black college students. Specifically, the objectives were (1) to determine if males' occupational aspirations were significantly more prestigious than females', (2) to test whether parental education, grade point average, perception of parental reinforcement, satisfaction with faculty, prestige of friends' aspirations, peer press for achievement and self concept of ability were predictors of occupational aspirations and, (3) to determine the usefulness of these predictors for explaining sex differences in career goals.

The sample consisted of 259 black juniors and seniors (132 females and 127 males) who were enrolled in institutions of higher education in New York City. The sample was selected from Lehman College, City College, Queens College, Columbia College, Barnard College and New York University. All of the subjects completed the 52 item Student Information Questionnaire which solicited information about students' back-

grounds, future goals, attitudes and experiences. Using a counterbalanced order two black experimenters, one female and one male administered the questionnaire during class time.

The data were analyzed by t tests, zero order correlations, chi squares and multiple regressions. As predicted, male students reported occupational aspirations which were significantly more prestigious than those reported by females. Analysis of the data by college showed that Columbia males reported significantly more prestigious goals than their counterparts at Barnard. Differences at the other institutions were in the predicted direction but were not significant. Sex differences were obtained in terms of the fields which the students planned to enter. Males were more likely than females to aspire to careers in medicine, law and business. The opposite was true of careers in teaching, nursing and social work. However, examination of students' educational aspirations did not yield significant sex differences.

The relationships between the dependent variable and the independent variables were examined by zero order correlations and multiple regressions. The zero order correlations showed that grade point average, prestige of friends' aspirations, peer press for achievement and self concept of ability were correlated with the prestige of occupational aspirations. With the total sample and males, perception of parental reinforcement was correlated with occupational prestige. Yet, the multiple regressions indicated that grade point average, prestige of friends' aspirations and peer press for achievement were the only consistent predictors of occupational prestige.

The differential performance of males and females on the independent variables was not very helpful in explaining sex differences in

in occupational aspirations. In the total sample no significant differences were obtained on parental education, perception of parental reinforcement, satisfaction with faculty, peer press for achievement, grade point average and self concept of ability. The prestige of friends' aspirations was the only predictor where males surpassed females.

Suggestions for future research dealing with the explanation of sex differences in occupational aspirations were made. Moreover, suggestions for future research which focused on the aspirations of black females were proposed and discussed.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTSvii

LIST OF TABLES ix

CHAPTER I. INTRODUCTION 1

 Theoretical Framework 2

 Sex Differences in Achievement and Aspirations 5

 The Acceptance of Sex Role Stereotypes 10

 Socioeconomic Status and Occupational Aspirations.... 12

 Parental Influence on Behavior 14

 Sex Differences in Perception of
 Parental Reinforcement 16

 Faculty Influence on Students 18

 Peer Influence on Students 24

 Grades and Occupational Aspirations 26

 Self Concept of Ability and Occupational Aspirations. 27

 Predictions 28

CHAPTER II. METHOD 35

CHAPTER III. RESULTS 41

CHAPTER IV. DISCUSSION 76

APPENDIX THE STUDENT INFORMATION QUESTIONNAIRE 92

BIBLIOGRAPHY 99

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1	Sex Differences in Predictor Variables (Total Sample)..... 42
2	Sex Differences in Predictor Variables (Seniors)..... 43
3	Sex Differences in Predictor Variables (Juniors)..... 44
4	Sex Differences in Occupational Aspirations..... 45
5	Sex Differences in Occupational Aspirations by College..... 47
6	Sex Differences in Occupational Aspirations by College and Grades..... 48
7	Sex Differences in Occupational Aspirations by College and Year in School..... 49
8	Sex Differences in Selected Occupations..... 51
9	Sex Differences in Educational Aspirations..... 52
10	Product Moment Correlations Between Parents' Education and Occupational Aspirations..... 53
11	Product Moment Correlations Between Parents' Education and Social Influence Variables..... 54
12	Product Moment Correlations Between Occupational Aspirations and Social Influence Variables..... 56
13	Product Moment Correlations Between Self Concept of Ability and Social Influence Variables..... 58
14	Summary of Multiple Regression of Independent Variables on Prestige of Occupational Choices for Total Sample N=199..61
15	Summary Data of Multiple Regression of Independent Variables on Prestige of Occupational Choice for Total Sample..... 62
16	Partial Correlation Coefficients Between Independent Variables and Occupational Choice for Total Sample..... 65
17	Summary of Multiple Regression of Independent Variables on Prestige of Occupational Choices for Males N=80..... 66

Table	Page
18	Summary Data of Multiple Regression of Independent Variables on Prestige of Occupational Choices for Males..... 67
19	Partial Correlations Between Independent Variables and Occupational Choices for Males..... 69
20	Summary of Multiple Regression of Independent Variables on Prestige of Occupational Choices for Males..... 70
21	Summary Data of Multiple Regression of Independent Variables on Prestige of Occupational Choices for Females..... 71
22	Partial Correlations Between Independent Variables and Occupational Choices for Females..... 72
23	Percentage of Black Undergraduates Attending Designated Colleges in Fall 1977..... 77

CHAPTER I.

INTRODUCTION

A large amount of research indicates that white women achieve at significantly lower levels than white men. However, some social scientists (Bernard, 1966; Bock, 1969; Coble, 1971; Moynihan, 1965) have maintained that the pattern is reversed for blacks. For example, Coble stated that the black female has historically been given more of an opportunity than the black male to advance educationally and occupationally. Furthermore, Bernard contended that black females demonstrate "unnatural superiority" with regard to achievement and general societal adjustment. However, the evidence that these assertions consistently apply is weak.

If specific attention is focused on the occupational aspirations of black college students, the limited available findings indicate the reverse. Fichter (1967) reported that black females who had just completed college frequently indicated that they would enter teaching, social work or nursing, while the males mentioned business fields, medicine and the sciences. Gurin and Katz (1966) found that black male college students' occupational aspirations were more nontraditional for blacks, more prestigious and more demanding of ability than black females' aspirations. Gurin and Epps (1975) obtained similar findings with their sample of students who were enrolled in college in 1970.

Despite the fact that research on sex differences in the educational and occupational status of whites has proliferated over the last decade, a similar claim cannot be made concerning parallel research with blacks. In light of the datedness of the limited research, as well as

a number of unanswered questions concerning the variables which are related to these differences, a need for new research is clearly indicated.

The present study is concerned with re-examining sex differences in the occupational aspirations of black college students. In addition, considerable attention is directed at identifying some of the social psychological and personality variables which are related to sex differences in career choice.

Theoretical Framework

Identification of the antecedents of career choice has been a topic of theoretical investigation for sometime. Roe (1957) postulated that work choice is a function of orientation toward or not toward people, which in turn stems from early childhood familial experiences. Rosenberg (1957) identified the individual's personal values as influential in vocational decisions. Super (1963) related stages of vocational development to the implementation of the self concept. Holland (1973) identified six personality types which are characterized by a distinctive orientation to the world in general and work in particular.

The focus of other writers has been placed upon the influence which significant others have on the individual's occupational choice. Blau and Duncan (1967) presented a model which focused on the occupational attainment process of white males. Emphasis was placed on the individual's early social status as determined by the father's educational status. In addition, the model included the individual's educational level as well as the prestige level of the individual's first job.

Sewell, Haller and Portes (1969) maintained that Blau and Duncan's

model was incomplete, inasmuch as it omitted social psychological variables which mediated the influence of the input variables on occupational attainment. Sewell, Haller and Portes presented what was termed a social psychological model of the educational and occupational attainment process of white males. The writers theorized that predetermined social structural variables such as socioeconomic status and mental ability affect the youth's academic performance and the influence significant others have on him; the individual's aspirations are directly influenced by significant others' influence and possibly by his academic performance. Finally, educational and occupational aspirations affect actual attainment.

Sewell, Haller and Ohlendorf's (1970) model differs from the earlier one in that socioeconomic status' influence on academic performance was deleted, while the direct effect of academic performance on aspirations was emphasized. As stated earlier socioeconomic status was presented as influencing occupational attainment through its affect on significant others. The writers stated that the higher one's socioeconomic position, the higher would be the socioeconomic position of significant others with whom he interacts. Thus, such an individual would be more likely than someone from a lower socioeconomic position to receive signals indicating expectancies for high socioeconomic status.

Significant others were presented by Sewell, Haller and Ohlendorf (1970) as directly influencing the prestige of students' occupational goals. The writers' rationale for emphasizing significant others was drawn from the literature which demonstrates that individuals obtain social behavior tendencies largely from reference groups.

The writers contended that significant others, namely parents, teachers and peers exert influence through their status expectancies for students. Sewell, Haller and Ohlendorf's model also includes the direct influence of the student's academic performance on the prestige of occupational aspirations inasmuch as this performance (a) provides the individual with an objective assessment of his chances for entering various occupational fields and (b) is the basis upon which significant others form their expectancies.

That portion of the above model which deals with the development of occupational aspirations is used for the present study. Moreover, socioeconomic status and self concept of ability are included as direct determinants of aspirations. In addition to examining the indirect influence of socioeconomic status on occupational goals, the direct relationship between socioeconomic status and the prestige of occupational goals is examined. In support of this, a body of research which will be presented later demonstrates the relationship between socioeconomic background and the prestige of one's occupational goals.

Turning to self concept of ability, there is sound basis for maintaining that its inclusion will enhance the model. Psychological theory which will be discussed later, states that self perceptions of ability can impair or facilitate achievement strivings. Also, although Sewell, Haller and Ohlendorf (1970) include academic performance in their model, self concept of ability is not its equivalent. The addition of self concept of ability to the framework is further supported by the writers' suggestion that new research which focuses on the determinants of occupational choices might well include personality variables.

Much of the research which has tested the model of Sewell and associates has been conducted with white high school students. Examination of the appropriateness of this and other theoretical frameworks for explaining the occupational aspirations of black male and female college students has not been sufficiently researched.

The purpose of the proposed study is to examine sex differences in the occupational aspirations of black college students and to determine the usefulness of a portion of the Sewell et al. model for explaining any sex differences that are observed.

Sex Differences in Achievement and Aspirations

According to Moynihan (1965), the relatively poor academic performance of black males begins in the early school years. As confirming evidence he cited the greater frequency of black female students than males on honor rolls as well as the greater tendency of black males than females in grade school to be one or two years behind their proper grade. On the basis of actual comparisons of performance scores, others reached the same conclusion concerning sex differences in achievement. Additional research (Deutsch, 1960; Baughman, 1972) indicates that at the elementary school level, black females surpassed males in arithmetic and reading.

This pattern of early male underachievement is not confined to blacks. Evidence reported by several researchers (Anastasi, 1967; Garai & Scheinfeld, 1965; Maccoby, 1966) indicates that within the white population, females' scholastic superiority is demonstrated from early childhood through early adolescence. This pattern has frequently been attributed to the relationship between feminine personality traits and the requirements of the early school experience. However, the litera-

ture indicates that white females' academic superiority is impermanent. During high school, white males take and maintain the lead in educational and occupational goals and attainments. Parallel research which has been conducted with black junior and senior high school students has not always revealed results which are consistent with those just mentioned.

Lott and Lott (1963) found that black male high school students reported aspirations for careers in higher level professional and business fields such as medicine, law, business ownership or management more frequently than black females. Other researchers (Gist & Bennett, 1963; Epps, 1969) found that black female high school students had higher aspirations for future husbands than males had for themselves. Sprey's (1962) comparison of the aspirations which black male and female students had for themselves revealed that females surpassed males.

The findings of studies conducted on black college students are at variance with results reported on black high school students. Fichter (1967) compared recent black and white college graduates on occupational goals. The black sample was drawn from predominantly black southern institutions, while white students were selected from the National Opinion Research Center's sample of college graduates of the class of 1964. In terms of occupational goals, regardless of race, males most frequently indicated business fields, physical sciences, medicine and law. On the other hand, females most frequently mentioned the less prestigious areas of teaching, nursing and social work.

Gurin and Katz (1966) and Gurin and Epps (1975) compared the occupational aspirations of black male and female college students attend-

ing predominantly black schools. Males surpassed females with regard to the prestige, ability demands and nontraditionality for blacks of their occupational goals. The sexes also differed on the traits which determined the occupation's desirability. With males desirability was associated with nontraditionality for blacks, prestige and ability demands. However, with females choosing a desirable occupation meant selecting one which was traditional for blacks and not very demanding of ability. Sex differences were not limited to concepts of desirability. Females considered fewer occupations and made their decisions at an earlier age than males.

Data collected by the American Council of Education on female freshmen at Howard University in 1973 and 1974 indicate that black females had nontraditional aspirations more frequently than a national sample of white college females (Gump, 1975). The results show that in 1974, 16 percent of black female freshmen at Howard University and 6 percent of white females from the national sample reported that they wanted to enter medicine or dentistry. Law was chosen by 9 percent of the females at Howard University and 4 percent of the white females from the national sample. Since Gump did not provide any parallel data for males it is not possible to make a statement concerning female aspirations as compared to male. Moreover, Gump's data are based on females enrolled at only one institution, Howard University, so that there is a question as to how representative they are of black female college students in general. In this regard a study by Stanfiel (1976) is relevant. He found that Howard undergraduates surpassed students attending other predominantly black colleges and even a national sample of white students in their desire to enter prestigious and intel-

lectually demanding fields. An additional factor which casts doubt on the generalizability of Gump's findings is the fact that the subjects were freshmen. An investigation of the aspirations of seniors would present more accurate information concerning whether or not significant changes have occurred.

Examination of differences in the professions actually entered by college trained black males and females seems appropriate to this discussion. Moynihan (1965) maintained that black females held a stronger position than males in terms of professional areas. The 1970 census data appear to support Moynihan's contention inasmuch as a greater percentage of black females than males were employed in professional positions. However, black women who were included in this category were concentrated in less prestigious fields such as public school teaching, nursing and social work whereas a higher percentage of males than females were found in accounting, college teaching, medicine and dentistry.

Additional evidence indicates that black males surpass females in higher educational aspirations and attainments. Gurin and Epps (1975) reported that significantly more males than females were planning to obtain graduate degrees. Females felt more unsure than males about beginning doctoral work immediately after college. Their doubts centered around conflicts with males and family responsibilities.

The results of research on sex differences in actual number of degrees received are consistent with sex differences in educational and occupational aspirations. Census data (U.S. Department of Commerce, 1975) reported for 1972 show that among the population of black adults from 25 to 34 a higher percentage of males than females had completed

four or more years of college. Census data reported for 1974 indicate the continuance of the pattern. According to the data 7.6 percent of black females but 8.8 percent of black males from 25 to 34 years old had completed four or more years of college. Edwards (1975) reported that in the Northern and Western regions of the nation a greater percentage of young black male adults than females had completed college. The opposite pattern was observed in the South; however, since 1960 the discrepancy between the sexes in the South has been reduced.

Some research has specifically focused on sex differences in the attainment of graduate degrees. Although Blake (1971) stated that women earned 60 percent of the degrees awarded to blacks, the results of other studies have not borne out these findings. When Plotski (1967) conducted an investigation of the same time period, he found that while more black women received the master's degree, more men earned the doctorate. Furthermore, a study conducted by the Ford Foundation indicated that in the 1967-1968 academic year black females constituted a minority of the recipients of doctorates from predominantly black institutions. According to Epps and Horwze (1971) women accounted for only about one fourth of blacks who had doctorates in the social sciences. Also, they reported that 63 percent of black social science graduate students were male. Epstein (1973) went as far as to assert that if the proportion of black female professionals in areas other than teaching were measured, the fact that females were not surpassing males would be clearly demonstrated. This seems to be supported by 1960 figures (Bock, 1969) which show that 9.7 percent of black doctors and 9 percent of black lawyers were female. These findings are significant in that they indicate that sex differences in edu-

cational aspirations and attainment patterns among blacks are similar to those demonstrated by whites.

The reported literature indicates that some researchers' (Bernard, 1966; Bock, 1969; Coble, 1971; Moynihan, 1965) assertion that black females surpass their male counterparts is not accurate. When variables such as aspirations for and receipt of higher degrees, presence in higher echelon positions and level of occupational aspirations are utilized as measures of achievement, it becomes clear that the black female who is college trained has not fared as well as many writers have assumed.

The Acceptance of Sex Role Stereotypes

The literature which deals with females' acceptance of sex role stereotypes is relevant here because of the influence of these stereotypes on future plans. Gump (1972a) found that self oriented college women planned to enter doctoral programs significantly more frequently than other oriented women.

Steinman and Fox (1970) used the Maferr Inventory of Female Values to assess the sex role attitudes of black and white female undergraduates. The scale taps family achieving and self achieving orientations. White and black women reported elements of both. However, Gump's (1972b) comparison of the sex role attitudes of white and black college female students showed that blacks adopted the more traditional family centered role to the same extent that they adopted the self striving orientation whereas self orientation was more characteristic of white women than the family centered orientation. Black women were more likely than white women to define themselves in terms of their husbands.

It is likely that the women's movement has affected females. However, its effects on white women are probably greater than on black women. Carden (1974) reported that recruitment has been more successful with whites than blacks. A very small percentage of black women attend meetings and conferences and serve in national leadership positions. The conflict between the black liberation and feminist movements is probably partially responsible for black females' limited involvement. According to Carden (1974), in the 1960's black women were infrequently considered for leadership roles in black organizations. If the current representation of black women is indicative of their involvement in high level decision making, they do not appear to be very involved. Relatively few of them are currently found in leadership positions. Only a small minority of the Congressional Black Caucus are female.

Black women appear to be subject to social constraints which impede their entrance into prestigious fields. Occupations which black female college students evaluated as personally desirable were neither very challenging of ability nor viewed as being particularly prestigious (Gurin & Katz, 1966; Gurin & Epps, 1975). Moreover, female students considered fewer occupations, chose them earlier and were less likely than males to alter their decisions. The contention that black females' goals are negatively affected by sex role constraints has also been set forth by several researchers (Beale, 1970; Epstein, 1973; Jackson, 1971; Sedlachneck, 1974) all of whom point out that black women face the double negation of racism and sexism.

In summary, black females' aspirations appear to be impaired by race and sex. Inasmuch as they are in the labor force in such large

numbers, it seems that sex role stereotypes influence them at the point of occupational choice rather than at the point of deciding whether or not to work.

Socioeconomic Status

It is generally agreed that one's family status influences social mobility. Some research (Cramer et al., 1965; Bennett & Gist, 1964; Sewell & Shah, 1968) which was conducted on white high school students identified social class as a correlate of educational and occupational plans. Additional research conducted on white college males (Rosenberg, 1957; Werts, 1968) obtained similar results.

The relationship between socioeconomic status and white female college students' occupational aspirations is inconsistent. Some evidence (Gysbers, Johnson & Gust, 1968) indicates that the variables are positively related. Other studies (Zwisis, 1964; Siegel & Curtis, 1963) fail to demonstrate a positive relationship between socioeconomic status and females' aspirations.

Turning to black students, the literature shows that socioeconomic status has an impact upon students. The results of a few studies (Bennett & Gist, 1964; Cramer et al., 1965; Epps, 1969) demonstrate a positive relationship between socioeconomic status and high school students future plans.

At the college level Gurin & Epps (1975) reported that the prestige, ability demands and nontraditionality of black male freshmen's occupational aspirations were positively related to level of parental education. With male seniors, the nontraditionality of the aspirations was related to socioeconomic background. The results are not as straightforward with females. Although students from the poorest homes had less

prestigious goals than students from the most affluent families, black female freshmen with the most prestigious aspirations came from families with moderate rather high incomes and had fathers who completed high school or attended college without graduating. Socioeconomic background was not related to the prestige or ability demands of male and female seniors' occupational aspirations. In explanation of this finding one possibility is that college actually diminishes the importance of socioeconomic background. However, this writer questions whether this result would be obtained with a sample where a larger proportion of the students came from families that are middle class by traditional standards rather than by those typically used to classify blacks.

For the most part, research which has examined the relationship between socioeconomic status and white students' future goals demonstrates the important role played by social background. However, the results seem more consistent for males than females. One difficulty with the literature on white females is that the same dependent variable was not always used. Some researchers utilized marriage or career orientation while others used traditionality of the chosen fields. The relationship between socioeconomic status and occupational aspirations has also been demonstrated by black students. However, available research on college students is far too limited. In light of the current status of the literature, additional study is indicated.

Thus far the direct relationship between socioeconomic status and occupational aspirations has been discussed. Sewell, Haller and Ohlendorf (1970) discussed an indirect mechanism of influence. In their model emphasis was placed on the importance of significant

others' influence on the development of goals and plans. Moreover, the writers stated that socioeconomic status directly affects significant others' influence. They reasoned that the higher one's socioeconomic status, the higher will be the socioeconomic status of significant others with whom he interacts. Thus an individual of high status will be more likely than someone from a lower socioeconomic background to have significant others to emulate who have (a) succeeded occupationally and educationally and (b) conveyed signals suggesting high expectancies for the person. Research can be cited which demonstrates the relationship between socioeconomic status and significant others' influence. Rehberg and Westby (1967) focused on the importance of social variables on students' educational expectancies. Students' expectancies were influenced by paternal encouragement. Moreover, a positive relationship between social class and parental encouragement was shown. Additional support for the importance of social class on significant others' influence was provided by Sewell and Shah (1968). Parental encouragement contributed to the explanation of social class differences in aspirations. Bordua (1960) found that students' plans for higher education were affected by associated social status differences in terms of the stress which parents placed on higher education.

Parental Influence on Behavior

It has been shown that parental encouragement relates to offspring's aspirations and attainments. It must be noted that although researchers have not always dealt with the same aspect of parental behavior, the examined areas are similar enough to be included under the same generic category. Looking first at white students, Brookover (1962) reported a positive correlation between seventh grade students'

perceptions of parental views of their ability and actual school achievement. Other research (Cramer et al., 1965; Sewell & Shah, 1968) found that parental support for education related positively to high school students' plans to attend college. Moreover, some studies (Sewell, Haller & Portes, 1969; Sewell, Haller & Ohlendorf, 1970; Picou et al., 1974) reported a positive relationship between parental encouragement to attend college and the prestige of high school students' occupational goals.

At the college level, Katz (1969) reported that parental press to succeed differentiated college females with traditional goals from females with nontraditional aspirations. Nagely (1971) found that white female college graduates who worked in nontraditional areas reported that their fathers approved of women outside of the home significantly more often than women who were working in traditional fields.

Turning to blacks, Katz (1967) found that black male but not black female high achieving grade school children reported more positive reinforcement experiences with their parents than low achieving students. Epps (1969) reported that parental satisfaction with grades was the background variable which was most significantly related to academic achievement. With regard to occupational goals, Picou et al. (1974) reported that the prestige of black high school seniors' occupational goals was positively related to parental influence to attend college. The results were stronger with males than females.

Gurin and Katz (1966) assessed the effect of parental influence on college and occupational decisions. High perception of parental influence on both decisions was positively related to occupational choices that were highly desirable in females' eyes but neither very

prestigious nor challenging of ability. Thus mother's influence seemed to encourage entering fields traditionally selected by women.

No significant results were obtained with male and female seniors. In explanation, one possibility is that parents have a reduced effect upon their children as the college experience proceeds. However, it is also possible that as students get older they become less likely to acknowledge parental influence when they are asked direct questions such as "How important was each parent in your decision of what occupation to enter? In support of that point Leland (1965) found that despite white females' denial of the importance of parental influence, a significant relationship was obtained between parental desires and students' occupational choices.

A good portion of the literature shows that parental encouragement is related to offspring's performance. However, Gurin and Katz (1966) found that parental influence was not related to advanced level black students' occupational goals. In light of the proposed explanation presented above it is likely that parents influence their children's choices. In the current study instead of posing direct questions concerning parental influence, questions which obtain information about students' perceptions of parental reinforcement history are used.

Sex Differences in Parental Support

In view of empirical evidence which indicates that parental encouragement relates to student's performance, it is appropriate to determine whether or not disparities exist in the socialization of black males and females. Crandall (1969) stated that sex differences in academic expectancies might be attributed to males' generally more positive reinforcement history. Conversely, there are researchers who

maintain that black males experience more negative and less positive reinforcement than their female counterparts.

According to Pettigrew (1964) many black women perpetuate the matricentric nature of the family by being primarily interested in their female offspring. Females' bitter and frustrating experiences with males were described as being partially responsible for generating negative responses to males. Silberman (1964) argued that the black woman's hatred of her male counterpart is demonstrated by her differential treatment of male and female children. The sons are viewed as being capable of taking care of themselves, whereas the daughters are prepared so that their lives will not parallel those of their mothers.

Some writers maintained that differential treatment of the sexes underlies disparities in college attendance. Broom and Glenn (1965) have stated that black parents perceive college as being a better investment for females than males, since educated women face less discrimination than men in the job market. According to Coble (1971), particularly in low SES families, the emphasis has been on educating the black female. In a similar vein, Grier and Cobbs (1966) have stated that although black parents push their female offspring to remain in school, they behave oppositely with their male children. Grier and Cobbs as well as Bernard (1966) have suggested that black parents encourage and make sacrifices for their female children because they view higher education as one of very few alternatives for minimizing the likelihood of their daughters' sexual and physical exploitation.

However, it can be seen that assertions concerning sex differ-

ences in academic socialization are not well supported by research. Grier and Cobbs' conclusion that black females receive preferential treatment is questionable inasmuch as it was based on a relatively small number of case studies. Despite the authors' conclusion that the cases revealed much about the black experience, the generalizability of the findings to the larger black population is dubious.

When Turner & Turner (1971) compared black males and females on socialization for achievement they failed to obtain significant differences between the sexes on the age at which they first received parental encouragement to attend college and the extent to which parents urged them to lower their educational and occupational goals. Furthermore, several researchers (Broom & Glenn, 1965; Pettigrew, 1964; Silberman, 1964) have merely inferred that females received preferential treatment from the fact that a greater percentage of black females than males were enrolled in college. Although census figures which were available when these works were written show black females surpassing black males, the 1974 census data show a higher percentage of black males than females enrolled in college. Also, the data show that 8.8 percent of black males but only 7.6 percent of black females between the ages of 25 and 34 had completed four or more years of college.

Thus the literature indicates that the assertion of preferential treatment for females is not well supported. In fact, recent statistics on male and female college enrollment patterns suggest just the opposite. In light of the ambiguity of the cited literature, new research is needed.

Faculty Influence on Students

A body of literature indicates that teachers exercise social in-

fluence on the educational and occupational decisions of students. Pallone & Hurley (1973) found that white and black female high school students ranked a teacher as the third most influential person affecting occupational expectations. Evidence that faculty members influence college students' occupational decisions comes from several sources. Davis (1964) found that white college students who were sampled from 135 colleges and universities reported that college instructors were almost as important as parents in determining their career decisions. Almquist and Angrist (1971) found that white female college students who were career salient reported that their occupational decisions had been influenced by faculty members. According to Tangri (1972), faculty members facilitated occupational innovativeness among white female college students.

Some researchers have focused on identifying the components of the faculty student relationship which foster positive faculty influence. Thistlethwaite (1959) found that colleges which were very successful in having their graduates obtain doctorates had faculty members whose relationships with students were characterized by informality and warmth. In a later study Thistlethwaite (1960) reported that increases in white college students' educational aspirations were positively related to faculty evaluations which made the students think they had potential for making contributions to the field. Furthermore, Karman (1973) found that white female college students with nontraditional aspirations reported having more communication with faculty pertaining to vocational and academic interests than female students with more traditional aspirations. In their examination of the occupational aspirations of black college students, Gurin and

Katz (1966) found that amount of interactions between students and faculty correlated with students' aspirations.

Since the subjects in the present study are black students who are enrolled at historically white colleges, it is appropriate to examine the literature which investigated the experiences of black students at such institutions. Centra's (1970) comparison of black and white college students' perceptions of the characteristics of predominantly white colleges included their perceptions of the extent to which faculty members were interested in teaching and in students as individuals. No significant differences were found between the groups. Willie and Levy (1972) obtained different results. Black students who were attending four predominantly white colleges were significantly less trusting of faculty than white students. Among their complaints were being ignored and discriminated against and faculty members' failure to understand them. The students reported that they felt a special closeness to black advisors.

Christensen and Sedlachek (1972) asked faculty members at the University of Maryland to evaluate the undergraduate students. As compared with white students, black students were perceived as being more hard working, more serious, less likely to take pass or fail courses in an attempt to avoid work and less likely to try to remain on the instructor's good side. The veracity of the responses seems questionable for several reasons. Firstly, the researchers encountered the usual problems of partial return rate as well as incomplete questionnaires. Secondly, since blacks constituted only four percent of the student body, there was a question concerning faculty members' exposure to them. This was compounded by the fact that many of the

instructors who participated in the study were on sabbatical or taught graduate courses. In light of these factors, the writers suggested that faculty members might have responded in a socially desirable manner since they were cognizant of the possible impact of their behavior.

Rafty (1973) assessed the attitudes of black and white faculty members toward black college students. Questionnaires were sent to several hundred black and white faculty members at predominantly white colleges and universities outside of the South. Seventy-nine percent of the black faculty and 63 percent of the white faculty responded. A majority of black instructors reported that they gave black students special encouragement and emotional support. Also, white instructors who taught in black studies programs supported and encouraged black students significantly more than white instructors who taught in other areas. Rafty's general conclusion was that in comparison to white instructors, black faculty members showed greater tolerance of black students.

In a somewhat different vein black faculty might be significant for students in that they represent role models. Gurin and Katz (1966) maintained that it is important for black college students particularly those from lower socioeconomic backgrounds to establish personal contact with black faculty members or counselors since it demonstrates that someone from a similar background can succeed.

If the performance of black college students is enhanced by faculty encouragement as well as by the presence of role models, black students may have less of an opportunity than white students to establish relationships with faculty which facilitate high aspirations. Moreover, there is a basis for suggesting that black females fare worse than

black males.

In a survey of colleges and universities in the United States, the Carnegie Commission on Education (1973) reported that black women constituted a considerably greater percentage of all female faculty members than black males did of male faculty. But since women constituted only 27 percent of the total college teaching pool while males occupied 73 percent of the positions, the actual number of black males surpassed the number of black females. As one example of the imbalance between black male and female faculty, Carroll (1973) reported that white males at the University of Pittsburgh were two and one half times more likely than white females to occupy faculty positions, while black males were ten times more likely than black females to be so employed. In addition to being less likely than white students to have instructors of the same race, black females are less likely than black males to have instructors of the same sex. Carroll reported that black females are seldom presented with black women in responsible positions, be they academic or administrative.

This is unfortunate in light of research conducted mostly on white samples which indicates the relationship between number of same sexed instructors and females' performance. On the basis of reports of female undergraduates who were majoring in the natural sciences at a number of institutions, Dement (1962) concluded that the presence of women faculty members was a source of encouragement. Tidball (1973) examined the experiences of white females selected from three editions of Who's Who in America from 1910-1960. At women's and coeducational institutions the number of students classified as high achievers was positively correlated with number of female faculty.

Additional research suggests that females are more susceptible to faculty influence than males. Bernard (1964) found that in comparison to male college students, females' professional choices were significantly more likely to have been influenced by an instructor or counselor. Roby (1972) reported that female students at Stanford University needed special counseling to develop intellectual, artistic and professional ambitions. It was particularly noteworthy that females were greatly influenced by interested males. Even a subtle form of male approval or disapproval provided a significant stimulus for females.

Females' dependence on male faculty has significant implications in light of demonstrations of male faculty members' sex role stereotypes. The Chancellor's Advisory Report (1972) on the status of women at CUNY indicated that female students fared poorer than males in terms of full scale encouragement of professional pursuits. The results of a couple of studies (Lewin & Duchin, 1971; Roby, 1972) suffice to demonstrate the kind of obstacles which females encounter. When mock resumes were submitted to faculty hiring committees primarily made up and chaired by males, male applicants were shown preferential treatment over female applicants with equivalent credentials. No doubt the same sex role stereotypes influence some male faculty members' interactions with female undergraduates.

Apparently, black females have some of the same negative experiences with instructors. On the basis of a study conducted on white sociologists teaching at American colleges and universities, Record (1974) reported that they responded more favorably to black females than to black males. Black females were described as being better prepared and performing better on tests and papers than black males. However, the

faculty indicated that although females should be encouraged to pursue graduate and professional studies, all things being equal preference should go to males.

In summary, the literature indicates that faculty have an effect upon students' educational and occupational goals. Supportive, encouraging relationships with faculty facilitate high goals. Moreover, students' opportunities to interact with faculty who are the same in terms of race and or sex provide role models for them to emulate. In that regard black students fare worse than white students. Black females appear to fare worse than black males inasmuch as they have the additional handicaps of even fewer sex role models and instructors' sex role stereotypes.

Peer Influence on Students

A number of studies demonstrate that students are affected by their peers. Some researchers (Feldman & Newcomb, 1969; Freedman, 1956; Goldsen et al, 1960; Newcomb & Wilson, 1963) have found that what students learn in college is determined in very large measure by their fellow students or more precisely by the norms of behavior, attitudes and values prevailing in the peer group.

Peer influence is not limited to college students. With high school males, a couple of studies (Sewell, Haller & Portes, 1969; Sewell, Haller & Ohlendorf. 1970) report positive relationships between peer encouragement and students' aspirations. In their study of black and white high school seniors, Picou et al. (1974) made a distinction between peer modeling and peer encouragement. Only peer modeling exerted a significant effect upon occupational aspirations. Cramer (1965) found that black and white high school students who reported plans to go to col-

lege had friends who performed well in high school and were either already enrolled in college or were planning to enroll. Potential dropouts reported having friends who were potential dropouts or were performing below average.

At the college level Thistlethwaite (1966) found that white college students' plans for graduate schools were strengthened by association with peers having high educational aspirations. Almquist and Angrist (1971) found that the occupational aspirations of white females were related to those of their friends.

In further examination of the influence which peers have on occupational goals, other researchers focused on the relationship between females' goals and attitudes of significant males in their lives. Hawley (1972) used college major as a criterion for classifying San Diego State College females as having traditional or nontraditional aspirations. Nontraditional aspirants reported that significant males in their lives believed that women could participate in traditionally masculine professions without jeopardizing femininity. However, females preparing for traditional careers perceived significant males in their lives as dividing behaviors into masculine and feminine categories. Tangri (1972) reported that white female college students who scored high on the motive to avoid success but continued to have aspirations for nontraditional careers were involved with males who were not opposed to their success. Conversely, females whose male friends indicated that they did not like the idea of marrying a career woman had less innovative aspirations than women whose friends reported less negative feelings about career women. Hawley (1971) classified women into three general categories, homemakers, employed in traditional

areas, and employed in nontraditional areas. Women who worked in non-traditional occupations reported that significant males did not make decisions about the appropriateness of behavior on the basis of sex role stereotypes. The opposite was true of homemakers and women in traditional occupations.

Additional research suggests that black males like their white counterparts have attitudes which impede the entrance of females into prestigious careers. Axelson (1970) compared the attitudes of black and white males toward working wives. Although a greater percentage of black than white males believed that a wife should be allowed to work if she so desired, a majority of black as well as white males said they would not be proud of a working wife who earned more than her husband. A majority of males of both races reported that if such a situation occurred, they would feel inadequate.

The literature consistently demonstrates the importance of peer influence on white and black students' educational and occupational goals. Friends exert influence by serving as role models and also by providing direct encouragement or discouragement of pursuits. A limitation of the literature on blacks is that peer influence at the college level has not been sufficiently examined. Moreover, though research suggests that white females may not receive as much peer support for high goals as males, the generalizability of this pattern to black females has not been adequately researched.

Grades and Occupational Aspirations

Harrison (1969) found that high achieving high school students had significantly more prestigious occupational aspirations than low achieving students. Hauser (1969) reported that school performance had a di-

rect influence upon occupational and educational aspirations. Sewell, Haller and Portes (1969) and Sewell, Haller and Ohlendorf (1970) found that the academic performance of white male high school students influenced aspirations. The writers theorized that grades directly influence aspirations inasmuch as students can assess their chances for entering various fields. Indirectly, grades were theorized as influencing aspirations by their effect upon significant others' expectancies.

The cited research indicates the importance of academic performance on white students' goals. Since the cited studies were conducted on white samples, additional research on black students is clearly indicated.

Self Concept of Ability and Students' Performance

A body of literature indicates that self concept of ability is related to achievement. Brookover et al. (1962) theorized that an individual's perception of himself or herself could impair or facilitate actual achievement. According to Gurin and Epps (1975) self concept of ability reflects that aspect of expectancy which stems from feeling confident about one's abilities.

A number of researchers (Epps, 1969; Goergi, 1971; Green & Farquhar, 1965; Joyce, 1970) found that self concept of ability related to black high school students' academic achievement. The same trend has been reported with black college students (Cameron, 1968; Gurin & Epps, 1975; Smith, 1973). Moreover, Gurin and Epps (1975) found that academic self concept, as measured by the student's assessment of his or her academic performance was positively related to the prestige and ability demands of male and female aspirations as well as the non-

traditionality of male aspirations.

The relationship between self concept of ability and the behavior of significant others has also been examined. Payne and Farquhar (1962) theorized that an individual's expectancy in academic situations is the result of a process in which he or she receives feedback from (a) significant others and (b) events associated with school performance. Brookover (1965) reported correlations among perceived evaluations of ability by parents, teachers and friends and self concept of ability that ranged from .59 to .83. Jourard and Remy (1955) obtained a significant relationship between students' self perceptions and their perceptions of parental feelings about them. The results of several studies indicate that teachers influence students' self perceptions. Staines (1956) reported that teachers could alter the individual's self concept by positively evaluating the student. Davidson and Lang (1960) found a significant relationship between white children's perceptions of their teachers' assessment of them and the children's feelings about themselves.

Summing up, the cited studies demonstrate the consistent relationship between self concept of ability and academic performance. However, research which examined the variable's relationship with occupational aspirations is far too limited. The studies which were presented also demonstrate the importance of significant others in the development of self concept of ability. Research which centers on differences between black males and females on this variable is indicated.

Predictions

The present study focuses on sex differences in the occupational

aspirations of black students attending historically white rather than black colleges. This is justified inasmuch as a majority of black students currently enrolled in college are attending historically white institutions. Moreover, there may be differences in the behavior patterns of students who attend the two types of schools. Specifically, females who elect to attend historically black colleges might be more interested in social atmosphere than in preparation for professional fields. Moreover, in light of social movements which have occurred in recent years it should be determined whether earlier findings still hold.

In addition to updating descriptive research in this area the present study examines the relationships among socioeconomic status, grades, experiences with significant others, self concept of ability and career choice. A major weakness of the existing literature is that it has not empirically examined differences in the socialization experiences of black college students. In the study to be presented here specific emphasis is placed on identifying differences between males and females in academic socialization experiences with parents, peers and faculty. Also males and females are compared on academic performance and self concept of ability.

Cited research shows that black males surpassed black females in terms of aspirations for and receipt of higher educational degrees and presence in higher echelon occupations. Moreover, studies show that black males who were attending historically black colleges reported more prestigious occupational aspirations than black females. Despite the fact that the feminist and black liberation movements came into full swing after most of the cited studies were conducted, black women

still face the double negation of racism and sexism. Thus with regard to sex differences in the occupational aspirations of black students attending historically white colleges it is predicted that black males will report more prestigious occupational aspirations than black females.

Research was cited earlier which shows that socioeconomic status exerts an influence upon the educational and occupational aspirations of black and white students. One study which specifically focused on black college students revealed that among male freshmen but not male seniors socioeconomic status was related to occupational aspirations. Among female freshmen the highest aspirations came from students with modest backgrounds. A limitation of the above mentioned study is that the range of socioeconomic backgrounds from which the students came was more limited than that found in the general population. In light of this, as well as the fact that much of the literature presented on socioeconomic status indicates that the variable is positively related to educational and occupational goals, it is predicted that paternal and maternal education as indices of socioeconomic status will be predictive of the prestige of occupational aspirations.

Earlier the writer presented theory set forth by Sewell, Haller and Ohlendorf (1970) and Sewell, Haller and Portes (1969) which stated that the higher one's socioeconomic status, the higher would be the socioeconomic status of significant others with whom one would interact. Moreover, several studies were reported which identified socioeconomic status as a correlate of significant others' influence. This leads to the prediction that parental education will be significantly related to (a) parental reinforcement history (b) satisfaction

with faculty, (c) the prestige of friends' aspirations, and (d) peer press for achievement.

Theory set forth by Sewell, Haller and Portes (1969) and Sewell, Haller and Ohlendorf (1970) maintained that significant others, namely parents, teachers and peers have an effect upon the prestige of students' goals. The cited empirical literature on parental influence showed that parental reinforcement of academic pursuits was positively related to students' performance and occupational goals. Thus it is predicted that parental reinforcement history will be predictive of the prestige of occupational aspirations.

Turning to faculty, in addition to the theory mentioned above which stressed the importance of instructors' expectancies on the development of occupational goals, studies were cited which show that modeling and encouragement of students' pursuits are mechanisms by which students' occupational and educational goals are influenced by their teachers. Thus it is predicted that satisfaction with faculty will be predictive of the prestige of students' occupational aspirations.

Significant others also include peers. The theory discussed earlier emphasized the importance of peers as role models. Moreover, a number of studies were cited which show that high school and college students' goals were influenced by their friends' plans. This leads to the prediction that (a) the prestige of peer aspirations and (b) peer press for achievement will each be predictive of the prestige of subjects' occupational aspirations.

Turning to academic performance Sewell, Haller and Ohlendorf (1970) theorized that grades influence occupational goals, since they (a) provide objective assessments of ability which students use to determine

their chances for entering various occupational fields, and (b) affect the development of significant others' educational and professional expectancies. Also, studies were presented which show a positive relationship between grades and the prestige of occupational goals. On the basis of these findings it is predicted that grade point average will be predictive of the prestige of occupational aspirations.

The psychological theory set forth by Brookover et al. (1962) maintained that self concept of ability could facilitate or impair the individual's achievement strivings. In addition, studies were cited which show that the variable is positively correlated with achievement and occupational goals. Thus it is predicted that self concept of ability will be predictive of the prestige of occupational aspirations.

Payne and Farquhar (1962) state that an individual's self concept of ability is a result of feedback from significant others as well as from significant school experiences. Several studies show that students' perceptions of how significant others assess them are related to self concept of ability. In keeping with that it is predicted that (a) parental reinforcement history and (b) satisfaction with faculty will each be significantly related to self concept of ability.

Payne and Farquhar (1962) maintain that in addition to the social influence of significant others, feedback from academic situations affects the development of self concept of ability. Inasmuch as grades provide explicit information about success or failure in academic situations, it is predicted that grade point average will be significantly related to self concept of ability.

In addition to the foregoing predictions there are several research

questions of interest. In light of this study's focus on sex differences in occupational aspirations it is appropriate to compare black males and females on two related variables, grade point average and educational aspirations.

Although several researchers (Bernard, 1966; Broom & Glenn, 1965; Grier & Cobbs, 1966) have asserted that black parents support the aspirations of their daughters more strongly than those of their sons, the assertion is not strongly supported by empirical data. Thus the question of whether males report more positive parental reinforcement than black females is examined.

A few reasons why males might establish more satisfying relationships with faculty members than females were discussed earlier. Males have significantly more same sex role models to emulate, and unlike females they do not have to deal with sex role stereotypes which encourage entering less prestigious fields. Most of the research which demonstrates these points was conducted on white subjects. The question of whether black males score higher than black females on satisfaction with faculty will be examined here. Also, the question of whether satisfaction with faculty is related to faculty race or sex will be examined.

Previous research suggests that white females are not in as good a position as white males in terms of peer influence on occupational goals inasmuch as they have to deal with friends' sex role stereotypes which are frequently contrary to aspirations for prestigious occupations. Although it seems reasonable to assume that black males, like their white counterparts are more likely than females to have experiences with peers which facilitate high goals, the following question

will be empirically examined: Do black males score higher than black females on the prestige of friends' aspirations and peer press for achievement?

The research literature provides theoretical and empirical support for the existence of the relationship between self concept of ability and experience with parents, teachers and peers. Since the literature also suggests that males and females differ in their experiences with significant others, the question of whether black males score higher than black females on self concept of ability will be examined.

CHAPTER II.

METHOD

Subjects

The subjects were 259 black male and female juniors and seniors between the ages of 20 and 23 who were enrolled in full-time baccalaureate programs at City College, Lehman College, Queens College, Barnard College, Columbia College and New York University. Subjects were limited to students in the above mentioned age group inasmuch as a large percentage of college juniors and seniors are between 20 and 23 years old. To recruit subjects, the experimenter contacted the faculty members in the various academic departments at the schools. After explaining the purpose of the study, the experimenter asked to administer the questionnaire to students during class time. Despite considerable difficulty in recruiting subjects in this manner, over seven hundred questionnaires were administered. Questionnaires that were unacceptable because of student's race, year in college or age were disregarded. Moreover, about 15 questionnaires were disregarded because they were incomplete or haphazardly completed. Using a counterbalanced design, one black female and one black male administered the research instrument. The two experimenters were used to reduce the possibility of experimenter biasing effects. The students were asked to participate in research which requested information about their backgrounds, attitudes and future plans. The experimenter explained that this information would be useful in planning for the educational experiences of other students. Moreover, they were told that the questionnaire was not a test and that the results would be used for research purposes. Most students took about 25 minutes to complete the question-

naire.

Instrument

The Student Information Questionnaire contained 52 items which requested information about the subject's background, attitudes and experiences. In developing the instrument the experimenter adhered fairly closely to the methodology of earlier studies. Firstly, all of the variables under investigation were measured in one instrument during one time period. A problem with this approach is that the variables are not measured independently of each other. Yet, time limitations and limited access to subjects makes this the most feasible approach. The decision to group items measuring the same trait in block form rather than in a more random order was influenced by precedents in the literature. The specific sections of the questionnaire are described below.

General Background. The first 18 items of the scale dealt with general background information, including age, number of completed college credits, grade point average, major area of concentration, educational goals and occupational goals. Prestige ratings were assigned to the occupation on the basis of the Occupational Prestige Scale. To develop this scale one hundred students attending the schools from which the sample was drawn were asked to select the one statement from five which best reflected the general standing of listed occupations. Alternatives on the five point scale ranged from excellent standing to poor standing. The mean of the students' judgments for each occupation was used to determine its prestige level. Additional background items elicited information about parental occupations (past and present) and levels of educational attainment. For the latter,

alternatives ranged from less than high school to advanced or professional degree.

Peer Aspirations. Item 19 asked the student to report the occupational aspirations of his or her three closest friends. Prestige ratings were assigned to the occupations on the basis of the Occupational Prestige Scale. The mean score of the three ratings reflected level of peer aspirations.

Peer Press for Achievement. Ten true-false items (Items 20-29) taken from Thistlethwaite (1960) dealt with perceived importance to peers of academic and professional achievement. Possible scores on the scale ranged from 0 to 10. Two of the items were "Most of my my friends are planning graduate work" and "My friends spend a lot of time planning their intellectual careers". Half of the items were keyed so that a true response was scored positively and the other items were keyed oppositely. Thistlethwaite (1959) selected items from the College Characteristics Index which had been grouped on the basis of similarity of content. Items which did not differentiate high and low productivity colleges or had low correlations with total provisional scores of items with which they were clustered were discarded. The scale used here is the result of the above analysis. The scale's reliability as determined by the Kuder Richardson formula 20 is .74.

Perceived Parental Reinforcement. Items (30-32) dealt with the student's perception of parental interest in and support of academic pursuits. The stems of the items were taken from Part 1 of the College Student Questionnaire. The wording was altered slightly to make the items appropriate for college juniors and seniors. Possible scores on this scale ranged from 3 to 12. Two of the scale's items

are as follows: "How important is it to your parents that you receive good grades in school ?" and "How important was it to your parents that you go to college?". The alternative responses were (a) not very important, (b) fairly important, (c) quite important and (c) extremely important .

Satisfaction With Faculty. In this study it was defined as the student's perception of (a) his or her opportunities to interact with faculty, (b) faculty interest in him or her and (c) faculty evaluations of him or her. Items which measured this variable (Items 35-39) in the questionnaire were taken from the Satisfaction With Faculty Scale found in the College Student Questionnaire. Possible scores on this scale ranged from 1 to 28. The following is an item which appears on the scale. "How successful would you say your instructors at this college have been in challenging you to produce to the limit of your intellectual and creative capacities?". The possible responses were (a) They have been wholly successful, (b) Several have been somewhat successful, (c) Several have been quite successful and (d) Almost all have succeeded in continuously challenging my intellectual capacities. Another sample item is as follows: "How many members of the faculty at this college have provided personal evaluations of your work which made you think you might become a creative or productive worker in their fields?". The choices were (a) none, (b) one, (c) two or three, (d) more than three. In its entirety the Satisfaction With Faculty Scale which appears in the College Student Questionnaire measures student's perceptions of faculty competence, fairness, accessibility and interest in students. By using face validity, items which tapped the first three components were selected

for use here. This method was used in the absence of data collected by factor analysis. In his review of the College Student Questionnaire Gough (1972) reported that the reliabilities for the scales in Part 2 ranged to .84. Moreover, the construct validity of the Satisfaction With Faculty Scale was demonstrated by its relationship to other aspects of the college experience. In addition to the items taken from the Satisfaction With Faculty Scale, five items (40-44) tapped whether the student's satisfaction with faculty related to their race and or sex. One of the questions was as follows: "Of the following, which group would you say was most successful in challenging you to the limit of your intellectual and creative capacities?". The alternatives were (a) black males, (b) black females, (c) white males, (d) white females and (e) about equal. Another of the items was as follows: "Of the following which group most successfully provided you with personal evaluations which made you think you might become a productive worker in the field?". The alternatives were (a) black instructors, (b) white instructors and (c) both about equal.

Self Concept of Ability. Eight items (46-52) taken from Brookover (1962) dealt with the student's assessment of his or her ability in comparison to friends and classmates. Possible scores ranged from 8 to 40. The following item was included in the scale. "How do you rate yourself in school ability compared with your close friends?". The possible replies were (a) I am the best, (b) I am above average, (c) I am average, (d) I am below average and (e) I am the poorest. Another item was as follows: "Do you think you have the ability to complete graduate school?". The choices were (a) yes, definitely (b) yes, probably, (c) not sure either way, (d) probably not and (e) no.

The scale has been validated on a number of samples using Guttman scalogram analysis, Likert type scoring and factor analysis. The eight items have been found to constitute a single dimension using the Guttman technique and a single factor using factor analysis. A scalogram analysis yielded a .95 coefficient of reproducibility for males and .96 for females.

CHAPTER III.

RESULTS

Prior to examining the findings as they relate to the hypotheses, comparative data on male and female performance on the predictor variables will be presented. All of the presented p 's for t tests and correlation coefficients are for 2-tailed tests of significance. The results of t tests computed on the total sample appear in Table 1. Males score significantly higher than females on the prestige of friends' occupational goals ($t = 3.5, p < .01$). The difference between the sexes on father's and mother's education, grade point average, parental reinforcement, satisfaction with faculty, peer press for achievement and self concept of ability are not significant.

Juniors and seniors were examined separately to determine the consistency of the findings. The data for seniors appear in Table 2. Males surpass females on self concept of ability ($t = 2.18, p < .05$). The sexes do not differ significantly on the other variables. Differences between male and female juniors are summarized in Table 3. Males' friends aspire to more prestigious occupations than females' friends ($t = 3.29, p < .01$). The t tests for the remaining variables fail to show significant differences.

It was predicted that black males would report more prestigious occupational aspirations than black females. The results of a number of t tests performed to assess the predictions appear in Table 4. As predicted, in the total sample male aspirations are significantly more prestigious than those of females ($t = 2.66, p < .01$). For subjects with B averages only, males report significantly more prestigious goals than females ($t = 2.34, p < .05$). Sex differences among C students are

Table 1

Sex Differences in Predictor Variables (Total Sample)

Variable	Males	<u>N</u>	<u>S</u>	Females	<u>N</u>	<u>S</u>	Difference	<u>t</u>
Grade Point Average	2.8408	108	.435	2.8915	123	.366	-.0407	.96
Prestige of Peer Aspirations	3.9464	111	.329	3.3802	130	.310	.5662	3.50**
Satisfaction With Faculty	15.1260	127	3.521	15.0303	132	3.739	.0957	.21
Parental Reinforcement	8.7222	126	2.591	8.3053	131	2.523	.4169	1.31
Peer Press for Achievement	6.3468	124	2.379	6.7252	131	2.173	-.3784	1.32
Self Concept of Ability	31.3492	126	4.316	30.4545	132	3.520	.8947	1.83
Father's Education	2.7414	116	1.4150	2.8699	123	1.5039	-.1285	.68
Mother's Education	3.3065	124	1.4549	3.2824	131	1.4479	.0248	.13

**p < .01

Table 2

Sex Differences in Predictor Variables (Seniors)

Variable	Males	<u>N</u>	<u>S</u>	Females	<u>N</u>	<u>S</u>	Difference	<u>t</u>
Grade Point Average	2.8912	50	.412	2.8825	57	.318	.0087	.12
Prestige of Peer Aspirations	3.8757	47	.365	3.7569	57	.311	.1188	1.79
Satisfaction With Faculty	15.4000	55	3.241	14.9828	58	3.668	.4172	.64
Parental Reinforcement	8.4545	55	2.574	8.0690	58	2.752	.3855	.88
Peer Press for Achievement	6.4074	55	2.898	6.7931	58	1.989	-.3857	.73
Self Concept of Ability	31.6909	54	4.277	30.1379	58	3.170	.5530	2.18*
Father's Education	2.7885	52	1.367	2.8947	57	1.425	-.1062	.39
Mother's Education	3.4815	54	1.403	3.1897	58	1.395	.2918	1.01

*p < .05.

Table 3

Sex Differences in Predictor Variables (Juniors)

Variable	Males	<u>N</u>	<u>S</u>	Females	<u>N</u>	<u>S</u>	Difference	<u>t</u>
Grade Point Average	2.7974	58	.453	2.9009	65	.408	-.1035	1.33
Prestige of Peer Aspirations	3.9983	64	.291	3.8307	71	.299	.1676	3.29**
Satisfaction With Faculty	14.9167	72	3.729	15.1111	72	3.840	-.1944	.31
Parental Reinforcement	8.9296	71	2.326	8.4930	71	2.347	.4360	1.11
Peer Press for Achievement	6.3000	70	2.235	6.9010	71	2.352	-.6010	1.01
Self Concept of Ability	31.0845	71	4.358	30.5555	72	3.715	.5250	.78
Father's Education	2.7031	64	1.385	2.8750	64	1.463	-.1719	.65
Mother's Education	3.1714	70	1.428	3.3803	71	1.394	.2089	.90

**p < .01.

Table 4

Sex Differences in Occupational Aspirations

Subjects	Males	<u>N</u>	<u>S</u>	Females	<u>N</u>	<u>S</u>	Difference	<u>t</u>
Total Sample	3.9474	127	.416	3.8136	132	.498	.1338	2.66**
B Students	4.0826	48	.433	3.8892	59	.419	.1934	2.34*
C Students	3.8277	60	.366	3.7301	64	.363	.0977	1.49
Juniors	3.9827	72	.414	3.8209	72	.373	.1618	2.46*
Seniors	3.9012	55	.417	3.7933	58	.419	.1079	1.37

* $p < .05$.

** $p < .01$.

Table 5

Sex Differences in Occupational Aspirations By College

College	Males	<u>N</u>	<u>S</u>	Females	<u>N</u>	<u>S</u>	Difference	<u>t</u>
City	3.8223	29	.356	3.8137	26	.364	.0086	.09
Queens	3.9195	28	.417	3.7564	26	.399	.1631	1.47
N.Y.U.	3.8820	23	.359	3.7352	28	.494	.1468	1.19
Lehman	3.7830	22	.434	3.7223	27	.212	.0607	.60
Columbia	4.3289	25	.287	4.0598	25	.372	.2691	2.87**

**p < .01.

in the predicted direction, but fail to reach significance. Among juniors, male aspirations are significantly more prestigious than those of females ($\underline{t} = 2.46, p < .05$). Among seniors, the sex differences are not significant.

The data were further analyzed to examine sex differences among the five colleges. As seen in Table 5, a highly significant difference is shown between males and females attending Columbia University ($\underline{t} = 2.87, p < .01$). Although \underline{t} values at the other colleges are in the predicted direction, they are not significant. Males and females were also compared while holding college and grade point average constant. The results appear in Table 6. Male students at Columbia whose grades were in the C category report significantly more prestigious goals than their Barnard counterparts ($\underline{t} = 3.24, p < .01$). The remaining differences are in the predicted direction, but fail to reach significance. Also, sex differences were examined while controlling college and year in school. As seen in Table 7, Columbia seniors score higher than female seniors at Barnard ($\underline{t} = 3.87, p < .01$).

To further clarify the nature of sex differences, the students were compared on frequency of selecting some of the fields which earlier research (Fichter, 1967; Gurin & Epps, 1975) identified as being entered differentially by males and females. In those studies, a large percentage of males stated their intention to enter business, law, engineering, medicine and the physical sciences while females tended to select teaching, nursing and social work. In this study males and females were not compared on intention to pursue careers in engineering and the physical sciences because of the small number of students who had such aspirations. Moreover, for the purpose of the analysis

Table 6

Sex Differences in Occupational Aspirations by College and Grades

College	Grades	Males	<u>S</u>	<u>N</u>	Females	<u>S</u>	<u>N</u>	Difference	<u>t</u>
City	C	3.7303	.298	15	3.7812	.395	13	-.0509	.39
City	B	4.0012	.441	9	3.8673	.349	12	.1339	.78
Queens	C	3.7970	.304	17	3.6257	.341	10	.1713	1.35
Queens	B	4.1585	.489	8	3.8621	.447	14	.2964	1.45
N.Y.U.	C	3.7787	.346	10	3.6233	.574	12	.1554	.75
N.Y.U.	B	3.9757	.376	7	3.7795	.421	13	.1962	1.03
Lehman	C	3.7845	.423	12	3.7106	.207	19	.0739	.56
Lehman	B	3.7065	.448	8	3.6900	.246	6	.0165	.08
Columbia	C	4.3263	.303	6	3.9334	.187	10	.3929	3.24**
Columbia	B	4.3251	.268	16	4.1221	.451	14	.2030	1.47

**p < .01.

Table 7

Sex Differences in Occupational Aspirations by College and Year in School

College	Year in School	Males	<u>N</u>	Females	<u>N</u>	Difference	<u>t</u>
City	Juniors	3.8003	14	3.7465	17	.0538	.40
City	Seniors	3.8428	15	3.9407	9	-.0979	-.69
Queens	Juniors	3.9815	15	3.8334	11	.1481	.96
Queens	Seniors	3.8479	13	3.7000	15	.1479	.91
N.Y.U.	Juniors	4.0645	13	3.8163	16	.2482	1.68
N.Y.U.	Seniors	3.6449	10	3.5234	10	.1215	.66
Lehman	Juniors	3.7844	14	3.7471	15	.0373	.28
Lehman	Seniors	3.7806	8	3.6914	12	.0892	.55
Columbia	Juniors	4.2508	16	3.9986	13	.2522	1.73
Columbia	Seniors	4.4678	9	4.1260	12	.3414	3.87**

**p < .01.

social work and nursing were combined due to the small number of students in the two categories. A summary of the data collected in the present study are presented in Table 8. It can be seen that males' and females' occupational choices are quite different ($\chi^2 = 18.10, p < .05$). A higher percentage of males than females aspire to careers in law, medicine and business. On the other hand, females' choices are concentrated in teaching, social work and nursing.

A specific hypothesis concerning sex differences in educational aspirations was not included in the present study. However, this area was explored in light of the relationship assumed by some writers between educational and occupational aspirations. Students were asked to indicate the highest educational degree which they hoped to obtain. A cross tabular summary of the findings is presented in Table 9. Although the sex differences are not significant, females tend to surpass males on intention to obtain professional degrees in law and medicine.

It was predicted that socioeconomic status as measured by parental education would be related to students' occupational aspirations. Data as presented in Table 10 are not supportive of this prediction. In the total sample, neither paternal nor maternal education correlates significantly with the prestige of students' career choices. Similarly, when males and females are considered separately neither index of parental education is significantly correlated with occupational choice.

The data concerning the predicted relationships among parental education and the social influence variables are presented in Table 11. Turning first to the relationship between parental education and perception of parental reinforcement, in the total sample father's education is significantly correlated with perception of parental reinforcement.

Table 8

Sex Differences in Selected Occupations

	Social Work and Nursing	Teaching	Business	Law	Medicine	Row Total
Males	2	12	13	21	15	63
Females	16	22	12	12	8	70
Column Total	18	34	25	33	23	133

Chi Square = 18.10 with 4 degrees of freedom $p < .05$.

Table 9

Sex Differences in Educational Aspirations

	Bachelor's	Master's	M.D.	Law	Doctorate	Row Total
Males	17	43	14	21	23	118
Females	10	58	9	13	34	124
Column Total	27	101	23	34	57	242

Chi Square = 8.9877 with 4 df n.s.

Table 10

Product Moment Correlations Between Parents' Education and Occupational Aspirations

Occupational Aspirations	Father's Education		Mother's Education	
	<u>r</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>r</u>	<u>N</u>
Total Sample	.0975	239	.0667	255
Males	.1096	116	.0395	124
Females	.1035	123	.0932	131

Note. Number of respondents varies for each correlation coefficient because the computer program eliminates individuals who have missing data on one of the variables involved.

Table 11

Product Moment Correlations

Between Parents' Education and Social Influence Variables

Parental Reinforcement	Father's Education		Mother's Education	
	<u>r</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>r</u>	<u>N</u>
Total Sample	.1919**	239	.1167	254
Males	.1106	116	-.0205	124
Females	.2736**	123	.2477**	130
Satisfaction With Faculty				
Total Sample	-.0954	239	-.1169	255
Males	-.0642	116	-.1589	124
Females	-.1211	123	-.0792	131
Prestige of Peer Aspirations				
Total Sample	.0640	223	.0733	238
Males	-.0693	102	-.0462	109
Females	.1881*	121	.1801*	129
Peer Press for Achievement				
Total Sample	.1008	236	.0289	252
Males	.1490	114	-.0469	122
Females	.0511	122	.1041	130

* p < .05.

**p < .01.

ment ($\underline{r} = .1919, p < .01$). Among females father's and mother's education are significantly correlated with perception of parental reinforcement ($\underline{r} = .2736, p < .01$ and $\underline{r} = .2477, p < .01$, respectively). Looking next at satisfaction with faculty neither mother's nor father's education is correlated with perception of parental reinforcement. Turning to another category of significant others, namely peers, parental education generally is not strongly related to the prestige of friends' goals. The only significant results occur among females, where father's and mother's education are significantly correlated with the prestige of peer goals ($\underline{r} = .1881, p < .05$ and $\underline{r} = .1801, p < .05$, respectively). The data show that parental education is not correlated with the other component of peer influence, namely peer press for achievement. None of the results reach significance.

It was predicted that each of the four social influence variables would be related to the prestige of subjects' occupational goals. The results of the analyses appear in Table 12. With parental reinforcement significant positive correlations were obtained with the total sample and males ($\underline{r} = .1269, p < .05$ and $\underline{r} = .2254, p < .05$, respectively). Among females the relationship fails to reach significance. Turning to satisfaction with faculty, the data consistently show that this variable is not correlated with the prestige of students' goals. But in the total sample the prestige of friends' goals is consistently correlated with students' goals ($\underline{r} = .5787, p < .001$). Males and females examined separately demonstrate the same pattern ($\underline{r} = .5683, p < .001$ and $\underline{r} = .5503, p < .001$, respectively). Next, peer press for achievement is consistently correlated with the prestige of subjects' aspirations. For the total sample $\underline{r} = .2972, p < .01$, for males $\underline{r} = .3860, p < .001$,

Table 12

Product Moment Correlations

Between Occupational Aspirations and Social Influence Variables

Parental Reinforcement	Occupational Aspirations	
	<u>r</u>	<u>N</u>
Total Sample	.1269*	257
Males	.2254*	126
Females	.0025	131
Satisfaction With Faculty		
Total Sample	-.0337	259
Males	-.1312	127
Females	.0541	132
Prestige of Peer Aspirations		
Total Sample	.5787***	241
Males	.5683***	111
Females	.5503***	130
Peer Press for Achievement		
Total Sample	.2972**	255
Males	.3860***	124
Females	.2393**	131

* p < .05.
 ** p < .01.
 *** p < .001.

and for females $\underline{r} = .2393$, $p < .01$.

The next prediction was that grade point average would be related to the prestige of students' occupational aspirations. The results obtained with the total sample support the prediction ($\underline{r} = .2852$, $p < .001$) as do the results with males ($\underline{r} = .3641$, $p < .001$) and females ($\underline{r} = .2320$, $p < .01$).

It was predicted that self concept of ability would be related to the prestige of students' occupational goals. The findings with the total sample support the prediction ($\underline{r} = .3186$, $p < .001$) as do the results for males ($\underline{r} = .3270$, $p < .001$) and for females ($\underline{r} = .2831$, $p < .01$).

Also, it was predicted that each of the social influence variables and grade point average would be related to self concept of ability. The findings are presented in Table 13. The findings are mixed for parental reinforcement with significant results being obtained for the total sample and males. The respective results are ($\underline{r} = .1657$, $p < .01$ and $\underline{r} = .1745$, $p < .05$). With regard to satisfaction with faculty in the total sample it correlates significantly with self concept of ability ($\underline{r} = .1310$, $p < .05$). But the coefficients for males and females considered separately are not significant. Peer influence is consistently correlated with self concept of ability. As shown in Table 13 highly significant correlations were obtained between the prestige of peer aspirations and self concept of ability in the total sample ($\underline{r} = .3463$, $p < .001$) as well as among males ($\underline{r} = .3829$, $p < .001$) and among females ($\underline{r} = .2727$, $p < .01$). Peer press for achievement, the second component of peer influence is also consistently correlated with self concept of ability. For the total sample ($\underline{r} = .2925$, $p < .001$) and for males ($\underline{r} = .3885$, $p < .001$). For females the relationship is somewhat lower than

Table 13

Product Moment Correlations

Between Self Concept of Ability and Social Influence Variables

Parental Reinforcement	Self Concept of Ability	
	<u>r</u>	<u>N</u>
Total Sample	.1657**	256
Males	.1745*	125
Females	.1389	131
Satisfaction With Faculty		
Total Sample	.1310*	258
Males	.1408	126
Females	.1202	132
Prestige of Peer Aspirations		
Total Sample	.3463***	240
Males	.3829***	110
Females	.2727**	130
Peer Press for Achievement		
Total Sample	.2925***	254
Males	.3885***	123
Females	.2024*	131

* $p < .05$.** $p < .01$.*** $p < .001$.

that obtained with the first peer influence measure ($\underline{r} = .2024$, $\underline{p} < .05$). The relationship between grades and self concept of ability is significant in the total sample ($\underline{r} = .4753$, $\underline{p} < .001$). Similar results were obtained for males and females. The respective findings are ($\underline{r} = .4857$, $\underline{p} < .001$ and $\underline{r} = .4888$, $\underline{p} < .001$).

In the preceding section, predictions were evaluated by means of \underline{t} tests, chi square and zero order correlations. This approach proved informative. However, in light of dangers associated with exclusive reliance on simple correlations, as well as the multifaceted nature of the determinants of occupational choice, multivariate analysis was clearly indicated. Therefore, several multiple regressions were computed. The first was performed on the total sample. The other two examined males and females separately. The hierarchical model was used in all regressions. Cohen and Cohen (1975) describe this approach as the model in which the variables are introduced in a predetermined order.

The importance of sex on students' aspirations was tested by entering sex as an independent variable in the regression performed on the total sample and also by examining males and females separately. In the former case sex was introduced as a dummy variable. The data were processed by an SPSS package which included those cases where all data were available. This approach was preferable to various alternatives for handling missing data.

Multiple regression analysis yields a fairly large amount of information including multiple \underline{R} , \underline{R}^2 , and \underline{F} tests of \underline{R}^2 . Multiple \underline{R} measures the association between the dependent variable and a combination of two or more independent variables. In reporting data, \underline{R}^2 is

preferable to the multiple R since it lends itself to a more straightforward interpretation. It represents the percent of the variation in the dependent variable which is explained by the independent variables. The F tests of R^2 changes determine whether the addition of an independent variable contributes significantly to the regression equation.

The framework discussed by Sewell, Haller and Portes (1969) and Sewell, Haller and Portes (1970) was used to determine the entry order of the variables in the multiple regressions. According to the model, a student's aspirations and achievements are affected by socioeconomic status as well as a number of psychological variables. Paternal and maternal education as indices of socioeconomic status were entered first. Student's sex was entered next, the rationale being that temporarily, sex preceded the remaining variables. Inasmuch as the model maintains that academic performance is the primary basis upon which significant others base their expectations it was entered prior to influence from significant others. Significant others were entered next. Self concept of ability was entered last. Unlike most of the other variables it was not included in the original model. Self concept of ability does not necessarily follow from grade point average. Other factors must be considered. The decision to enter it at the designated point was influenced by psychological theory which states that self perception is strongly affected by the perceptions and expectancies of significant others. A couple of studies (Brookover et al., 1962; Payne & Farquhar, 1962) support this theoretical orientation.

The results of the multiple regression which was computed on the total sample of 199 males and females appear in Tables 14 and 15. Since $F = 11.11$, $p < .01$, the regression is statistically significant. The R^2

Table 14

Summary of Multiple Regression of Independent Variables
 on Prestige of Occupational Choices for Total Sample N = 199

		Analysis of Variance	<u>DF</u>	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	<u>F</u>
Multiple <u>R</u>	.64616					
<u>R</u> ²	.41752	Regression	12	14.14646	1.17887	11.11022**
Adjusted R ²	.37994	Residual	186	19.73590	.10611	
Standard Error	.32574					

**p < .01.

Table 15

Summary Data of Multiple Regression of Independent Variables on
Prestige of Occupational Choices for Total Sample

Variable	Multiple <u>R</u>	<u>R</u> ²	<u>R</u> ² Change	<u>F</u> Tests	Simple <u>r</u>
Father's Education	.05924	.00351	.00351	1.2141	.05924
Mother's Education	.09489	.00900	.00549	1.7540	.09457
Student's Sex	.19225	.03696	.02796	8.9329**	-.17261*
Grade Point Average	.36736	.13495	.09799	31.3067**	.30933***
Parental Reinforcement	.36737	.13496	.00001	.0032	.06748
Satisfaction With Faculty	.36989	.13682	.00186	.5943	.00693
Prestige of Peer Aspiration	.62127	.38598	.24916	79.6038**	.60016***
Peer Press for Achievement	.64267	.41302	.02704	8.6389**	.31856***
Self Concept of Ability	.64471	.41565	.00263	.8403	.35387***
Sex x Father's Education	.64537	.41650	.00085	.2716	.03081
Sex x Mother's Education	.64582	.41709	.00058	.1853	.02113
Sex x Grade Point Average	.64616	.41752	.00043	.1374	.04838

* p < .05.

** p < .01.

***p < .001.

in Table 15 shows that socioeconomic status, sex, grade point average, parental reinforcement, satisfaction with faculty, prestige of peer aspirations, peer press for achievement and self concept of ability account for 41.57 percent of the variance of occupational choice. With the addition of two interactive terms, the variance explained by the variables increased to 41.75 percent.

It is necessary to go further into the results to test the predictions and thereby examine the contributions of the respective independent variables. Beginning with the zero order correlations, significant results are demonstrated for sex, grade point average, prestige of peer aspirations, peer press for achievement and self concept of ability. Neither of the interactive terms is significantly related to occupational prestige. The only difference between these coefficients and those reported earlier is that in the latter case, parental reinforcement is not a correlate of occupational prestige.

The F tests were computed on R^2 changes to determine whether the addition of the independent variables contributes significantly to the regression equation. Sex is a significant predictor of students' occupational aspirations. Being female has a depressant effect on the prestige of occupational goals $F = 8.9329$, $p < .01$. The addition of each of the following increases the accuracy of the prediction, grade point average ($F = 31.3067$, $p < .01$), prestige of friends' aspirations ($F = 79.6038$, $p < .01$), and peer press for achievement ($F = 8.6389$, $p < .01$). Socioeconomic status, parental reinforcement, satisfaction with faculty, self concept of ability and the interactive terms add little to the prediction despite the increase in R^2 .

The findings are supported by partial r 's. The SPSS package

partials out variables which preceded the variable under study in order of entry into the regression equation. Significant partial correlations appear in Table 16. Significant results were obtained only for those variables whose F tests revealed statistical significance. Partial r 's for student's sex ($r = -.16796$, $p < .05$), grade point average ($r = .31879$, $p < .001$), prestige of peer aspirations ($r = .53726$, $p < .001$) and peer press for achievement ($r = .20986$, $p < .01$) are significant.

Next, a multiple regression was computed for males only ($N = 86$). Tables 17 and 18 summarize the relevant findings. As shown in Table 17 $F = 8.5655$ $p < .01$ for the overall regression. The R^2 value shows that all of the predictor variables together account for 47.09 percent of the variance in the prestige of subjects' occupational choices. Statistical findings which specifically deal with the contribution of individual variables are presented in Table 18. Grade point average ($r = .41162$, $p < .001$), prestige of peer aspirations ($r = .62517$, $p < .001$), peer press for achievement ($r = .39275$, $p < .001$), and self concept of ability ($r = .33620$, $p < .01$) are significantly correlated with the prestige of students' occupational aspirations. Unlike zero order correlations reported earlier, parental reinforcement is not correlated with the occupational aspirations of male students.

The F tests of R^2 change provide more precise information about the contributions of individual variables than the zero order correlations. Grade point average is a significant predictor of occupational aspirations ($F = 24.44970$, $p < .01$), satisfaction with faculty ($F = 5.6089$, $p < .05$), prestige of peer aspirations ($F = 33.47307$, $p < .01$) and peer press for achievement ($F = 4.43668$, $p < .05$) add sig-

Table 16

Partial Correlation Coefficients Between Independent Variables
and Occupational Choices for Total Sample

Variable	Partial r
Student's Sex	-.16796
Grade Point Average	.31879***
Parental Reinforcement	.00274
Satisfaction With Faculty	-.04619
Prestige of Peer Aspirations	.53726***
Peer Press for Achievement	.20986**
Self Concept of Ability	.06697
Sex x Father's Education	-.03817
Sex x Mother's Education	.03161
Sex x Grade Point Average	.02717

Note. Each coefficient reflects the correlation between the indicated independent variable and occupational aspirations with parents' education and the variable(s) immediately preceding the independent variable partialled out.

* $p < .05$.

** $p < .01$.

*** $p < .001$.

Table 17

Summary of Multiple Regression of Independent Variables

on Prestige of Occupational Choices for Males N = 86

		Analysis of Variance	<u>DF</u>	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	<u>F</u>
Multiple <u>R</u>	.68620					
R ²	.47088	Regression	8	6.69821	.83728	8.5655**
Adjusted R ²	.41590	Residual	77	7.52680	.09775	
Standard Error	.31265					

**p < .01.

Table 18

Summary Data of Multiple Regression of Independent Variables on
Prestige of Occupational Choices for Males

Variable	Multiple <u>R</u>	<u>R</u> ²	<u>R</u> ² Change	<u>F</u> Tests	Simple <u>r</u>
Father's Education	.04476	.00200	.00200	.29112	.04476
Mother's Education	.04637	.00215	.00015	.02183	.03648
Grade Point Average	.41246	.17012	.16797	24.44970**	.41162***
Parental Reinforcement	.41429	.17163	.00151	.21970	.10931
Satisfaction With Faculty	.45845	.21018	.03854	5.60989*	-.15770
Prestige of Peer Aspirations	.66343	.44014	.22996	33.47307**	.62516***
Peer Press for Achievement	.68601	.47061	.03048	4.43668*	.39275***
Self Concept of Ability	.68620	.47088	.00026	.03789	.33620**

** p < .01.

***p < .001.

nificantly to the prediction equation. With regard to satisfaction with faculty the results are in a different direction than predicted. Being satisfied with faculty seems to have a depressant influence upon male students' occupational aspirations.

Partial r 's are reported in Table 19. The partial correlation coefficients obtained with grade point average ($r = .41254$, $p < .001$), prestige of peer aspirations ($r = .53959$, $p < .001$), and peer press for achievement ($r = .2331$, $p < .05$) are significant and in the same direction as earlier findings. The remaining partial correlations fail to reach significance.

Females were examined separately in a third multiple regression. As shown in Table 20 the F ratio of 8.18829, $p < .01$ for the overall regression is significant. The R^2 value indicates that all of the independent variables account for 38.65 percent of the variance in the prestige of occupational choice. The additional analyses are presented in Table 21. The zero order correlations indicate that grade point average ($r = .24519$, $p < .01$), prestige of peer goals ($r = .55221$, $p < .001$), peer press for achievement ($r = .29281$, $p < .01$) and self concept of ability ($r = .34219$, $p < .001$) are significantly related to the prestige of occupational choices. These are the same variables which were reported as being correlated with the prestige of occupational aspirations in the earlier section.

F tests of changes in R^2 reveal that grade point average is a significant predictor of occupational prestige ($F = 9.8556$, $p < .01$). Prestige of peer aspirations ($F = 45.8675$, $p < .01$) and peer press for achievement ($F = 4.3039$, $p < .05$) increase the accuracy of the prediction.

The partial correlations which appear in Table 22 are generally

Table 19
 Partial Correlations Between Independent Variables
 and Occupational Choices for Males

Variable	Partial r
Grade Point Average	.41254***
Parental Reinforcement	.04270
Satisfaction With Faculty	-.21571
Prestige of Peer Aspirations	.53959***
Peer Press for Achievement	.23331*
Self Concept of Ability	.02226

Note. Each coefficient reflects the correlation between the indicated independent variable and occupational aspirations with parents' education and the variable(s) immediately preceding the independent variable partialled out.

* $p < .05$.

** $p < .01$.

*** $p < .001$.

Table 20

Summary of Multiple Regression of Independent Variables
on Prestige of Occupational Choices for Females

Multiple <u>R</u>	.62165	Analysis of Variance	<u>DF</u>	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	<u>F</u>
R ²	.38645	Regression	8	7.20653	.90082	8.18829**
Adjusted R ²	.33926	Residual	104	11.44132	.11001	
Standard Error	.33168					

**p < .01.

Table 21

Summary Data of Multiple Regression of Independent Variables on
Prestige of Occupational Choices for Females

Variable	Multiple <u>R</u>	<u>R</u> ²	<u>R</u> ² Change	<u>F</u> Tests	Simple <u>r</u>
Father's Education	.08483	.00720	.00720	1.2224	.08483
Mother's Education	.11665	.01361	.00641	1.0882	.11300
Grade Point Average	.26769	.07166	.05805	9.8556**	.24519**
Parental Reinforcement	.27040	.07312	.00146	.2478	.01204
Satisfaction With Faculty	.28069	.07879	.00567	.9626	.11109
Prestige of Peer Aspirations	.59072	.34895	.27016	45.8675**	.55221***
Peer Press for Achievement	.61180	.37430	.02535	4.3039*	.29281**
Self Concept of Ability	.62165	.38645	.01216	2.0645	.34219***

* $p < .05$.

** $p < .01$.

*** $p < .001$.

Table 22
 Partial Correlations Between Independent Variables
 and Occupational Choices for Females

Variable	Partial r
Grade Point Average	.24268**
Parental Reinforcement	-.03967
Satisfaction With Faculty	.07820
Prestige of Peer Aspirations	.54154***
Peer Press for Achievement	.19733*
Self Concept of Ability	.13940

Note. Each coefficient reflects the correlation between the indicated independent variable and occupational aspirations with parents' education and the variables(s) immediately preceding the independent variable partialled out.

* $p < .05$.

** $p < .01$.

*** $p < .001$.

consistent with earlier mentioned findings. Grade point average ($\underline{r} = .24268, p < .01$), prestige of peer goals ($\underline{r} = .54154, p < .001$) and peer press for achievement ($\underline{r} = .19733, p < .05$) are significantly correlated with occupational prestige when the variables preceding the one under study are partialled out. None of the other partial correlations reach significance.

Questions were designed to explore whether the subject's sex was related to his or her satisfaction with black as opposed to white faculty. The students were asked to indicate whether black and white faculty differed in success in stimulating their intellectual and creative capacities and encouraging them academically and professionally. With regard to stimulation of intellect, sex is not significant ($\chi^2 = 3.99 (242), 2df, p > .05$). Also, sex of subjects is not related to perception of academic and professional encouragement offered by black and white instructors ($\chi^2 = 5.78 (243), 2df, p > .05$). Also, when students were compared on their perceptions of male and female faculty members' success in challenging their intellectual and creative capacities, the chi square failed to reach significance ($\chi^2 = .4374 (253), 2 df, p > .05$). Two additional questions assessed the relationship between sex of subjects and satisfaction with black and white male and female faculty. There is no relationship between sex of subjects and appraisal of faculty members' ability to challenge intellect and creativity ($\chi^2 = 5.08 (219), 4 df, p > .05$). However, sex of students relates to perception of faculty members' encouragement of students in academic and professional areas ($\chi^2 = 11.80 (243), 4 df, p < .05$).

Summary of Results

With regard to sex differences in occupational aspirations, males

report significantly more prestigious aspirations than females. This is also true of male juniors and male students with B averages. Analysis of the data by college shows that females attending Barnard are surpassed by their counterparts at Columbia. The sexes differ in terms of careers to which they aspire. Males are more likely than females to aspire to careers in medicine, law and business. Conversely, females elect to enter teaching, nursing and social work more frequently than males. Although more males than females aspire to professional degrees in law and medicine, the opposite is true with regard to doctorates in academic disciplines. Yet, the overall difference between the sexes is not significant.

Comparison of the sexes on the predictor variables shows that males score significantly higher than females on the prestige of friends' aspirations. No significant differences exist on the other variables. Male seniors surpass females on self concept of ability. Moreover, males in their junior year surpass females on the prestige of friends' goals.

Correlation coefficients were computed among the predictor variables and the prestige of occupational aspirations. Socioeconomic status as measured by father's and mother's education is not related to occupational choice. Correlation coefficients were also computed among the indices of socioeconomic status and the social influence variables. For the total sample and females, paternal education correlates with perception of parental reinforcement. Moreover, among females mother's education is a correlate of perception of parental reinforcement. Parental education is not significantly correlated with satisfaction with faculty. The only significant results

between parental education and a peer social influence variable are demonstrated by females. Father's and mother's education are significantly correlated with the prestige of friends' goals.

The relationships among the social influence variables and occupational prestige vary. For the total sample and males, perception of parental reinforcement correlates significantly with occupational prestige. Satisfaction with faculty is not significantly correlated with occupational plans. However, the prestige of friends' aspirations correlates with occupational goals. This is true of the total sample and the sexes examined separately. Peer press for achievement is also consistently correlated with occupational aspirations.

Grade point average and self concept of ability are also correlates of occupational prestige. Several of the correlation coefficients which were computed among self concept of ability, grades and the social influence variables reach significance. For the total sample and males perception of parental reinforcement is consistently correlated with self concept of ability. For the total sample a significant correlation exists between satisfaction with faculty and self concept of ability. Peer press for achievement and the prestige of friends' aspirations are correlates of self concept of ability. This is also true of grade point average.

The data were further analyzed by means of multiple regressions to determine which variables were predictive of occupational aspirations. Sex, prestige of friends' aspirations, peer press for achievement and grade point average are predictive of occupational prestige.

DISCUSSION

CHAPTER IV.

This study focused on the occupational aspirations of black college students. The specific areas of concern were the nature of sex differences in occupational aspirations, identification of predictors of aspirations and determination of the usefulness of these predictors for explaining sex differences in career patterns. In this chapter the results are reviewed and discussed. In addition, suggestions for future research are presented.

Our results on sex differences in occupational aspirations are consistent with earlier studies (Fichter, 1967; Gurin & Katz, 1966; Guirn & Epps, 1975) which were conducted at predominantly black colleges. Black males have significantly more prestigious occupational aspirations than black females. This is also true of college juniors and students with B averages. A major reason for conducting this study was to determine if black students attending historically white colleges perform similarly to their counterparts at historically black schools. Although the colleges included in this sample are similar in that they are not historically black, they differ in terms of sponsorship. City College, Lehman College and Queens College are part of the publicly sponsored City University; whereas Barnard College, Columbia College and New York University are private institutions. Among the other differences are academic status and percentage of black students attending the schools. Specific information about the latter is presented in Table 23.

Despite the fact that all of the schools which were included in this study are located in New York City, the writer expects that simi-

Table 23
Percentage of Black Undergraduates
Attending Designated Colleges in Fall 1977

College	Percentage
Barnard	4.5*
City	33.5
Columbia	6.8
Lehman	19.5
New York University	10.7*
Queens	11.8

* Data for 1977 were not available. Percentages reflect 1976 figures.

lar results would be obtained in other large cities such as Chicago, Detroit and Los Angeles inasmuch as there is much similarity in the types of educational institutions found in such communities. Most urban areas include privately and publicly supported colleges and universities. The accuracy of the writer's expectancy should be tested in future research by drawing samples from a number of metropolitan areas.

Analysis of the data by college reveals that male students at Columbia have significantly more prestigious aspirations than Barnard students. At the other institutions, the results are in the predicted direction but they are not significant. Males at Columbia were compared to females at Barnard inasmuch as Barnard is considered to be Columbia's sister institution. Finding that females at Barnard are surpassed by males at Columbia is particularly significant in that females who are admitted to the college are bright women who like their male counterparts have met rather rigorous admissions requirements.

The obtained results seem harmonious with data reported by Horner (1968). Female and male students were asked to complete a story about a medical school student who found himself or herself at the top of the class after first term finals. The hypothetical student was the same sex as the respondent. Sixty-five percent of the women in comparison to eight percent of the males wrote stories which revealed anxiety concerning the achievement of high academic standing. Sex differences in the occupational aspirations of college students might well be a manifestation of females motive to avoid success.

Moreover, the assessment of the data shows how males and females differ in terms of the types of careers to which they aspire. Males are more likely than females to mention careers in business, medicine

and law. The opposite is true of careers in teaching, nursing and social work. Other researchers (Fichter, 1967; Gurin & Epps, 1975) obtained much the same results. Although a larger percentage of males than females in this study aspire to careers in medicine and law some women select those fields. Yet, there are differences in the specialties which males and females select. None of the females who indicate medicine mention any branch of surgery. Pediatrics and psychiatry are more common choices. Turning to law, males but not females indicate their interest in corporate law. The few women who aspire to become lawyers plan to enter criminal or family law. Moreover, males who report that they plan to become teachers want to enter the more prestigious field of secondary rather than elementary education.

Our findings are also in harmony with actual differences between males and females in employment patterns. McCord (1971) reported that regardless of race, males outnumbered females in business management positions. In addition, black males have been found to exceed black females in high level positions in the media industry (Nash, Regan & Stone, 1974). Examination of the 1976 directory of law professors reveals 37 women among the 226 blacks who were listed.

Our results on sex differences in educational goals are not in complete accord with earlier findings. Gurin and Epps (1975) reported that women attending predominantly black institutions were one and one half to two times more likely than men to aspire to the master's as the terminal degree. Conversely, black males aspired to and received doctorates more frequently than black females. Firstly, our overall comparison of male and female educational aspirations is not significant. Secondly, females aspire to the master's as well as the doctorate more

frequently than males. However, males surpass females in terms of the number who aspire to degrees in medicine and law. Female aspirations to doctorates also deviate from research conducted by Jackson (1968) where 91 percent of the black students who received their doctorates from historically black institutions were male. More recent research ("Number of Doctorates Awarded in the United States, 1973-76," 1978) reported that between 1973-1976, 2,253 black males but only 1,177 black females who attended institutions in the United States obtained doctorates in academic and professional fields.

Females in this study report significantly higher educational aspirations than one would expect on the basis of earlier research on college students' aspirations as well as actual data on the recipients of academic degrees. In light of the fact that in this study females' occupational aspirations are less prestigious than those of males it is strange that they report aspirations for doctorates more frequently than males. One possible explanation is that female students have higher goals than their predecessors. However, the likelihood of the influence of social desirability on females' reports of educational goals seems more probable.

Turning to the predictors of occupational goals, the findings are mixed. The prediction that socioeconomic status as measured by parental education is predictive of occupational prestige is not supported by the data. None of the correlations between parents education and occupational prestige are significant. Moreover, the multiple regressions computed on the total sample and on males and females separately also yield nonsignificant results. These findings are not in total agreement with some of the research which was cited earlier. Gurin and Epps

(1975) found that socioeconomic background was predictive of the prestige of male freshmen's occupational aspirations. The results with seniors were not significant. With female freshmen, the highest aspirations came from students with modest rather than affluent backgrounds. No significant results were obtained with female seniors. In the present study, socioeconomic status does not seem to be related to students' choices. It is interesting that socioeconomic status is unrelated to either male or female occupational aspirations. Research conducted by Sewell and Shah (1967) showed that socioeconomic status was more important to the aspirations of high school females than those of high school males.

Assessment of the relationship between socioeconomic status and parental and faculty social influence variables reveals mixed results. With the total sample and females father's education correlates with perception of parental reinforcement. Among females mother's education is a correlate of perception of parental reinforcement. A likely explanation for the significant results is that as level of parental education increases so does recognition of the importance of encouraging and supporting children's academic activities. This would seem to be an indirect way in which socioeconomic status influences occupational aspirations. The fact that the results are not significant with males warrants further investigation.

Turning to the relationship between satisfaction with faculty and parental education, the results are not significant. In presenting the rationale for the importance of socioeconomic status on the development of aspirations, Sewell, Haller and Ohlendorf (1970) maintained that the higher one's socioeconomic status, the more likely the individ-

ual to interact with significant others who convey high educational and occupational expectancies. Our data suggest that socioeconomic status is more important with parents than faculty or peers. With regard to peers, the only significant correlations were obtained with father's and mother's education and the prestige of the aspirations of females' friends.

In explaining the manner in which occupational aspirations develop, Sewell, Haller and Ohlendorf (1970) discussed the importance of academic performance. Correlation coefficients and multiple regressions reported here show that academic performance is predictive of the prestige of students' aspirations. This writer interpreted these significant results as supportive of Sewell, Haller and Ohlendorf's (1970) assertion that academic performance provides the students with an objective assessment of his or her chances for entering various professional fields. Inasmuch as the most prestigious professions are extremely competitive at the initial point of entry after college graduation, it seems that by the junior and senior years of college, on the basis of their academic performance, students should be able to assess themselves. The correlation coefficients yield some rather interesting information with regard to sex differences. The relationship between academic performance and occupational aspirations is stronger for males than females. Thus academic achievement is less strongly associated with the occupational goals of females than of males.

In addition to stating that academic performance had a direct influence upon occupational aspirations, Sewell, Haller and Ohlendorf maintained that grades indirectly affected occupational aspirations through their influence on significant others' expectancies. In this study aca-

ademic performance is not correlated with perception of parental reinforcement. Moreover, only females demonstrate a significant correlation between grade point average and satisfaction with faculty.

Turning to the direct influence of significant others, the findings consistently show the importance of the peer group. The prestige of friends' aspirations and peer press for achievement are predictive of the prestige of students' aspirations. These results are similar to the findings of studies mentioned earlier. For example Thistlethwaite (1966) reported that white students' plans for graduate school were strengthened by association with friends with high educational goals. According to Almquist and Angrist (1971), the occupational aspirations of white female college students were influenced by their friends' choices. Moreover, research conducted by Gurin and Epps showed that black undergraduates' aspirations were affected by the emphasis which the student body placed on academic issues. The number of students who stated that the decision to attend a particular college had been strongly affected by its academic reputation was used to assess academic stress. The peer group may be even more important to black students attending predominantly white colleges than to white or black students attending institutions where they constitute the majority of the student body. In describing black students attending predominantly white colleges, Willie (1971) stated that the peer group functions much like an extended family in meeting the student's needs. Slaby and Sealy's (1973) interviews with black undergraduates attending Yale provides evidence for the importance of peers. One of the students made the following statement. "Three fourths of blacks will just stick around other blacks. Although they may occasionally be seen with white friends,

they eat with blacks and party with blacks and if they take gut courses they try to take them with blacks" (p. 197). The findings in this study suggest that peer influence extends to students' goals. In discussing the mechanisms of peer influence, Sewell, Haller and Ohlendorf (1970) included peer modeling. The findings reported here indicate that by virtue of their occupational goals and emphasis on achievement, peers affect friends' occupational aspirations.

Although the data consistently show that peer press for achievement and prestige of friends' aspirations are predictive of student's goals, the study did not assess the importance of peer encouragement or discouragement of actual occupational aspirations. Future research should pursue that area. Moreover, the importance of encouragement from same sex as well as opposite sex peers should be determined. Particular emphasis should be placed on the effect of the attitudes of significant males on females' occupational choices.

Despite the fact that the correlations between parental reinforcement and occupational prestige reach significance for the total sample and males, none of the multiple regressions do. These nonsignificant results differ from results obtained in research on black elementary and secondary school students which demonstrated the importance of parental reinforcement on students' educational and occupational goals. At the college level Gurin and Katz (1966) reported that although parental influence was predictive of the prestige of black male freshmen's occupational aspirations, no significant results were obtained with seniors. With female freshmen, parental influence was predictive of entering traditionally feminine, less prestigious fields. No significant results were obtained with seniors. This writer believes

that the absence of significant results for seniors in Gurin and Katz might be indicative of student unwillingness to acknowledge parental influence. However, the results obtained in the present study indicate that with college juniors and seniors, parental reinforcement is not predictive of students' goals. These findings might simply mean that perception of parental reinforcement is not important to the development of aspirations. Prior to accepting this as definitive at least one other possibility should be considered. The measure used in the current study might not have tapped the key component of parental reinforcement. Students were asked to indicate the importance which their parents placed on academic achievement. An instrument which assesses the student's perception of parental efforts to implement achievement might be more revealing. There may be a major difference between the importance which parents place on achievement and their efforts to facilitate achievement.

Males demonstrate a significant relationship between satisfaction with faculty and occupational aspirations. The multiple regression indicates that satisfaction with faculty is predictive of occupational goals. The correlation coefficient computed as part of that regression is negative thereby being in the opposite direction from the prediction. The results with the total sample and females are not significant. These results deviate from those obtained in other studies. Thistlethwaite (1959) reported that colleges which were very successful in having their graduates go on to obtain doctorates had faculty members whose relationships with students were characterized by informality and warmth. In a later study, Thistlethwaite (1960) reported that the educational aspirations of white college students were

positively related to faculty evaluations which made them think they had potential for making contributions to the field. Karman's (1973) study revealed that communication with faculty was related to the non-traditionality of white female students' occupational goals. The importance of faculty influence on black students' goals has also been demonstrated. Gurin and Epps (1975) reported the importance of student-faculty interactions, particularly outside of the classroom, on students' occupational goals. Inasmuch as the scale in the current study measures aspects of the student-faculty relationship which earlier studies identified as being related to occupational and educational goals, the explanation for nonsignificant results obtained here does not seem to rest with the instrument. Certain differences between the samples examined in these studies should be noted. In the current study most of the faculty members with whom the black students interacted were white. In the other investigations a majority of the faculty members were of the same race as the students. The absence of significant results here might indicate that students do not view their instructors as credible evaluators, since they are representative of predominantly white institutions which for the most part have failed to demonstrate that they are strongly committed to black students.

In this study assessment of the importance of subjects' sex on satisfaction with black as opposed to white faculty did not reveal significant results. Yet, an analysis of black students' feelings about white and black faculty should be performed. A technique for accomplishing this would be to compare black students' satisfaction with white as opposed to black faculty. The difficulty with that is locating black students who have had more than minimal contact with black

instructors. Future research should also assess the importance of faculty role modeling.

The obtained statistical findings concerning the relationship between self concept of ability and occupational aspirations are inconsistent. Correlation coefficients computed on the total sample and on males and females examined separately are significant. However, the multiple regressions do not indicate that self concept of ability is predictive of occupational aspirations. The latter findings deviate from earlier research (Gurin & Katz, 1966; Gurin & Epps, 1975) which demonstrated the relationship between self concept of ability and occupational choice.

In this study, self concept of ability's relationship with academic performance and the social influence variables were examined. Payne and Farquhar (1962) discussed the importance of feedback received from academic situations as well as from significant others in the development of self concept of ability. The significant correlation obtained in this study between grade point average and self concept of ability indicates the relevance of the school experience. Moreover, self concept of ability is correlated with perception of parental reinforcement. Parental reinforcement is viewed as conveying important information to the student about parents' academic expectations. Thus, there is support for the assertion that the feedback which one receives from one's parents is related to self concept of ability. Moreover, the significant correlation between satisfaction with faculty and self concept of ability points out the importance of feedback from college instructors.

No predictions about the relationships between self concept

of ability and the peer social influence variables were made inasmuch as peer press for achievement and prestige of friends' aspirations only provide information about the performance of peers. However, both variables are significantly correlated with self concept of ability.

Multiple regressions computed on the total sample and on males and females separately indicate that prestige of friends' aspirations, peer press for achievement and grade point average are predictive of the prestige of students' occupational aspirations. It is important to note that the variables are not equally predictive of male and female aspirations, the percentages being 47.08 and 38.64. This suggests that variables which are important in the development of the aspirations of females should be included in an examination of this area. Moreover, the appropriateness of altering the model used here is underscored by its limited success in explaining sex differences in occupational aspirations. A particularly important result is that males' friends have significantly higher aspirations than females' friends. This is reasonable inasmuch as (a) males' aspirations are significantly higher than those of females and (b) individuals usually select their close friends from their own sex. Since data obtained in this study clearly indicate that the prestige of friends' aspirations is predictive of occupational aspirations, the fact that males surpass females on this variable indicates that males are in an advantageous position. Also, males score significantly higher than females on self concept of ability. Since self concept of ability is not consistently predictive of occupational choice, this finding is not particularly helpful in explaining why males and females have such different occupational aspirations. It is not justifiable to attribute males' more prestigious aspirations to their higher grade

point averages, since males and females do not differ significantly on this variable. In fact males and females do not differ significantly on any of the remaining personality variables. However, in light of the suggested changes discussed earlier concerning the measurement of parental reinforcement and faculty influence, males and females should be compared on these altered variables.

Research conducted by Slaby and Sealy (1973) on black females attending Yale University is relevant to this discussion of the reasons why females aspire to less prestigious careers than males. In their study one coed offered an interesting response to a question about what she hoped her life would be like in twenty years. Her response was as follows: "Living in New York or Paris... married with two children... a free lance architect and married to someone with formal education through college at least, a male chauvinist who would let me work at home as long as I take care of the house and kids" (p. 197). This student deviated from many females in that she aspired to a profession which is traditionally entered by men. Yet, her intention to pursue her career on a free lance basis suggests that her commitment to her career was not that strong. Moreover, her statement that her husband would allow her to work at home as long as she fulfilled her domestic duties indicates that she did not expect to be in complete control of her professional life. This might be an important clue as to why such a large percentage of females aspire to traditionally feminine fields such as teaching, nursing or social work. These fields unlike traditionally masculine ones such as medicine and law, allow them to function full-time in a profession simultaneously with assuming the responsibilities of wifhood and motherhood. Future research should pursue

this line of reasoning by determining the importance of marital plans on students' occupational aspirations. This should be accompanied by examining the relationship between conception of marriage and occupational goals. While marital plans may have an influence on students' occupational aspirations, this is only one part of the explanation. Future research should focus on determining the importance of fundamental goals of life on occupational aspirations.

Finding that black females have less prestigious aspirations than black males is an adequate rationale for performing in depth research on black females independently of black males so as to delve into unique black female experiences which relate to their occupational goals.

Females who differ in terms of the prestige of their occupational aspirations should be compared on demonstrated predictors of occupational goals as well as on variables suggested for future study. New research in the area might determine if females who are first generation college students select less prestigious careers than students whose parents attended college. This seems logical when the occupational choice patterns of European immigrant groups are considered. Turning specifically to females in teaching, an analysis of the backgrounds of white teachers working in public schools in New York City (Clark, 1970) shows that many of these teachers came from lower socioeconomic backgrounds. One would infer from this that they represent the first generation of college graduates.

Moreover, future research should assess the importance of various aspects of the college environment. Courses offered by the colleges in women's studies, special counseling services and percentage of fe-

male faculty members are among the characteristics which have special significance for black female students. The availability of child care facilities on college campuses should also be determined inasmuch as such a large percentage of black females who attend college have children. Podell (1977) reported that 33.8 percent of black females attending senior divisions of the City University had children who were living with them.

Future research on the occupational aspirations of black females should examine the role of the women's movement. Historically, black involvement has been considerably less strong than white involvement. This has been attributed to a conflict between the black liberation movement and the women's movement. However, there are indications that black women are formulating their interests as women simultaneously with their interests as blacks. Lewis (1977) cited a couple of collective groups of women, namely the National Black Feminist Organization and Black Women Organized For Action which have recently been organized by black women. One participant at the 1973 conference of the National Black Feminists Organization made the following statement: "While we share with our men a history of toil and dignity, it is categorically different to be black and a woman in this society than it has been to be black and male" (p.347). In light of indicators which suggest a growing responsiveness of black women to the feminist struggle, the relationship between acceptance of the feminist philosophy and occupational choices should be examined.

APPENDIX

THE STUDENT INFORMATION QUESTIONNAIRE

Instructions

This is a research questionnaire. In it you will be asked for a variety of information about your plans, background and attitudes. Your answers will provide needed information about college students. Much of the information from this questionnaire may be very useful in planning for the higher education of other students. This questionnaire is not a test. The only right answers are those which identify your aspirations, experiences and attitudes. The answers of individual subjects will not be singled out. The results which will be in the form of statistical summaries will only be used for research purposes. Your anticipated cooperation in this study is appreciated.

STUDENT INFORMATION QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Name _____ 2. Date of Birth _____
3. Place of Birth _____
4. How many credits have you completed? _____
5. What is your grade point average? _____
6. What is your major? _____
7. How many credits have you completed in your major? _____
8. Do you plan to go to graduate school? Yes ___ No ___
9. What schools are you considering? _____

10. What is the highest degree you plan to obtain? B.A. ___ M.A. ___ Ph.D. ___
Other _____
11. After completing your education, what occupational field do you plan to enter? If you are not sure, list the ones you are considering.

12. What are your parents' usual occupations?
Father _____
Mother _____
13. Is your father working now? Yes ___ No ___
14. While you were growing up did he usually work at that occupation?
Yes ___ No ___
15. Is your mother working now? Yes ___ No ___
16. While you were growing up did she work? Yes ___ No ___
17. While you were growing up did she usually work at that occupation?
Yes ___ No ___

18. How far did your parents go in school?

	Father	Mother
a. Less than high school	_____	_____
b. Some high school	_____	_____
c. Completed high school	_____	_____
d. Some college	_____	_____
e. Completed college	_____	_____
f. Advanced or professional degree	_____	_____

19. What occupations do your three best friends plan to enter?

	Name	Occupation
Friend A	_____	_____
Friend B	_____	_____
Friend C	_____	_____

Underline true or false for the following ten items.

20. My friends with top grades are admired by other friends. T__F__
21. On the average, my friends spend less than four hours a day in study outside the classroom. T__F__
22. It is hard to find any of my friends in the library on Friday afternoon. T__F__
23. My friends spend a lot of time planning their intellectual careers. T__F__
24. My friends study places are typically noisy and distracting. T__F__
25. Most of my friends here have strong intellectual commitments. T__F__
26. Most of my friends are planning graduate work. T__F__
27. A friend who wants to rewrite a paper after it has already been accepted is pretty unusual. T__F__
28. Most of my friends here are genuinely interested in learning and studying. T__F__

29. My friends who work hard for high grades are likely to be regarded as odd. T__F__
30. How important is it to your parents that you receive good grades in school?
- not very important
 - fairly important
 - quite important
 - extremely important
31. What importance do your parents place on your college attendance?
- not very important
 - fairly important
 - quite important
 - extremely important
32. How important is it to your parents that you go to graduate school?
- not very important
 - fairly important
 - quite important
 - extremely important
33. How successful would you say that your instructors at this college have been in challenging you to produce to the limit of your intellectual and creative capacities?
- They have been wholly unsuccessful.
 - Several have been somewhat successful.
 - Several have been quite successful.
 - Almost all have succeeded in continuously challenging my intellectual capacities.
34. How many faculty members at this college have provided personal evaluations of your work which made you think that you might become a creative or productive worker in their fields?
- none
 - one
 - two or three
 - more than three
35. Of the instructors you have had, about what proportion would you say came to know you by name?
- almost none
 - less than half
 - over half
 - almost all

36. What proportion of the faculty members you have observed in this college would you say are genuinely interested in students and their problems?
- very few
 - less than half
 - over half
 - almost all
37. On the whole, how satisfied are you with the opportunity you have had in your college career to meet with your instructors privately about course work and your own progress?
- mostly dissatisfied
 - fairly satisfied
 - quite satisfied
 - extremely satisfied
38. At the present time are there any faculty members at this college to whom you feel responsible and whom you believe feel particularly responsible for you?
- no, there aren't any
 - yes, there is one
 - there are two
 - there are more than two
39. Have you had the feeling that some of your instructors have judged you more on the basis of extraneous or irrelevant factors than on the quality of your work?
- quite often
 - once in awhile
 - very rarely
 - never
40. Of the following, which group would you say was more successful in challenging you to the limit of your intellectual and creative capacities?
- male instructors
 - female instructors
 - about equal
41. Of the following, which group would you say was more successful in challenging you to the limit of your intellectual and creative capacities?
- black instructors
 - white instructors
 - about equal

42. Of the following, which group would you say was most successful in challenging you to the limit of your intellectual and creative capacities?
- black males
 - black females
 - white males
 - white females
 - about equal
43. Of the following, which group would you say more successfully provided you with personal evaluations which made you think you might become a productive worker in the field?
- black instructors
 - white instructors
 - about equal
44. Of the following which group most successfully provided you with personal evaluations which made you think you might become a productive worker in the field?
- black males
 - black females
 - white males
 - white females
 - about equal
45. How do rate yourself in school ability compared with your close friends?
- I am the best.
 - I am above average.
 - I am average.
 - I am below average.
 - I am the poorest.
46. How do rate yourself in school ability compared with those in your class at school?
- I am the best.
 - I am above average.
 - I am average.
 - I am below average.
 - I am the poorest.
47. Where do you think you would rank in your class at school?
- among the best
 - above average
 - average
 - below average
 - among the poorest

48. Do you think you have the ability to complete graduate school?
- a. yes, definitely
 - b. yes, probably
 - c. not sure either way
 - d. probably not
 - e. no
49. Where do you think you would rank in your class in graduate school?
- a. among the best
 - b. above average
 - c. average
 - d. below average
 - e. among the poorest
50. In order to become a doctor, lawyer or university professor, work beyond four years of college is necessary. How likely do you think it is that you could complete such advanced work?
- a. very likely
 - b. somewhat likely
 - c. not sure either way
 - d. unlikely
 - e. most unlikely
51. Forget for a moment how others grade your school work. In your own opinion, how good do you think your work is?
- a. My work is excellent.
 - b. My work is good.
 - c. My work is average.
 - d. My work is below average.
 - e. My work is much below average.
52. What kind of grades do you think you are capable of getting?
- a. mostly A's
 - b. mostly B's
 - c. mostly C's
 - d. mostly D's
 - e. mostly F's

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