

DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 046 572

24

RC 004 965

AUTHOR Trujillo, Rupert
TITLE Rural New Mexicans: Their Educational and Occupational Aspirations.
INSTITUTION New Mexico State Univ., University Park. ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools.
SPONS AGENCY Office of Education (DHEW), Washington, D.C. Bureau of Research.
BUREAU NO BR-6-2469
PUB DATE Jan 71
CONTRACT OEC-1-6-062469-1574
NOTE 34p.

EDRS PRICE MF-\$0.65 HC-\$3.29
DESCRIPTORS *Academic Aspiration, Attitudes, *Home Programs, *Occupational Aspiration, Research, Rural Development, *Rural Family, *Socioeconomic Status

ABSTRACT

The study tested a general hypothesis that there is a positive relationship between amount of experience in an educational-occupational program and level of occupational and educational aspirations. Two other hypotheses were tested: (1) that there is a relationship between general beliefs which tend to affect ability to adapt to urban economic life and the amount of experience in an educational-occupational program and (2) that there is a relationship between level of occupational and educational aspirations, general beliefs which tend to affect ability to adapt to urban economic life, and school attitudes and family values and norms. The sample comprised 200 rural subjects: 110 students and 90 adults. Two adult groups (the experimental groups) either had received home construction training or had had their houses improved, while 2 adult control groups were similar in significant characteristics but had not participated in house renovation programs. The 2 groups of students resided in the homes of these adults. Instruments used in the study were Haller's "Occupational Aspiration Scale," Michigan State University's "Work Beliefs Check-List," and 2 scales devised by the investigator. Data were analyzed using 1-way and 2-way analyses of variance and analysis of covariance. It was found that a positive relationship exists between amount of experience in an educational-occupational program and level of occupational and educational aspirations. (LS)

ED0 46572

RURAL NEW MEXICANS:
THEIR EDUCATIONAL AND OCCUPATIONAL ASPIRATIONS

by

RUPERT TRUJILLO, Ed.D.

Director, Teacher Corps
New Mexico State University

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION
& WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION
THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED
EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR
ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF
VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECES-
SARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL OFFICE OF EDU-
CATION POSITION OR POLICY.

EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)
CLEARINGHOUSE ON RURAL EDUCATION AND SMALL SCHOOLS (CRESS)

New Mexico State University
Las Cruces, New Mexico 88001

January 1971

This publication was prepared pursuant to a grant with the Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Contractors undertaking such projects under Government sponsorship are encouraged to express freely their judgment in professional and technical matters. Points of view or opinions do not, therefore, necessarily represent official Office of Education position or policy.

ED0 4965
ERIC
Full Text Provided by ERIC

PREFACE

Legislation enacted in August of 1964 called for funds which would be utilized to rehabilitate urban and rural communities, promote adult education and training, and so forth. This legislation caused many programs to be set in motion in efforts to achieve the stated objectives; however, many of these programs have been stalled and thwarted due to lack of knowledge concerning aspirations, attitudes, values, beliefs, and psychology of the target populations.

The present writer has made an effort to assess empirically the aspirations and beliefs of rural youth and adults as a result of their participation in an adult educational program.

PURPOSES OF THE STUDY

Within the framework of level of aspiration theory, investigation was made of the effects of a program (a) which provided underemployed and unemployed rural adults with training in home construction and adult basic education and (b) which sponsored renovation of substandard houses of eligible welfare clients in Sandoval County, New Mexico. Educational and occupational aspirations of rural adults and students, and general areas of beliefs which tend to affect individual ability to adapt to conditions of urban economic life were investigated, as well as school attitudes of students. These students resided in the homes of adults who had participated in the educational-occupational program. Reference group theory was therefore implicated in the study.

IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY

Today in America, millions of dollars are being invested in human capital through many different educational and occupational programs -- including those dealing with the war on poverty. This investment has stimulated efforts to determine the effects of education both on regional and racial inequalities and on the relationship between education and employment. The fact that education has a positive effect on lifetime earnings and occupation, plus the existence of significant differences in the rates of return to different types of education, helps to explain why different types of educational programs are set in motion. However, relatively little

research and evaluation have taken place in most programs designed to fight poverty. We seem to be highly interested in inputs and processes but, for some reason, we fail to be equally concerned with outputs.

Research by Haller (1) has shown that farm-reared people have low levels of occupational achievement in the non-farm world. Lipset (2) has tried to explain this by pointing to the retarding effects of limited occupational and educational alternatives (supposedly characterizing rural life) on levels of occupational and educational aspirations. Various researchers (3) have demonstrated amply that men reared on farms tend to have less success in the job market than do those reared elsewhere.

Farm areas have contributed a large portion of the non-farm population to the nation and the world. Today, about one-third of the non-farm population of the United States was reared on farms. Doubtless this proportion will decrease with the continuing decrease in the farm population but, even so, basic research designed to account for the occupational success and failure of the farm-reared is important because these people probably will continue to contribute a numerically large segment of the American labor force, even though their proportionate contribution decreases. Research is needed to determine the factors which tend to reduce the potential occupational achievement levels of these people, both to help in their personal adjustments and to reduce the talent loss in society.

Data gathered for the present study should suggest whether changes of

certain conditions in parents' lives are related to school attitudes of youth and should, further, provide information about programs which affect educational and occupational aspirations of rural youth and adults. Finally, the findings should contribute to theory development.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The following discussion of occupational aspiration level (see definition in Appendix) analyzes how this concept is linked to the more general level of aspiration theory. The discussion considers a number of central concepts related to aspiration. A person's orientation and how it varies is considered to be one major point of reference. Perception of performance on the part of the individual is also considered an important concept.

There are a number of important works on the general concept of level of aspiration, such as those by Gardner (4), Lewin et al. (5), and Frank (6). According to these studies, "level of aspiration" has several elements. At its most fundamental level, the term indicates that one or more persons are oriented toward a goal. Both the goal and the person's orientations to the goal are complex. The person's goal is one among the alternative behavior levels which are possible with respect to any object.

These alternative behavior levels may vary in the degree to which the objects are difficult to achieve. In other words, the alternatives are ranked on a continuum of difficulty. On the other hand, the person's

orientation is variable in two ways:

- a. Its central tendency may exist at any point or limited range of points which is the highest preference for a person -- this is a person's level of aspiration. "Differential level aspiration" implies variation in the point of preference when it is estimated at different times for the same person. In this study, the term is restricted to variations among persons.
- b. The central tendency may vary in the amount of dispersion (i.e., the degree to which it is concentrated at a single point, or varies over a range of points on the continuum of difficulty).

Frank (7) spoke of level of aspiration as being the level of future performance in a familiar task which an individual, knowing his past performance in that task, explicitly undertakes to reach. The level of past performance is the individual's perception of his accomplishment, regardless of his perceptual accuracy.

False definitions of performance are no less important than real definitions of life space conditions because the relation of the level of aspiration to the level of past performance depends, according to Frank, upon three needs:

- a. The need to keep the level of aspiration as high as possible regardless of performance. Taken by itself, this need tends to keep the level of aspiration above the level of past performance.
- b. The need to make the level of aspiration approximate the level of future performance as closely as possible.
- c. The need to avoid failure, where failure is defined as a level of performance, below the level of aspiration.... This tends to drive the level of aspiration below the level of past performance.

In addition, a person may have a range of aspirations with rough upper and lower boundaries. The whole range may vary according to whether he is concerned with immediate or more distant goals. A person distinguishes between what he is certain he can do and what he hopes he can do.

"Expression levels" is a concept used to estimate the points which bound the range of a person's level of aspiration at any one time. Estimates of the lower and upper boundaries are called the "realistic" and "idealistic" expression levels, respectively. "Time-dimension periods" is the concept utilized to estimate a person's level of aspiration at different times. Near or distant estimates for the future are called "short-range" and "long-range" time-dimension periods, respectively.

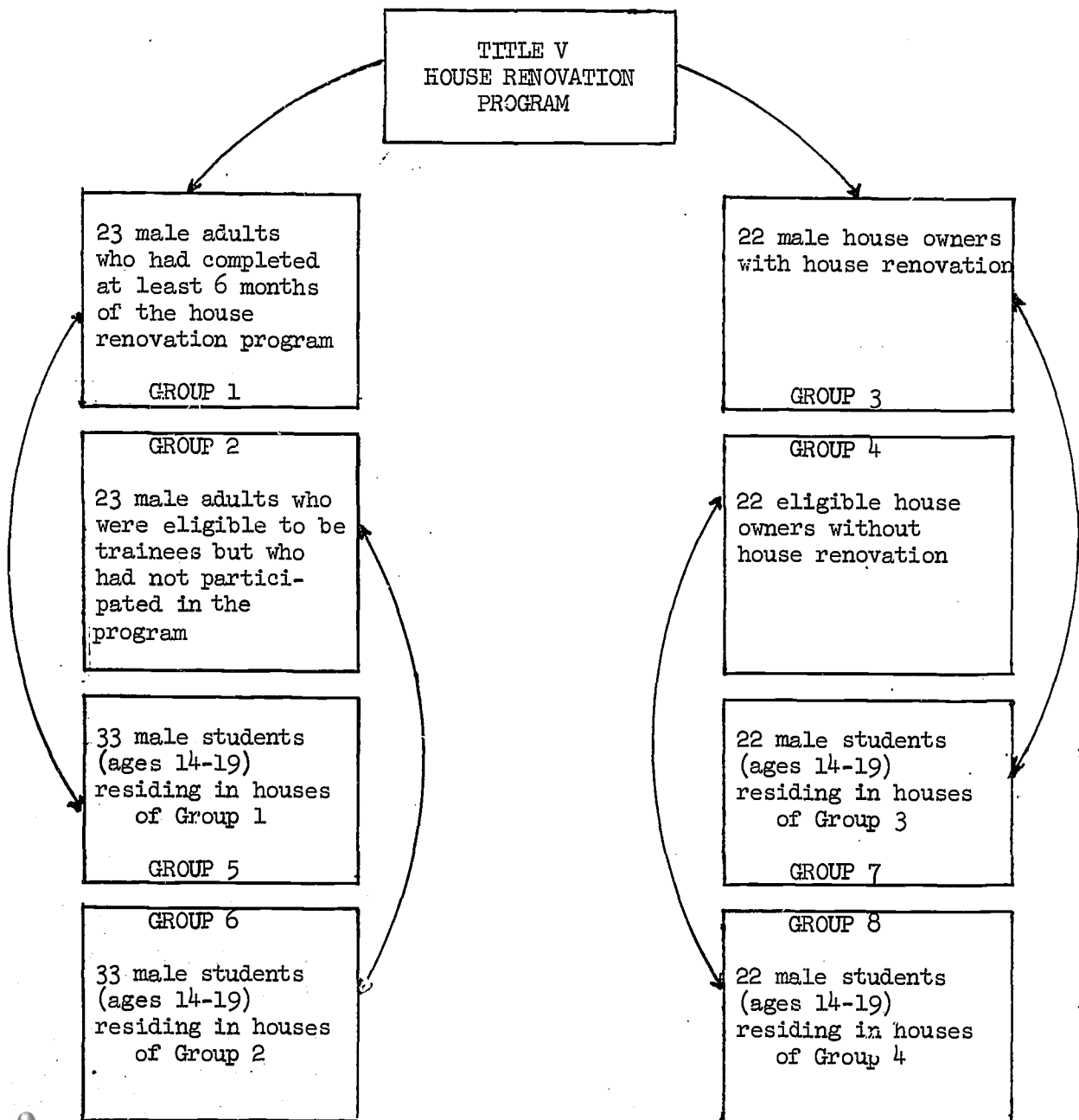
The concept "level of occupational aspiration" (LOA) is a special form of the more general concept. The LOA differs from the general concept by taking the occupational hierarchy as its object. Therefore, the continuum of difficulty consists of the various levels along the hierarchy.

THE SAMPLE AND PROCEDURES

Four groups of students and four groups of adults were selected for the sample (Figure 1). Two groups of adults (the experimental groups) either had received home construction training or had had their houses improved; the two adult control groups were similar in significant characteristics to the experimental groups but had not participated in the house renovation program. The students in the sample resided in the homes of these adults. The total sample comprised 200 subjects: 110 students and 90 adults.

Approximately 40 percent of the subjects were Indian, 59 percent were Spanish-speaking, and 1 percent were non-Spanish Caucasian.

Figure 1
SAMPLE BREAKDOWN



Instruments used in the study included Haller's Occupational Aspiration Scale (OAS), Michigan State University's Work Beliefs Check-List, and two instruments devised by the investigator to measure educational aspirations and school attitudes: the School Attitude Instrument and the Adequate Education Scale.

The tests were administered by the investigator with the help of one Indian- and two Spanish-speaking persons. About sixty minutes were necessary to complete the actual test administration and data gathering for each subject. The researcher translated questions when it was necessary.

Data were analyzed using the appropriate statistical techniques: one-way and two-way analyses of variance and analysis of covariance. Statistical treatments applied to the data were done by an IBM 360 computer at the University of New Mexico. All data were placed on IBM cards in accordance with the coding system devised by the researcher. Information gained through the various data analyses was then applied to the research hypotheses.

HYPOTHESES

The study tested the general hypothesis that there is a positive relationship between amount of experience in an educational-occupational program and level of occupation and educational aspirations. Also tested was the hypothesis that there is a relationship between general areas of beliefs which tend to affect an individual's ability to adapt to conditions of urban economic life and the amount of experience in an educational-occupational

program. The third hypothesis tested was that there is a relationship between level of occupational and educational aspirations, general areas of beliefs which tend to affect an individual's ability to adapt to conditions of urban economic life, and school attitudes and values and norms of the family.

Specific Operational Null Hypotheses

1. There is no difference between the total test scores of adults in groups 1 and 2 and between the total test scores of adults in groups 3 and 4 on the OAS.
 - 1.1 There is no difference between the OAS short-range realistic and idealistic test scores of adults in groups 1 and 2 and between the short-range realistic and idealistic test scores of adults in groups 3 and 4.
 - 1.2 There is no difference between the OAS long-range realistic and idealistic test scores of adults in groups 1 and 2 and between the long-range realistic and idealistic test scores of adults in groups 3 and 4.
2. There is no difference between the total test scores of students in groups 5 and 6 and between the total test scores of students in groups 7 and 8 on the OAS.
 - 2.1 There is no difference between the OAS short-range realistic and idealistic test scores of students in groups 5 and 6 and between the short-range realistic and idealistic test scores of students in groups 7 and 8.
 - 2.2 There is no difference between the OAS long-range realistic and idealistic test scores of students in groups 5 and 6 and between the long-range realistic and idealistic test scores of students in groups 7 and 8.
3. There is no difference between the test scores of adults in groups 1 and 2; between the test scores of adults in groups 3 and 4; between the test scores of students in groups 5 and 6; and between the test scores of students in groups 7 and 8 on the Work Beliefs Check-List.

4. There is no difference between the test scores of students in groups 5 and 6 and between the test scores of students in groups 7 and 8 on the School Attitude Instrument.
5. There is no difference between the test scores of adults in groups 1 and 2; and between the test scores of adults in groups 3 and 4; between the test scores of students in groups 5 and 6; and between the test scores of students in groups 7 and 8 on the Adequate Education Scale.

FINDINGS

Two types of findings emerged as the study progressed. The first type includes those findings which resulted from tests of the research hypotheses. The second type includes information subjected to post factum analysis.

A significant finding was that the adult educational training under consideration in this study served to change attitudes of participants as well as their offspring. It was found, for example, that a positive relationship existed between short-range idealistic aspirations of adults and living in a house that had been renovated. The educational aspirations of adults who received training were found to be higher than the educational aspirations of adults who had not received the training (Table I).

TABLE I

ADJUSTED MEAN SCORES ON EDUCATIONAL ASPIRATIONS
OF ADULTS WHO RECEIVED TRAINING AND ADULTS
WHO DID NOT

Trainees	Non-trainees	Difference
36.32	24.34	11.98*

*Statistically significant at .01 level.

Occupational aspirations of adults who completed training were found to decline as the time since completion of training elapsed (Table II and Figure 2). It seems that occupational aspirations rise as adults receive training because of their assumption that they will be more employable after training. This assumption does not necessarily hold true, however. Upon completion of training, the adults are not high school graduates and they do not have sufficient normal work experience. These two factors seem to be held in high regard by potential employers.

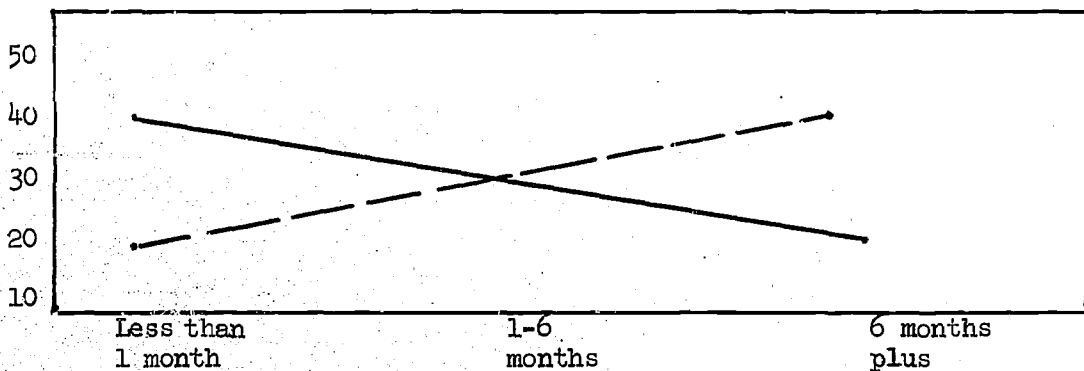
TABLE II
ONE-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF ADULTS' OCCUPATIONAL
ASPIRATIONS OVER TIME

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F
Treatments	2	530.0	265.0	6.95*
Within	20	762.0	38.08	
Total	22	1291.0		

*Significant at .01 level.

Figure 2

OCCUPATIONAL ASPIRATIONS OF TRAINEES OVER TIME



— Occupational Aspirations

- - - Educational Aspirations

The fact that post-trainees have low occupational aspirations seems to have implications for their offspring. No differences in occupational aspirations were found between students whose parents had completed training and students whose parents had not (Table III).

Another major finding was the fact that, in all cases, students had higher aspirations than their parents. The most pronounced difference was revealed by students living with adults who had received training.

TABLE III
ADJUSTED MEAN SCORES ON OCCUPATIONAL ASPIRATIONS
OF TRAINEE STUDENTS AND NON-TRAINEE STUDENTS

Dependent Variables	Trainee Students	Non-trainee Students	Difference
<u>OAS</u>	27.70	27.55	.15
Short-range realistic	4.61	4.76	.15
Short-range idealistic	7.36	7.33	.03
Long-range realistic	7.94	7.94	.00
Long-range idealistic	8.27	8.27	.00

Probably the most noteworthy finding was in regard to aspirations of students and home improvement. A positive relationship was found between

attitudes toward change, mobility, and adaptability and living in improved homes (Table IV shows the relationship). These students also revealed higher aspirations than students who had not had their houses renovated (mean scores are shown on Table V) and attended school more regularly than students from homes which had not been improved (Table VI).

It is conceivable that being present in school can probably lead to higher scholastic achievement. Regular attendance allows the individual to experience sequential lessons and units. This exposure to continuous instruction, as opposed to sporadic exposure, has a positive effect on cognition. The increase in use of cognitive processes makes it possible for the individual to experience success. As the person experiences success, he will also come to have a higher estimate of his own ability. Thus, the individual modifies his self-concept and, with a more positive self-image, higher achievement is possible. This chain of events might well set a spiral in motion in which teachers, parents, and peers form a higher estimate of the individual.

TABLE IV

ADJUSTED MEAN SCORES ON WORK BELIEFS CHECK-LIST
OF STUDENTS RESIDING IN RENOVATED HOUSES AND STUDENTS
RESIDING IN NON-RENOVATED HOUSES

Students in Renovated Houses	Students in Non-renovated Houses	Difference
32.00	29.19	2.81*

*Statistically significant at .05 level.

TABLE V

ADJUSTED MEAN SCORES ON OCCUPATIONAL ASPIRATIONS
OF STUDENTS RESIDING IN RENOVATED HOUSES AND STUDENTS
RESIDING IN NON-RENOVATED HOUSES

Dependent Variables	Students in Renovated Houses	Students in Non-renovated Houses	Difference
<u>OAS</u>	38.33	26.37	11.96*
Short-range realistic	8.76	4.52	4.24*
Short-range idealistic	11.38	6.43	4.95*
Long-range realistic	11.57	6.00	5.57*
Long-range idealistic	12.52	6.57	5.95*

*Statistically significant at .01 level.

TABLE VI

ADJUSTED MEAN SCORES ON ATTITUDE TOWARD SCHOOL
OF TRAINEE STUDENTS AND NON-TRAINEE STUDENTS, AND
STUDENTS RESIDING IN RENOVATED HOUSES AND STUDENTS
RESIDING IN NON-RENOVATED HOUSES

Trainee Students	Non-trainee Students	Difference
16.99	18.04	1.05
Students in Renovated Houses	Students in Non-renovated Houses	Difference
12.65	28.35	15.70*

*Statistically significant at .01 level.

Note that a high score using this instrument reflected a negative attitude.

CONCLUSIONS

The conclusions focus on three major areas: (a) effects of adult training, (b) effects of home improvement, and (c) relationship between home environment and student attitudes.

Effects of Adult Training and Education

It appears that the training and adult basic education which the participants experienced contributed to attitudinal change. This factor is particularly significant when one considers the brevity of the training period. Of course, the relationship found between occupational and educational aspirations over time must be considered. It seems that the training which adults undergo tends to reinforce the idea that the individual's opportunities for employment will be greater as a result of the training. This idea is partially faulty and has negative implications for the individual. As trainees face the employment world, frequently they are not employed because the existing organizational employment structure is discriminatory toward potential employees lacking a high school education or years of experience. Therefore, the individual encountering these restrictions develops the idea that his economic progress is inevitably linked to further education -- an idea that is very possibly true. This factor is probably instrumental in developing rising educational aspirations.

Effects of Home Improvement

Dewey (3) stated that "the world is hopeless for one without hope." As the writer conducted the research for this study, one of the most striking observations was the new pride exhibited by people who had their houses renovated. These people conveyed the notion that the world is full of hope for one with hope. This feeling is understandable when one recalls the extremely marginal circumstances under which most of these people existed. Prior to improvement, the houses were definitely substandard -- being characterized by lack of running water, sod flooring, leaking roofs, and extremely cramped living space. When night descended upon these substandard homes, it was not uncommon to find wall-to-wall mattresses supporting people who were gazing at the stars from within the confines of their crumbling walls and ceilings. Is it any wonder that the world appears different to the inhabitants when living conditions are drastically improved?

One might ask, if such newfound hope prevailed, why did it not reveal itself more strongly through the testing? A plausible explanation might be that the population for this study had not had successful contacts with education; consequently, a certain amount of test resistance was present, despite the best efforts of the researcher to establish rapport.

The most notable result of this study was the discovery of a relationship between home improvement and the development of increased student aspirations and more positive attitudes toward change, mobility, and adaptability. It was noted that students from improved houses attended school

more regularly than students from unimproved houses. Granted, merely being present in school is no guarantee that more learning will occur. Nevertheless, it is argued that most school "dropouts" have sporadic attendance which bears heavily on their lack of achievement. It should, therefore, follow that if students attend school more regularly, they should also improve their scholastic achievements.

While relatively high educational aspirations appear to have been internalized by all students in the study, this was more pronounced in program students. It can be argued that the mass communications media transmit the commonly accepted notion that education is a "cure-all." Secondly, schools have been highly successful in reinforcing this societal value. It should be noted, however, that the phenomenon of anomie occurs when there is internalization of society's values and goals without there being equal access to the means or opportunity structures. Obviously, this occurs with many youths, particularly those from the middle and lower classes. This occurrence raises the question of the school's role in contributing to social unrest by promulgating "unrealistic" educational expectations for young people.

Generally speaking, the population considered in this study exhibits attitudes and beliefs different from those of the urban population (9). It seems that rural people remain well-rooted in their traditional patterns of beliefs, which are frequently dysfunctional. This phenomenon may be

remedied in two ways: (a) efforts may be made to change these beliefs in order that rural people may make a more successful adjustment to the exigencies of urban life and (b) efforts may be made to regenerate rural settings through new inputs. This regeneration can take advantage of the existing social structure of the rural community despite the isolation and physical decay of such communities.

Some questions need to be asked and answered. What do we do with, not for, our rural people to ensure that once a bright horizon is observed it does not recede? Can better living conditions be obtained by the millions of Americans living in urban and rural slums? Consider how farm subsidies range in the billions of dollars per year but markedly benefit only a few. Improving living conditions for millions of Americans is far less expensive, creates jobs and houses, and gives people pride, hope, and dignity.

The writer discovered that many "affluent" people in communities where the study was conducted had nothing but criticism for poverty programs. No effort was made to determine if affluent people were opposed to "poverty programs" or to "poor people." It appears that some of the criticism leveled at poverty programs could just as well be true of other "non-poverty" programs. It was strange, for instance, to find that many negative remarks were directed toward people who had participated in two or three programs. Those persons were classified as "program hoppers" or "jumpers," with appropriate accompanying adjectives.

It is possible that a "poor" person who participates in several programs is exhibiting those much-praised American values: individual initiative, optimism, and determination. Perhaps the poor person is returning for more education -- the American panacea -- when the first educational program proves inadequate for job placement.

IMPLICATIONS

Adult education and training in our society have become extensive activities, and it appears that we are merely at the beginning. Many people are engaged full time in work directly related to the education of adults -- for example, teachers in night schools, managers, foremen, coaches, librarians, extension agents, and program directors in social agencies. Usually these practitioners have been trained in some field other than that of adult education, but they are expected to display superior competence in many skills and fields of knowledge. However, little attention has been paid to adult learning, and little has been done to bring the many psychological theories about learning into a coherent scheme applicable to adults.

In many practical fields such as training research, much is being learned about learning. Probably in a very real sense, the laboratory for adult learning is not in the classroom; it is found in fields of practice. Yet seldom has application been made, beyond the immediate field itself, of what has been learned in these many promising experiments.

It appears that a synthesis of theory and experience regarding the

learning of adults is needed. The field is so vast, however, that such a synthesis probably will result only from the efforts of a team of workers.

Adults face a very difficult obstacle when it comes to their formal education. In relation to adult education and training, there seem to be two main limits to human growth and development. One is the real, practical limit of one's maximum ability or potential capacity. The other is also very real; it is the psychological limit which each man places upon himself. The barriers that most restrict and hobble people are those which they fashion for themselves. "We have met the enemy and they are us." This seems to be even more applicable to persons from low socioeconomic backgrounds.

People tend to limit themselves and, despite evidence to the contrary, are fearful of trying out and extending their powers.

The findings from this study indicate that educational and occupational programs can have a positive influence on adults' aspirations. It appears that, in our society, other alternatives are available before embarking into the guaranteed wage syndrome. If adults' attitudes stand in the way of successful activity in society, adult educational-occupational programs may be implemented in order to bring about attitudinal changes. However, to conclude that the problems of poverty and low aspirations of rural people can be eliminated solely through adult programs would be misleading, because this study pointed out that the adult who completes training is not necessarily more employable. Programs must be coupled with existing conditions in society with the full realization that certain changes in the environment

must be brought about to reap the full benefit of adult educational-occupational programs.

This study revealed the fact that certain changes in parental attitudes and changes in the environment had implications for the students residing with these parents. It has long been argued that a relation exists between a student's environment and his success or lack of success in school. Findings from this study clearly indicate that positive changes in the student's physical environment tend to raise aspirations and bring about positive changes in attitudes toward work, change, and school.

The prime function of the school is developing in the student the capacities necessary for successful performance of the adult role he will ultimately be expected to fill. If the student does not attend school, the school cannot fulfill its prime function. The findings from this study indicate that students whose houses are renovated attend school more regularly than students whose houses are not renovated. Understandably the school has an educative function and cannot be responsible for house renovation and the like. The point, however, is that the school must be cognizant of environmental pressures at play as it attempts to socialize the students. Not only must the school be cognizant but it must be willing to design an educational program which takes into account the different living conditions of students from subcultures. Failure to take these differences into account cannot lead to anything other than what has been true in the past: failures and dropouts.

The school is the focal socializing agency which commits students to society's value system. The school is supposed to impart to students the skills necessary to perform and the expected behavior accompanying a role.

The school's task is not made easier by the great variety of adult roles to be filled in society or by the differing reference-group-based attitudinal and behavioral complexes which children bring to school. Reference-group orientations take the form of value systems, and they may or may not be congruent with the values prevailing in the school. The educational system must be responsive to pressures from society and must continually upgrade standards to cope with the environment. Paradoxically, certain successes of the system have sharpened the differences between the underprivileged and the privileged members of society. The schools have, generally speaking, met the needs of the affluent. The trend is swinging in the other direction because the most vocal critics of the school today are minority group members who feel that the schools are not meeting their educational needs. Thus we see, for example, Spanish Americans in the Southwest who demand representation on the school board and the assignment of more Spanish-speaking teachers and administrators, and Blacks in Northern urban areas who insist on the right to select staff and develop programs in their local schools.

Thus if programs such as the one considered in this study are conducted, and if the findings hold true, more and more people will be demanding of the

schools. This of course has implications for the educational system. The school can no longer expect to function as a "domesticated" organization relatively immune to public scrutiny. Perhaps it is time that institutions become more responsive to a wider range of human needs.

Historically, the schools have reflected the conditions of the larger society and have established goals and priorities in a rather passive manner. This has placed the schools in a position where they have lagged behind the demands of the larger society. The schools have been concerned largely with maintenance of the status quo rather than leading in social change.

The schools can no longer exist without taking social change into account. The structure should change so that it is more adaptive and functional in a changing environment. This is not an easy task because custom and tradition in education are quite powerful. They act as buffers to any change attempts. Due to its size, the school has assumed a bureaucratic posture which favors pattern maintenance and inhibits innovation. The schools today are being thrust into the market place, and their charismatic quality of bygone years is being challenged.

NOTES

1. Haller, A. O. "Research Problems on the Occupational Achievement Levels of Farm-reared People." Rural Sociology, Vol. 23, May 1958, pp. 355-62.
2. Lipset, S. M. "Social Mobility and Urbanization." Rural Sociology, Vol. 20, 1955, pp. 220-8; Freedman, R. and D. Freedman. "Farm Reared Elements in the Non-farm Population." Rural Sociology, Vol. 21, June 1956.
3. Sorokin, P. A. Social Mobility. New York: Harper, 1927, pp. 144 ff. and 451; Sorokin, P. A., C. C. Zimmerman, and C. C. Galpin. A Systematic Source Book in Rural Sociology, Vol. III. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1932, p. 531; Beers, H. W. and C. Hetlin. Rural People in the City, Bulletin 478. Lexington: Kentucky Agricultural Experiment Station, 1945; Lipset, op. cit., pp. 220-8.
4. Gardner, J. W. "The Use of the Term 'Level of Aspiration'." American Journal of Psychology, Vol. 47, 1935.
5. Lewin, K., T. Dembo, L. Festinger, and P. S. Sears. "Level of Aspiration." In Personality and the Behavior Disorders, Vol. 1. J. McV. Hunt (ed.). New York: Ronald Press, 1944, pp. 333-78.
6. Frank, J. D. "Individual Differences in Certain Aspects of Level of Aspiration." American Journal of Psychology, Vol. 47, 1935; Lurie, W. A. "Estimating the Level of Vocational Aspiration." Journal of Social Psychology, Vol. 10, 1939, pp. 467-73; Irwin, F. W. and H. Nelson (eds.). "Motivation." In Theoretical Foundations of Psychology. Princeton: Van Nostrand Co., 1951, pp. 239-41; Deutsch, M. and G. Lindzey (eds.). "Field Theory in Social Psychology," Vol. 1. In Handbook of Social Psychology. Cambridge: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., 1954, pp. 208-9.
7. Frank, op. cit., p. 421.
8. Dewey, J. Liberalism and Social Action. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1935.
9. Lipset, op. cit., p. 226.

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Books

- Ausubel, D. P. and P. Ausubel. "Ego Development Among Segregated Negro Children." In Education in Depressed Areas. A. H. Passow (ed.). New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1963.
- Bloom, B. S. et al. Compensatory Education for Cultural Deprivation. Based on working papers contributed by participants at the Research Conference on Education and Cultural Deprivation. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1965.
- Clowerd, R. A. and J. A. Jones. "Social Class: Educational Attitudes and Participation." In Education in Depressed Areas. A. H. Passow (ed.). New York: Teachers College Press, 1966.
- Davis, A., H. F. Wright, R. G. Barker, and J. S. Kounin (eds.). "Child Training and Social Class." In Child Behavior and Development. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1943.
- Deutsch, M. Minority Groups and Class Status as Related to Social and Personality Factors in Scholastic Achievement. Society for Applied Anthropology, Monograph No. 2, 1960. Ithaca: Cornell University, 1960.
- Haller, A. O. Occupational Aspiration Scale. East Lansing: Michigan State University, 1957.
- Havighurst, R. J. and B. L. Neugarten. Society and Education. Boston, New York: Allyn & Bacon, 1957.
- Havighurst, R. J. and R. Rodgers. Who Should Go to College? New York: Columbia University Press, 1952.
- Havighurst, R. J. and H. Taba. Adolescent Character and Personality. New York: Wiley, 1949.
- Hollingshead, A. E. Elmtown's Youth. New York: Wiley, 1949.
- Hyman, H. H. "The Value Systems of Different Classes: A Social Psychological Contribution to the Analysis Stratification." In Class, Status and Power. R. Bendix and S. M. Lipset (eds.). New York: The Free Press, 1953.

- Kahl, J. A. The American Class Structure. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1957.
- Lipset, S. M., R. Bendix, and T. Malm. "Job Plans and Entry into the Labor Market." In Man, Work and Society. S. Nosow and W. H. Form (eds.). New York: Basic Books, 1962.
- Maier, N. "Behavior Under Frustration and Motivation Contrasted." In Psychology in Administration: A Research Orientation. T. W. Costello and S. S. Zalkind (eds.). Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, 1963.
- McCloskey, E. F. Urban Disadvantaged Pupils. Portland: Northwest Regional Laboratory, 1967.
- Merton, R. K. Social Theory and Social Structure. Glencoe: Illinois Free Press, 1957.
- Mills, W. White Collar. New York: Oxford University Press, 1951.
- Montague, J. B. Class and Nationality. Pullman: College & University Press, Washington State University, 1963.
- Newcomb, T. M. Social Psychology. New York: Dryden Press, 1950.
- Parsons, T. and E. A. Shils. Toward a General Theory of Action. New York: Harper & Row, 1962.
- Parsons, T. and R. F. Bales. Family Socialization and Interaction Process. Glencoe: The Free Press, 1955.
- Peak, H. "Attitude and Motivation." In Nebraska: Symposium and Motivation. M. R. Jones (ed.). Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1955.
- Sherif, M. An Outline of Social Psychology. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1948.
- Strodbeck, F. L. "Family Interaction, Values and Achievement." In Talent and Society. D. C. McClelland et al. (eds.). New York: Van Nostrand, 1958.
- Warner, L. L. and J. O. Low. The Social System of a Modern Community. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1947.

Periodicals

- Allen, P. J. "Childhood Background of Success in a Profession." American Sociological Review, Vol. 20, April 1955, pp. 189-90.
- Becker, H. S. and J. W. Carper. "The Development of Identification with an Occupation." American Journal of Sociology, Vol. 61, 1956, pp. 289-98.
- Bradley, W. A., Jr. "Correlates of Vocational Preferences." Genetic Psychology Monographs, Vol. 28, 1943, pp. 99-169.
- Burchinal, L. G. "Differences in Educational and Occupational Aspirations of Farm Small-Town and City Boys." Rural Sociology, Vol. 22, March 1961.
- Carp, F. M. "High School Boys are Realistic About Occupations." Occupations, Vol. 27, 1949, pp. 97-9.
- Centers, R. "Motivational Aspects of Occupational Stratification." The Journal of Social Psychology, Vol. 28, November 1948, pp. 187-217.
- Cheney, K. B. "Safeguarding Legal Rights in Providing Protective Services." Children, Vol. 13, No. 3, May-June 1966.
- Deutsch, M. "Minority Group and Class Status as Related to Social and Personality Factors in Scholastic Achievement." Sociological Applied Anthropological Monographs, No. 2, 1960.
- Epps, E. C. "Attitudes Toward Social Mobility as Revealed by Negro and White Boys in the United States." The Pacific Sociological Review, Vol. 1, No. 2, 1958.
- Foote, N. N. "Identification as the Basis for a Theory of Motivation." American Sociological Review, Vol. 16, 1951, pp. 14-21.
- Galler, E. H. "Influence of Social Class on Children's Choices of Occupations." The Elementary School Journal, April 1951, pp. 439-45.
- Jones, P. J. "Vocational Interest Correlates of Socio-Economic Status in Adolescence." Education Psychological Measurement, Vol. 19, 1959, pp. 65-71.

- Jones, P. J. "Socio-Economic Status and Adolescents' Interests." Psychological Reports, Vol. 5, 1959.
- Jurgensen, C. E. "Selected Factors Which Influence Job Preferences." Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 31, 1947, pp. 553-64.
- Kahl, J. A. "Educational and Occupational Aspirations of 'Common Man' Boys." Harvard Educational Review, 1953, pp. 186-203.
- Kahn, M. L. "Social Class and Parental Values." American Journal of Sociology, Vol. 64, 1959.
- Knupfer, G. "Portrait of the Underdog." Public Opinion Quarterly, Spring 1947.
- Krippner, S. "The Occupational Experience and Vocational Preferences of 351 Upper-middle Class Junior High School Pupils." The Vocational Guidance Quarterly, Spring 1962, pp. 167-70.
- Maslow, A. H. "Dynamic Theory of Human Motivation." Psychological Review, Vol. 50, 1943.
- Montague, J. B. and E. C. Epps. "Attitudes Toward Social Mobility as Revealed by Samples of Negro and White Boys." The Pacific Sociological Review, Fall 1958, pp. 81-4.
- National Opinion Research Center. "Jobs and Occupations: A Popular Evaluation." Opinion News, Vol. 9, 1947, p. 10.
- Pawl, J. L. "Some Ego Skills and Their Relation to the Differences in Intelligence between the Middle Class and Lower Classes." Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. 21, 1960.
- Peters, E. F. "Factors Which Contribute to Youth's Vocational Choice." Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 25, No. 428, 1941.
- Reissman, L. "Levels of Aspiration and Social Class." American Sociological Review, Vol. 18, June 1953, pp. 233-42.
- Roe, A. "A Psychological Study of Eminent Psychologists and Anthropologists, and a Comparison with Biological and Physical Scientists." Psychological Monographs, Vol. 67, No. 2, Whole No. 352, pp. 1-54.

- Schneider, L. and S. Lysgaard. "The Deferred Gratification Pattern: A Preliminary Study." American Sociological Review, Vol. 18, 1953, pp. 142-9.
- Schoor, A. L. "The Non-Culture of Poverty." American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, Vol. 34, 1964.
- Sears, P. S. "Levels of Aspiration in Academically Successful and Unsuccessful Children." Journal of Abnormal Social Psychology, Vol. 35, 1940, pp. 498-536.
- Sewell, W. H. "Farm Residence and Levels of Educational and Occupational Aspirations of 'Common Man' Boys." Harvard Educational Review, Vol. 23, Summer 1953, pp. 186-203.
- Sewell, W. and M. A. Strauss. "Social Status and Educational and Occupational Aspirations." American Sociological Review, Vol. 22, 1957.
- Smith, S. E. "Factors Which Prevent Able Young People from Going to College." Educational Record, April 1956, pp. 85-90.
- Straffle, B. "Concurrent Validity of the Vocational Values Inventory." Journal of Educational Research, Vol. 52, 1959, pp. 339-41.
- Strom, R. D. "Raising Aspirations for Youth." Catholic Educational Review, Vol. 62, May 1964.
- Stubbins, J. "The Relationship Between Level of Vocational Aspiration and Certain Personal Data." Genetic Psychology Monographs, Vol. 41, 1950, pp. 327-408.
- Wrenn, G. C. "The Occupational Aspiration Scale." Journal of Counseling Psychology, Vol. 38, December 1963, pp. 482-3.

Unpublished Materials

- Brower, S. L. "A Study of Value-Orientations." Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Columbia University, 1961.

Day, D. E. "The Relationship Between Socio-Economic Status and Problem Solving Ability: A Study of the Influence of Experience." Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Wayne State University, 1962.

Henderson, H. L. "The Relationship Between Interests of Fathers and Sons and Sons' Identification with Fathers: The Relationship of the Adolescent Son's Identification with His Father to Father-Son Interest Similarity as Measured by the Strong Vocational Interest Blank." Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Columbia University, 1958.

Schpoont, S. "Some Relationships Between Task Attractiveness, Self-Evaluated Motivation, and Success or Failure." Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of Illinois, 1955.

APPENDIX

DEFINITION OF TERMS

Educational Aspiration Level. The number of years of formal schooling an individual conceives as appropriate for young men, plus the highest college degree an individual desires to obtain.

Eligible Adults. Applicants screened by the program director and his staff and classified as eligible in accordance with governmental guidelines. Priority was given to the most needy.

Home Renovation Program. The program which served to train underemployed or unemployed adults in basic home construction. The participants also received basic education as part of the training.

Idealistic Occupational Aspirations. The occupations which individuals' would have if they were completely free to choose.

Non-participants. Adults who did not participate in the Title V program. This term is used interchangeably with non-program adults.

Non-program Students. Those students whose parents did not participate in the Title V program.

Non-trainee Students. Those students living with parents who had not participated in the house renovation program.

Occupational Aspiration Level. The prestige rank of occupations to which an individual aspires as measured by an occupational aspiration scale.

Participants. Adults who participated in the Title V program. This term is used interchangeably with program adults.

Program Students. Those students whose parents participated in some phase of the Title V program.

Realistic Occupational Aspirations. The occupations which individuals are quite sure they can attain.

Substandard House. An overcrowded house lacking running water and bathroom facilities and in need of a window, door, roof, etc.

Trainee Students. Those students living with parents who had received home construction training or had had their houses improved.