

SOCIO-ECONOMIC FACTORS
ASSOCIATED WITH FOREIGN
STUDENTS' STATUS PROJECTION:
A PILOT STUDY

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ABSTRACT

The project reported here represents an attempt to investigate the socio-economic factors that are significantly related to the occupational aspiration and expectation of individuals. What is rather peculiar to the present exercise is that it deals with adult college students from the developing countries studying at the University of Manitoba. Hitherto, research on adolescent levels of aspiration have used samples of high school children.

On the basis of past research, conducted in developing and developed societies, four independent and three dependent variables were investigated. The independent variables which have been examined are occupational status of father, his level of education, family income and place of residence in home country. The dependent variables are occupational expectation, past relative aspiration and anticipatory goal deflection of students.

The twelve hypotheses derived from the above variables are subjected to test using the data collected. The results obtained do not confirm the findings of past studies that social background of individuals effects the status of their occupational choice. However, when the students were categorized according to their source of financial support at the university and the hypotheses re-applied, significant results emerge. It was found that among students

supported by their families social background strongly affects occupational expectation, aspiration and anticipatory goal deflection among foreign students. On the other hand, those students who are on sponsorship by organizations do not show this tendency. This aspect of the results of the research is striking and it is recommended that in future research on occupational aspiration or expectation, source of financial support in educational institutions may be examined along with other variables.

CHAPTER 1

1. THE PROBLEM

A number of studies, particularly in North America, which have investigated the social background of adolescents and the relationship of this background to their level of occupational aspirations have been published in recent years.¹ Thirty years ago, sociologists and social psychologists began calling attention to the relationship between the socio-economic status of parents and the levels of occupational and educational aspirations of children.² However, recent research on this issue has not indicated any clearly defined pattern of relationships. Some socio-economic variables

¹To cite a few examples:

Rosen, B.C., "The Achievement Syndrome: a psycho-cultural dimension of social stratification," American Sociological Review 21, 1956, pp. 203-211.

Sewell, William H., Haller, Archie O., Strauss, Murray, "Social Status and Educational and Occupational Aspiration," American Sociological Review 22, February 1957, pp. 67-73.

Burchinal, Lee A., "Differences in Educational and Occupational Aspirations of Farm, Small Town and City Boys," Rural Sociology 26, June, 1961, pp. 107-121.

Haller, A.O., "The Occupational Achievement Process of Farm-Reared Youth in Urban Industrial Society," Rural Sociology, 25, September, 1960, pp. 321-333.

Siemens, L.B., The Influence of Selected Family Factors on the Educational and Occupational Aspiration Levels of High School Boys and Girls. Unpublished Master of Arts thesis. University of Manitoba, 1965.

²Sibley, Elbridge, "Some Demographic Clues to Stratification," American Sociological Review 7, June, 1942, p. 322.

Hollingshead, A.B., Elmtown Youth: The Impact of Social Classes on Adolescents. John Wiley & Sons Inc., New York, 1949.

to be related to status aspiration while others provide less significant results. Further, the results of studies carried out in the United States vary from one part of the country to the other and generalizations are thus impossible. For instance, Haller and his colleagues found no relationship between father's occupation and the occupational status aspirations of rural youth of Michigan.³ Similarly, Strauss found no relationship between these two variables.⁴ However, Sewell and Orenstein found a strong positive relationship between father's occupation and the occupational aspirations of farm boys in Wisconsin.⁵

Recent research in the developing countries, however, tends to demonstrate that the socio-economic background of the family is directly related to the levels of adolescent aspiration.⁶ This pattern is no doubt reminiscent of the

³Haller, A.O., "The Influence of Planning to Enter Farming on Plans to Attend College," Rural Sociology 22, June, 1957, pp. 137-141.

⁴Strauss, M.A., "Societal Needs and Personal Characteristics in the Choice of Farm, Blue Collar and White collar Occupations by Farmers' Sons," Rural Sociology 29, December, 1964, pp. 408-425.

⁵Sewell, W.H., and Orenstein, A.M., "Community of Residence and Occupational Choice," American Journal of Sociology 70, March, 1965, pp. 551-563.

⁶Again to cite a few examples:
Lloyd, P.C., Africa in Social Change, Praeger Publishers, New York, 1968.

Clignet, Remi and Foster, Philip, The Fortunate Few: A Study of Secondary Schools and Students in the Ivory Coast, Northwestern University Press, Evanston, Illinois, 1966.

Windham, A.O., "Occupational Aspirations of Secondary School Students in Sierra Leone," Rural Sociology 35, No. 1, March 1970, pp. 40-53.

findings of early American sociologists. The question which then arises is to what extent is subsequent achievement of goals affected by students' socio-economic backgrounds, and just how is their expectation for the future influenced by such factors? The purpose of the present study is to examine this issue further.

The research cited above drew its samples from either primary or high school children. The results from these studies indicate the degree to which social background affects goal-striving. It is not possible to determine, however, whether the achievement of contingent goals by adolescents engenders a change in the evaluation of their life-chances. For example, do adolescents change their occupational goals as they attain higher levels of education? This is the aspect of research in goal-setting that Kuvlesky and Ohlendorf call "Anticipatory Goal Deflection".⁷ These authors indicate that to evaluate this variable effectively, a longitudinal study may be designed. It is also possible, however, to compare both the past and present goal aspirations of adult college students and arrive at similar results. Another objective of this study will be to examine "Anticipatory Goal Deflection" among college students by using the latter method.

General observations made on foreign students at the

⁷Kuvlesky, William P. and Ohlendorf, George W., "A Rural-Urban Comparison of the Occupational Status Orientations of Negro Boys," Rural Sociology, Vol. 33, No. 2, June 1968, pp. 234-241.

University of Manitoba suggest that the students at this institution fall into three categories. These categories were established on the basis of the sources of the financial support which enable the students to continue their education.

The first group includes those attending the University on bursaries from their respective governments. Students from this population are normally selected on the basis of their potential contribution to the development of their respective countries and their high school achievement. The second group includes students who finance their education through family support. This group comes from upper class, rich families that are able to pay the student's university expenses. The third group represents highly motivated, adventurous students from families who are unable to contribute financially to the higher education of their children. Students in this population realize that social mobility upwards is contingent upon education, so are inclined to seek scholarships from overseas universities or from other agencies. Students in this group usually attempt to supplement their grants with part-time jobs.

Previous research in goal-setting has not examined the effect of outside aid on the aspiration of highly motivated students in terms of their aspiration and expectation for the future. It is the objective of this study to examine and report on the past status aspiration of students by comparing them in each of the categories cited above.

2. BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

There may be a complex network of interrelationship between the process of industrialization, differentiation of the occupational structure and the demand for formal educational institutions needed to train personnel for new positions. This relationship develops in two major parts: on one hand, the establishment of industrial organizations includes the division of labour and the creation of new job opportunities; this division of labour demands the training of personnel to occupy a new status in industry and private enterprises. This need for trained personnel, however, cannot always be met by the family-based type of skill; therefore, primary schools and educational institutions of higher learning have to be established. The supply of manpower to the industrial complex can be met by the educational institutions. As Banks has pointed out ". . . this allocative or selective function of education is a direct consequence of the demands made by an advanced industrial economy for highly trained manpower."⁸

Africa, Asia and Latin America are areas in which there is urgent need for technically trained manpower, and in which the educational institutions may be crucial to social mobility. As Tumin and Feldman indicated:

⁸Banks, Olive, The Sociology of Education. Batsford, London; 1968, p. 39.

From the point of view of theory of stratification, education is the main dissolver of barriers to social mobility. Education opens up the class structure and keeps it fluid, permitting considerably more circulation through class positions than would otherwise be possible. Education further yields attitudes and skills relevant to economic development, and such development in turn, allows further opportunity for persons at lower ranks.⁹

The industrial countries are now emphasizing the provision of facilities for higher education, a fact which offers further evidence of the interrelationship between industrialization, occupational differentiation and formal education. Recent studies suggest a high positive correlation between national investment in post-primary education and statistical indicators of economic development.

For example, in a study by Harbison and Myers, both authors conclude that during economic growth, investment in post-primary education increases about three times as fast as productivity.¹⁰ Such relationships, of course, do not indicate which is the cause and which the effect. However, this example illustrates the important role of formal education in economic development.

Wilbert Moore, after reviewing the proportion of the labour force of various countries which still engaged in agriculture in 1950, determined that education was of immense

⁹Tumin, M. and Feldman, A.S., Social Class and Social Change in Puerto Rico. Princeton University Press, Princeton, New Jersey, 1961, p. 7.

¹⁰Harbison, F.H. and Myers, C.A., Education, Manpower and Economic Growth: Strategies of Human Resource Development. McGraw-Hill, New York, 1964, pp. 23-49, 182-187.

importance in the change in occupational structure of societies. He concluded:

If primary attention is paid to formal schooling of the young as the method of meeting the rising skill demands of the labour market, then the schools are clearly the principal agency of social mobility.¹¹

Adam Curle has also pointed out the significant relationship between education and economic development.¹² In this study in which the educational plans of Pakistan were evaluated, Curle carefully examined the various roles of education in economic development. According to him, the economic assumption that the role of education in economic development is that of passively "filling in job slots created by economic processes" is not sufficient in objectively evaluating manpower training. He suggested that a second major function of education in economic development is to turn out individuals who, through their skill, energy, and initiative, will actually affect the economy and create new employment.¹³ Citing the work of Bowman and Anderson,¹⁴ who have carried out research on the role of literacy in economic development, Curle noted that from 1950 onwards,

¹¹Moore, Wilbert E., "African Labour Systems and Their Adaptation to Social Change," in M.J. Herskovits and M. Harwitz Economic Transition in Africa. Northwestern University Press, Evanston, Illinois, 1964, p. 277.

¹²Curle, Adam, Planning for Education in Pakistan. Tavistock Publications, New York, 1966.

¹³Ibid., p. 130.

¹⁴Bowman, Mary Jean and Anderson, C.A., "Concerning the Role of Education in Development," in Goertz C. (ed.) Old Societies and New States. Oxford University Press, London, 1963, pp. 247-279.

only one country (which derived most of its wealth from oil) with a per capita income of over two hundred dollars had an adult literacy rate of less than 40 per cent.¹⁵

Curle has also carried out a number of calculations which are related to this general theme.¹⁶ He found a fairly suggestive correlation between the proportion of a country's population enrolled in secondary education in 1937-38 and its rate of economic growth over the next ten years. Curle established a series of correlations between national savings (which he took to be the best indication of a country's determination to develop its economy), enrollment at various levels, investment of national income in education, and rate of economic growth in fifty-five countries and territories. From these series of analyses, he concluded tentatively that there was a relationship between a country's attitude towards its people (implied by investment in education, and also by health as expressed through infant mortality) and its rate of development. Curle concluded: "Education did not appear simply as a by-product of prosperity, but as an integral part of the achievement of that prosperity."¹⁷

¹⁵Curle, op. cit., pp. 247-279.

¹⁶Curle, Adam, "Education, Politics and Development," Comparative Education Review 7, 1964, pp. 226-245.

¹⁷Curle, op. cit., p. 132.

Two conclusions may be derived from studies quoted above. In the first place, it is indicated that in planning for economic growth, developing countries place considerable importance on formal education. Secondly Curle's work cited above tends to suggest that industrialization provides new job opportunities, and that this process is 'fuelled' by increased education.

The question may be asked as to how formal education enhances the status of individuals within the social structure. In answering this question, individuals' perception of opportunities, particularly occupational opportunities, may be taken into consideration.

In any type of society, be it a developing or developed one, the demand by industries in the private sector or government, is perceived by an individual as offering him occupational opportunities. To be qualified for appointment to the positions available, individuals must acquire skills. At this level, the individuals perceive alternative routes for acquiring the skills which are necessary for appointment in the occupation chosen. Some highly skilled and high status occupations may require some deferred gratification, such as attendance at appropriate educational institutions for a prescribed number of years, passing set examinations and in some cases, a period of apprenticeship or internship. However, tedious jobs, that are lower in social status, do not require any lengthy attendance at educational institutions. Some unskilled jobs may be obtained

through family influence, personal maturity or individual endowments.

In an 'open' society, choice of occupation is often an individual decision. The person is free to choose any type of occupation he wishes, after giving consideration to his chances. Conformity to social mores requires that an individual chooses one of the high status jobs, then he must be prepared to acquire the necessary skills in an appropriate institution of learning. He must also be successful in prescribed tests and undergo the required period of internship. On the other hand, the individual may choose one of the less skill-demanding jobs and thus evade several years of rigorous training. The social evaluation of the status attained in such an occupation may not be as high as that which may be attained by enrolling in educational institutions. It is the process of choice of occupation by the individual based on his perception of occupational opportunities and his chances of acquisition of necessary skills to attain his choice that is generally referred to as "aspiration."

Sociologists and social psychologists have given considerable attention to factors that influence the choice of occupations by individuals. They have also studied barriers that may hinder individuals from attaining desired educational and occupational goals. It has been established by such studies that differences in social class (and variables generally used as class indicators) may be major inhibitors of high levels of aspiration.

EDUCATION AND SOCIAL CLASS:

A long debate continues as to whether an individual's social background constitutes a determining factor in his academic success. Some sociologists and social psychologists suggest that social background significantly affects the performance of an adolescent at school and that the class system of the society may, in fact, influence the school system, the school curriculum and the amount of education an individual receives. There seem to be two possible sources of barriers to success in educational institutions. Porter describes these sources as "social barriers" and "psychological barriers." The former are attributed to the social structure, and the latter to the innate capabilities of the individual in his striving for success.¹⁸

Indicators of psychological barriers are low intelligence quotient and low motivation to success. The social structural factors are inequality of income, family size, regional differences in location of educational facilities and religious affiliation. Porter,¹⁹ Hollingshead²⁰

¹⁸Porter, John, The Vertical Mosaic: An Analysis of Social Class and Power in Canada. University of Toronto, Toronto, 1965, p. 168.

¹⁹Ibid., p. 168.

²⁰Hollingshead, op. cit., pp. 172-176.

and Warner²¹ have argued that the psychological factors are also attributable to social class background. These social scientists contend that intelligence (as measured by the standard type of intelligence tests) is closely associated with social class position, size of family and size of community. Porter's opinion is that those reared in a milieu indifferent to education are not likely to acquire a high evaluation of it. He further points out that children from lower class families often drop out during or after the primary level, either because they must help support the family or because they lack encouragement from either parents or teachers. Such cases explain the inability of a large number of low-class children to continue formal education beyond the elementary level. Porter also points out that the type of school attended (i.e. private or public) can serve as an indicator as to whether an individual belongs to the upper or lower class. Porter summed up his findings in the following manner:

The main conclusion to be drawn from this brief review of census data is that a large number of young people leave school as soon as it is legally possible for them to do so, despite the fact that in most provinces, secondary education has been free.²²

In the United States, the works of Hollingshead,²³

²¹Warner, W.L., et al, Who Shall Be Educated, Harper and Brothers, New York, 1944, p. 81.

²²Porter, John, op. cit., p. 179.

²³Hollingshead, op. cit.

Hollinshead,²⁴ Sibley,²⁵ Warner and the Lynds²⁶ suggest that children of upper class families tend to have a better chance of completing higher levels of education than do children of lower class parents.

Several studies have been undertaken in countries of Asia, Africa and Latin America on the effect of social class background on educational opportunity. Peter Lloyd's investigation shows how pattern of representativeness in schools in the societies mentioned above are similar to those found in North American societies.²⁷ According to Lloyd, it is admittedly difficult for the dull sons of wealthy or influential parents to survive long in a system where competition for good schools is very keen, even though an element of nepotism and corruption is sometimes present. Far greater, however, are the financial obstacles to the brilliant and promising sons of poor parents. Lloyd remarks:

No educational system is so egalitarian that it can overcome differences in home environment and afford equal opportunities to all social classes. It seems probable that the 1944 Education Act in Britain, which made secondary education free there did not result in a significantly higher proportion of working class children attending grammar schools,

²⁴Hollinshead, B.S., Who Should Go To College. Columbia University Press, New York, 1952.

²⁵Sibley, E., op. cit.

²⁶Lynd, Merrel H. and Robert S., Middletown: A Study in Contemporary American Culture, Harcourt, Brace and Company, New York, 1929.

²⁷Lloyd, Peter C., op. cit.

though more may have succeeded in reaching universities. In West Africa, the difference in the family environment of primary school children is vastly greater. In the secondary school entrance examination, all the advantages lie with the child from the elite home, who has grown up with parents literate in English, who has had books to read and toys to play with, and who has received at school, private tuition to cram him for the examination. The boy from the crowded compound without electric light who spends his evenings doing domestic chores or playing, is seriously handicapped.²⁸

Lloyd does not see a solution to the problem in the proliferation of secondary schools because, as he indicates: "As the number of secondary schools increases, so do the differences in quality appear."²⁹ The reputations of the schools are established both by the pupils' degree of success in examinations and in the prestige which the schools can bestow on their pupils throughout their later life.

Ruth and John Useem's study deals only with the role of the foreign-educated in India, but the comments of the authors seem to reveal some facts on the relationship between education opportunities and class origin.³⁰

The bulk of the foreign-educated are middle-class both in social origin and in present status. Families of the old aristocracy and families that have only recently accumulated great wealth are not without members who have studied abroad. These elites, however, seldom have family

²⁸Ibid., p. 139.

²⁹Loc. cit.

³⁰Useem, Ruth and John, The Western Educated Man in India: A Study of His Social Roles and Influence, New York, Dryden Press, 1955.

tradition that impels them to send successive generations to Cambridge, or M.I.T. or even to Indian colleges or universities for a higher education. There are, of course, foreign-educated who come from poor families, but the lower classes ordinarily have not been able to finance higher education for their children either at home or abroad.³¹

Havighurst and Moreira, in their study of the effect of class background on the accessibility of avenues of social mobility to individuals in Brazil, note that this country is one of the areas that has undergone rapid economic progress in terms of industrialization since 1870.³² Both authors show, through figures compiled from government sources, how the class structure has become relatively open since that date. They note that before 1870, education and family connections were the only two means of social mobility in Brazil. Around the 1920's, relatively few years of primary school were needed to gain a higher social status. This situation was made possible by Ruy Barbosa's proposal in 1882 that government positions, as well as special priority in competitive examinations for administrative positions, be made open to all those having completed the eight-year primary school programme.³³

Turning to the effect of class (determined by

³¹Ibid., p. 7.

³²Havighurst, R.H. and Moreira, R.J., Society and Education in Brazil, University of Pittsburgh Press, Pittsburgh, 1965.

³³Ibid., pp. 97-98.

occupation and income of fathers) on university education in the Brazil of the 1950's, Havighurst and Moreira note that at the University of Sao Paulo in 1956, 74% of the students came from the country's upper and upper-middle classes. Only about two per cent came from the lower working class. In the other two universities studied, the Technological Institute of Aeronautics at Sao Jose des Campos (Sao Paulo) and the School of Architecture of the University of Brazil, 41% and 29% respectively came from the upper and upper-middle classes. Only 12% and 16% respectively came from the upper-working and lower-working classes. The authors point out, however, that the educational aspiration (and social mobility) among lower-class students is not as low as these figures tend to suggest; since most lower class individuals are aware of the fact that it is possible to achieve higher status through some means other than education, for instance commerce.³⁴

In a general commentary on the educational values of the social classes, Havighurst and Moreira add:

Education for the upper class person is a way of learning the art of living. Formal schooling is only a part of education. Training for a profession or other kind of work has some values, but is not essential for the upper-class person. Girls of this class study French, or English, art, music, and literature, without planning for a job. Boys may prepare for one of the liberal professions or for business. Boys and girls generally go to expensive and exclusive private schools.³⁵

³⁴Ibid., p. 104.

³⁵Ibid., p. 106.

On the upper-middle class they write:

Education is extremely important to this group. They consider a secondary school education essential for their children and favour a university education also. Although they can afford private schooling they generally prefer the public primary and secondary schools.³⁶

There is no comment made on the educational values of the lower-middle class, but they would undoubtedly tend to be in conformity with the realised economic position and social prestige of this group. This class consists of small business men, civil servants and employees of banks, transportation agencies and business firms.

The upper-lower and upper-working classes express some interest in the education of their children. They make strenuous efforts to get them into primary school and to keep them there, but the children, as a group, have some difficulty in school, and generally do not reach the fourth grade. Only recently have some methods been developed that seem to promise these children greater success in school.

On the lower-lower or lower-working class, Moreira and Havighurst note:

While these people say they want their children to attend school, they do not provide a home environment that stimulates a child to learn in school. Their children do not always get into the rural schools, and if they live in the cities they send their children to school later than the other social classes. The children generally do poorly in school, and their poor adjustment often leads to delinquency.³⁶

³⁶Ibid., p. 107.

³⁷Ibid., p. 109.

The structure of the educational values of these classes is similar to that of Elmtown, studied by Hollingshead and reported in his classic Elmtown Youth.³⁸

At this point, three distinct but related observations regarding the studies reviewed can be made. In the first instance, the different social classes are traditionally linked with different levels of education, ranging from some college education in the highest class to very little or no education in the lowest. Secondly, the above pattern is perpetuated within the social structure by the value placed on education by different class levels - from the lower class families who encourage their children to go beyond elementary school to the lower-upper class families where children are encouraged to acquire college training and professional qualifications.

Thirdly, and of utmost importance to the present research, lower class adolescents who realize their limited chances in the school system may neither aspire to high levels of education nor get encouragement from parents to do so. These adolescents are consequently excluded from high status professions.

In an examination of the number of years completed by individuals in different occupational categories, Brunner and Wayland have established that there is a relationship

³⁸Hollingshead, A.B., op. cit.

between the level of education completed and occupational status.³⁹ This important finding may further support an earlier statement that completion of a high level of education often leads to higher occupational status.

The foregoing discussion may indicate that if social class is an important determinant of academic success, attainment of a high occupational status may also be affected by that factor in a system where recruitment to higher professions is based on level of education completed.

The background to this study can therefore be summarized briefly in the following manner:

- (a) In order to provide trained personnel for occupational positions emerging due to the process of industrialization, there is the need for the establishment of facilities for higher education.
- (b) The countries in Africa, Asia and Latin America are areas in which there is increasing need for manpower, due to occupational differentiation, a by-product of industrialization.
- (c) The countries in the continents mentioned above are placing increasing emphasis on formal

³⁹Brunner, E. DeS and Wayland, Sloan "Occupation and Education," in Halsey, A.H., Floud, Jean and Anderson, C. Arnold (ed.), Education, Economy and Society: A Reader in Sociology of Education. The Free Press, New York, Collier-MacMillan Limited, London, 1969.

education which is necessary for the acquisition of adequate skill in industrial occupational set-up.

- (d) The occupations emerging in an industrial structure provide individuals with new opportunities and routes of mobility which are different from the traditional means of mobility.
- (e) As is the case in the industrial societies of the Western world, the importance of each occupation to the maintenance of the social system forms the basis on which the social status accompanying the occupation is established. Individuals may select occupations that they feel are realistically accessible given their capabilities and their chances of attaining their desired occupations. This objective selection of jobs is referred to as "occupational aspiration".
- (f) Individuals' chances of attaining their occupational goals may be limited by factors attributable to their capabilities or to the social structure. These limiting factors have been the focus of study by sociologists and social psychologists for the past thirty years. It has been established by researchers in these fields that the social background of individuals is a further factor that may hinder the attainment of occupational goals, and that social class is a significant factor in this background that must be taken into account.

3. RATIONALE FOR THIS STUDY

Two significant features of this study require justification. The first question which must be answered deals with the population under investigation: what is the rationale for treating foreign students who have come from different countries as a single population? The second question to be asked is: how is it possible to apply sociological concepts and theories developed in the industrial and highly technological societies of the Western world to societies of the developing countries?

All societies of the 'third world' are experiencing the effects of rapid industrialization, and the exposure of these societies to the values and norms of Western industrial society is profound. Although these two social processes of industrialization and 'acculturation' vary in their rate of development from one country to another, they do provide a common ground on which a meaningful comparison can be made among the societies studied. It therefore seems feasible to treat the sample of the present study as a single population.

The rationale for the application of theories developed in industrial societies to less developed ones can likewise be found in the two processes of industrialization and acculturation. The fact that developing societies are gradually losing their traditional norms and values and rapidly being influenced by the 'Western way of life' tends

to make them structurally similar to the industrial societies of the West.

The application of these theories may be further justified by the striking results obtained by pioneer studies in this area. Horace Miner, for example, applied the definition of an urban society to the ancient African community of Timbuctoo and showed that the concept is valid not only for the modern industrial and commercial cities but also for traditional communities.⁴⁰ Similarly, from an analysis of several Far Eastern communities, Hsu developed a typology of organizations.⁴¹ Bascom examined the features of urbanization among the Yoruba in an attempt to determine similarities and differences among North American, European and African cities.⁴² Thus, in spite of the differences in the cultural patterns and the social organizational framework among societies of the developed and developing countries, significant similarities exist.

Studies carried out by Remi Clignet and Philip Foster

⁴⁰Miner, Horace, The Primitive City of Timbuctoo, Princeton University Press, Princeton, 1953.

⁴¹Hsu, F.L.K., "Incentives to Work in Primitive Communities," American Sociological Review 8, December, 1943, pp. 638-642.

⁴²Bascom, W., "Social Mobility in China," American Sociological Review 14, December, 1949, pp. 764-771.

See also Udy, S.H., "'Bureaucratic' Elements in Organizations: Some Research Findings," American Sociological Review 23, June, 1958, pp. 415-418.

⁴²Bascom, W., "Urbanization Among the Yoruba," American Journal of Sociology 60, No. 5, March, 1955, p. 447.

in the Ivory Coast and Ghana indicate that university students in those countries constitute the second or third generation of scholars. It is no longer valid, therefore, to think in terms of the present generation of students as sons of farmers and illiterates.⁴³ Both authors further point out that these students are in large part off-spring of educated professional and white-collar fathers; farmers and manual workers are considerably less represented. The pattern of Clignet and Foster's work is reminiscent of the type referred to by such early American sociologists as Elbridge Sibley,⁴⁴ Reissman,⁴⁵ and Sewell and Haller.⁴⁶ Studies by the Useems in India and Havighurst in Brazil tend to show similar traces in those countries.⁴⁷

In this study, therefore, the process of industrialization and exposure to Western culture has been taken as the "common factor" among the various societies represented by the foreign students under investigation. It is the contention of the present work that the application of standard sociological concepts and the general theoretical

⁴³Clignet, Remi and Foster, Philip, "Potential Elites in Ghana and the Ivory Coast: A Preliminary Comparison," American Journal of Sociology 70, November, 1964, pp. 349-362.

⁴⁴Sibley, E., op. cit.

⁴⁵Reissman, L., op. cit.

⁴⁶Sewell and Haller, op. cit.

⁴⁷Useem, Ruth and John, op. cit.

framework linking social background to life-chances in Western industrialized societies can be justified on the basis of the processes and pioneer works cited above.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Sociologists in North America and Europe have for a long time tested for a number of familial factors presumed to be significantly related to the level of occupational choice or aspiration among adolescents. They have either examined a selected number of variables largely believed to be associated with levels of aspiration⁴⁷ or have intensively studied a single such variable in a fairly large sample.⁴⁸ It is to be borne in mind, however, that a majority of the research has dealt with predominantly rural high school adolescents. In some cases, a comparison is made between rural-farm, rural non-farm and city adolescents. Very few studies have used a sample of college students.⁴⁹

⁴⁷To cite a few examples of such studies:
Rosen, B.C., "The Achievement Syndrome: A Psychocultural Dimension of Social Stratification," American Sociological Review 21, 1956, pp. 203-211.

Schwarzweiler, H.K., "Value Orientation in Educational and Occupational Choices," Rural Sociology 24, 1960, pp. 246-256.

Slocum, W.L., "Some Sociological Aspects of Occupational Choice," American Journal of Economics and Sociology 18, 1958, pp. 139-147.

⁴⁸Some examples can be cited to illustrate such studies too, e.g.:

Kahl, J.A., "Education and Occupational Aspiration of Common Man Boys," Harvard Educational Review 23, Summer 1953, pp. 186-203.
Burchinal, L.G., op. cit.

Haller, Sewell and Strauss, op. cit.

Reissman, L., "Levels of Aspiration and Social Class," American Sociological Review 18, June 1953, pp. 233-242.

⁴⁹Ford J. and Box, S., "Sociological Theory and Occupational Choice," Sociological Review 15, November 1967.

Due to the large number of investigations already undertaken which deal with high school children, a review of all of these works will be unwieldy. Only a few carefully selected studies will therefore be reviewed, giving major consideration to those carried out in the developing societies.

Past research in North America has placed great emphasis on the role of familial socio-economic status on adolescent goal-setting. Such studies generally tend to treat social background of parents along with other variables, such as ecological background, sex and race, testing each in separate hypothesis.

In a recent study of the effect of class background on strength of achievement motivation, Rosen suggests that achievement oriented values of the middle class are stronger than those of the lower class. He presents as evidence the greater encouragement and rewards offered for early toilet training, and the high scholastic achievement among middle class children.⁵⁰

Although familial transmission of the cultural value of goal-setting and achievement has been emphasized by researchers in the past, it has been pointed out that this value is not transmitted in the socialization process without some modification being made by the family to suit its social and economic conditions. Rosen presents evidence to support

⁵⁰Rosen, B.C., op. cit., p. 203-211.

the hypothesis that social strata differ from one another in the degree to which the achievement motive is characteristic of their members. He states:

Furthermore, the data indicate that members of the middle class tend to have considerably higher need achievement scores than individuals in the lower social strata.⁵¹

Rosen believes that there are certain culturally-defined values which are characteristics of each class level, and these values differ significantly between the middle class and lower class. He concludes by saying that it is not surprising to find that social strata are different in their academic achievement and occupational aspiration levels.⁵²

Similarly, Hollingshead points out that although the lower classes have realised that education is an effective way to social mobility, (as is the case in the middle and lower-upper classes), members of the first group have not been deluded into encouraging their children to aspire to college level or to any high-status occupations.⁵³ The adolescent with a few years of education is seen as a

⁵¹Rosen, B.C., op. cit., p. 206.

⁵²Rosen, B.C., op. cit., p. 209.

⁵³Hollingshead, A.B., op. cit., pp. 360-388.

potential wage earner whose income will go a long way in supplementing that of the family. Hollingshead stresses that expressed educational values, and hence occupational values, of lower social classes are based on realised class situation and these are in no way comparable with those of the middle and upper classes.

An early examination of the relationship between social class background of adolescents and levels of aspiration was made by Gould.⁵⁴ In her study, Gould suggests that one's concept of the future is an expression of one's status in the present:

The more unsatisfactory the present is conceived to be the more urgent the desire (need) to depart from it 'in the future' and the greater the psychological distance between now and the situation to be.⁵⁵

On this premise, Gould concludes that the lower class is therefore imbued with a "deep, all-pervading" need to leave the present. (The upper class does not have this need; it is present in the middle class to a lesser degree).

A crucial point to be raised at this juncture is whether or not this psychological need of the lower class is ever actually manifest. Gould proposes (along with others who hold such views) that in spite of the need to escape the present, reality compels lower class individuals to reduce

⁵⁴Gould, R., "Some Sociological Determinants of Goal Striving," Journal of Social Psychology 13, May 1941, pp. 461-473.

⁵⁵Gould, R., op. cit., p. 465.

their aspirations, since they are not able to accept the risk of becoming less poor.

The views expressed in the studies cited above seem to suggest that although the cultural mandate requires all to strive for success, (and this value is transmitted to the adolescent through the socialization process) there does exist a class differential regarding the level of aspiration of adolescents. This differential is based on the realised economic position of lower class individuals and on their chances of advancement.

In past research the occupation of the head of the household (usually the father) has been used to determine the social status of families. The rationale for using this indicator rather than any other is the strong relationship often found between occupation and social class status.⁵⁶ Moreover, occupation is said to be at the centre of the complex often referred to as social class.⁵⁷ It has been shown to be essentially the source of income of the head of the family and its prestige is largely determined by the level of education completed by the individual.⁵⁸ Although these claims may not be true for all occupations, the works which

⁵⁶Hatt, Paul K, in Occupations and Social Status, Reiss, A.J. (ed.), Free Press of Glencoe, New York, 1961.

⁵⁷Rosen, op. cit., p. 204.

⁵⁸Hatt, op. cit.

will be referred to in the present study, do, in fact, use occupation as their point of departure, in their investigations.

In their research on occupational aspiration of Wisconsin high school children, Sewell et al found that the prestige of occupation seems to be an effective measure of social status. It was also shown that there was a significant relationship between father's occupation and levels of aspiration.⁵⁹

In a similar study, Grigg and Middleton found that there was a significant association between the occupational status of parents and the level of occupational status expectation of their subjects.⁶⁰ Sewell and Orenstein also reported a strong positive relationship between father's occupation and level of occupational aspiration of youths in Wisconsin.⁶¹

Apart from occupation, other social background variables that have been used in research on status aspiration include level of education of parents, family income and place of residence. These factors are altogether indicators of social status.⁶²

⁵⁹Sewell et al, op. cit., p. 71.

⁶⁰Grigg, C.M. and Middleton, R., "Community of Orientation and Occupational Aspiration of Ninth Grade Students," Social Forces 38, 1960, pp. 303-308.

⁶¹Sewell, W.H. and Orenstein, A.M., "Community of Residence and Occupational Choice," American Journal of Sociology 70, 1964-65, pp. 551-563.

⁶²Duncan, Otis D. and Blau, Peter M., The American Occupational Structure, New York, Wiley, 1967.

In a study of Kentucky high school seniors in 1959, Schwarzweller found a positive relationship between parents' education and career expectation, and aspiration, of the boys. The correlation was negative, however, in the case of the girls.⁶³

Using family income as one of the indicators of social background, Strauss studied farm boys in Washington and discovered a positive correlation, although quite low, between income and level of occupational aspiration.⁶⁴

Kaldor et al found the same form of relationship, in this case a strong one, among farm boys in Iowa.⁶⁵

Lipset contends that farm-reared adolescents tend to have less chance of mobility in the urban occupational structure than their city counterparts.⁶⁶ This assertion has inspired several studies which to a large extent seem to support Lipset's notion. This basic proposition rests on the generally held notion that geographic isolation, lack

⁶³Schwarzweller, H.K., "Values and Occupational Choice," Social Forces 36, 1958, pp. 126-135.

⁶⁴Strauss, M.A., "Societal Needs and Personal Characteristics in the Choice of Farm, Blue Collar and White Collar Occupations by Farmers' Sons", Rural Sociology 29, December 1964, pp. 408-425.

⁶⁵Kaldor et al, "Differential Characteristics of Iowa Farm Boys Planning Farm and Non Farm Employment," Iowa Agricultural and Home Economics Experimental Station.

⁶⁶Lipset, S.M., "Jobs Plan and Entry Into the Labour Market," Social Forces 33, 1955 #3, pp. 224-232.

of knowledge about urban occupational opportunities and the general orientation to farming as an occupation lead rural youth to be low aspirers and be less mobile than adolescents reared in urban milieux. Haller has added the factor of educational provision in rural areas of the United States to the above list. He notes that the quality of rural elementary and secondary schools in rural isolated areas tends to be relatively poor.⁶⁷

Middleton and Grigg,⁶⁸ Sewell and Orenstein,⁶⁹ Siemens,⁷⁰ and Kuvlesky and Ohlendorf⁷¹ all reported that the occupational expectation of rural individuals was lower than that of those reared in urban areas.

A number of studies in the developing countries on the relationship between the social background of high school students and their levels of occupational aspiration reveal trends similar to those indicated by North American research. In an investigation of the occupational expectations of secondary school students in Ivory Coast, West Africa, Foster

⁶⁷Haller, "The Occupational Achievement Process of Farm-Reared Youth in Urban-Industrial Society," Rural Sociology 25, 1960, pp. 321-333.

⁶⁸Middleton and Grigg, op. cit.

⁶⁹Sewell and Orenstein, op. cit.

⁷⁰Siemen, L.B., op. cit.

⁷¹Kuvlesky and Ohlendorf, op. cit.

and Clignet observed that students in that country value education primarily as a means of entry into occupations which correspond in a general way to their personal tastes and inclinations. The authors noted that slightly less than 30% of all students were more specific in their responses, valuing their educational experience in terms of income advantages and access to leadership roles. This observation, the authors claimed, tends to dismiss the frequently made assumption that Africans consider formal schooling as largely a prestige item.⁷²

In Clignet and Foster's study, several social and cultural background variables were tested for their relationship to the level of occupational expectation and aspiration of the students. These variables were: size of place of residence, area of residence, level of paternal education, paternal occupation and level of acculturation. Occupational choice was based on six types of professions: teaching, science and technology, medicine and nursing, agriculture, administration, the army and police.

Commenting on the pattern of occupational choice among students, Clignet and Foster observed that the choice of a teaching career was significantly influenced by social background, and tended to be chosen frequently by individuals from rural illiterate farming backgrounds.⁷³ In fact, the

⁷²Clignet, Remi and Foster, Philip, The Fortunate Few: A Study of Secondary Schools and Students in the Ivory Coast. Northwestern University Press, Evanston, 1966.

⁷³Clignet, R. and Foster, P., op. cit., p. 131.

level of choice for teaching among the children of farmers was double that of the offspring of professional and clerical workers.⁷⁴

Preference for agriculture followed the same pattern and often characterized the responses of children with a rural background, particularly those from the north of the Ivory Coast (less developed economically than the southern coastal area). The same observation could be made with respect to the higher levels of choices for careers in the military and police, among less acculturated students. Careers in the medical profession and administration, however, were more often the choice of individuals from more acculturated backgrounds. Aspirations to the scientific and technological fields, on the other hand, were found to be only very loosely associated with a student's background.⁷⁵ The authors suggested that the very newness of this type of career as well as the growing prestige of science and technology in general, might lead most students to regard scientific occupations as more accessible than others.⁷⁶

Clignet and Foster's study underlines the significant role that academic status plays in level of aspiration. The authors observe that the further a student goes in the system, the higher his level of aspiration. Individuals within the

⁷⁴Clignet R. and Foster, P., loc. cit.

⁷⁵Clignet, R. and Foster, P., op. cit., p. 133.

⁷⁶Clignet and Foster, loc. cit.

long academic streams are characterized by higher levels of occupational ambition. This conclusion tends to justify the proposition that college students would expect high status occupations, independent of their socio-economic background. Clignet and Foster, in fact, point out that academic record is a more potent predictor of levels of occupational aspiration than is socio-economic or cultural background.⁷⁷ This conclusion does not preclude the effect of socio-economic status or cultural background on the status aspiration of students, however.

In a recent study by Windham in Sierra Leone, West Africa, some selected social background variables of secondary school students were related to the levels of occupational aspiration of these students.⁷⁸ These variables included occupation and education of father, tribal identity, religious identity, family type and school attended. Data obtained for this study support the existing notion that children of college-educated parents in high status occupations tend to have higher levels of aspirations and expectations than those whose fathers are in lower status types of occupations or have less schooling. Windham further determined that sons of farmers and sons of those who had

⁷⁷Clignet and Foster, op. cit., p. 139.

⁷⁸Windham, op. cit., pp. 50-53.

completed 0-7 years of education expressed lower levels of aspiration than their non-farm and educated counterparts. Aspiration levels were reported to be significantly and positively related to the occupational and educational attainment of the father.

Studies in the developing societies indicate that rural-urban differences in aspiration are not only a reality in sociological studies, but a variable that must be taken into consideration in such studies. In Clignet and Foster's study cited earlier, both authors noted that the choice of a teaching career is significantly influenced by social background, and tended to be chosen more by individuals from rural, illiterate farming backgrounds. Preference for agriculture follows the same pattern and more often characterizes the responses of children with a rural background, particularly those from the north of Ivory Coast. The urban children with higher socio-economic background tend to choose the higher professions.⁷⁹

In another comparative study of two samples from both Ivory Coast and Ghana, Foster and Clignet observed that the rural-urban differentials in secondary school recruitment are rather more marked in Ghana than in the Ivory Coast, particularly if attention is focused on the pattern of recruitment from the smallest and the largest communities.

⁷⁹Clignet and Foster, op. cit., p. 131.

Secondary school enrolments from the smallest centers in Ivory Coast are proportionately larger than in Ghana. They also observed that the larger the town, the greater the proportional representation of students from these centers.⁸⁰

Margaret Peil, in another study concentrated on the birth place and residence of students entering the University of Ghana in 1963,⁸¹ observed that 23% of the student-subjects were from towns of 40,000 and more. Using the 1960 census figures as a base, she established that although 61.1% of the total working population were farmers during that year, farmers' sons at the university made up only 38.7%; a Selectivity Index of 0.6%. This figure is relatively low compared with a Selectivity Index of 9.6% for higher professionals.⁸²

The findings above do not bear directly on the levels of aspiration of sons of farmers and students of rural origin. The studies, however, provide some insight into the representation of individuals with rural background in institutions of higher learning and hence in higher professions and in high-status jobs.

Anticipatory Goal Deflection

Kuvlesky and Ohlendorf have shown that there may be a

⁸⁰Clignet, Remi and Foster, Philip, "Potential Elites in Ghana and the Ivory Coast, A Preliminary Comparison," American Journal of Sociology, Vol. 70, 1964.

⁸¹Peil, Margaret, "Ghanaian University Students: The Broadening Base," British Journal of Sociology, Vol. 16, pp.

⁸²Peil, M., op. cit., pp. 20-28.

difference between the type of occupation to which an individual aspires in the past and that which he expects in the future. In empirical research the comparison of the level of occupational aspiration and expectation is called Anticipatory Goal Deflection.⁸³

According to Kuvlesky and Ohlendorf, this nominal index permits the researcher to see to what degree and in what direction the independent variable (social background) has affected the 'mobility orientation' of the individual.⁸⁴ Therefore, the levels of aspiration and expectation of their subjects were compared. On the basis of this comparison negative scores were assigned to those students whose expectation was lower than their past aspiration, positive scores were assigned to situations where the reverse was the case, and zero to those whose aspiration did not differ from their expectation. The results of this research revealed that there was no difference between rural and urban boys in the rate of anticipatory goal deflection experienced. The authors pointed out further that when anticipatory goal deflection did occur, it was more often negative than positive, i.e., more respondents were found to expect lower occupational status than the one to which they aspired. It was noted, also, that the absolute proportion of rural and urban cases demonstrating deflection in either a positive or

⁸³See Kuvlesky and Ohlendorf, op. cit., p. 144.

⁸⁴Kuvlesky and Ohlendorf, op. cit., p. 145.

negative direction did not differ greatly. Kuvlesky and Ohlendorf recommended, however, that the evaluation of the validity and significance of these observed differences would require more detailed examination.

As pointed out earlier in Chapter I, it is in the interest of the present research to look into anticipatory goal deflection in terms of the social background of students, and also to see how that variable is affected by student's receipt of financial aid.

From the brief review of past research above, and from the review of relevant works made in the previous chapter, four basic generalizations are possible:

1. Past research on the levels of aspiration of youth in both the developed countries and the countries in Africa, Asia and Latin America indicate that adolescent goal-setting is significantly affected by their social background, more specifically, and as indicated in past works, by class background, family income, father's occupation, level of father's education and ecological background.
2. Foreign students from the countries in Africa, Asia, and Latin America would have set their goals commensurate with their social background in the past.
3. Their occupational expectation for the future would also be affected largely by their social

background.

4. Changes in their goals would strongly reflect their perception of opportunities.

These four generalizations, provide the rationale for the propositions which will be examined further in more specific hypotheses by using a sample of foreign students from the developing countries at the University of Manitoba.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

In the first part of this chapter, some current methodological problems encountered in research dealing with levels of occupational aspiration and expectation are reviewed. In the second part of the chapter the steps involved in carrying out this research are discussed.

Current Methodological Problems in Status Aspiration and Expectation Research.

Problem areas in research dealing with adolescent goal-setting fall into two inter-related parts: viz lack of clarity in concepts and the wide variation in observation procedures and measurement used. These two areas, by their inherent nature, are not mutually exclusive. Clarity in the use of concepts often leads to adequate means of observation or measurement. In other words, the former is antecedent to the latter in empirical research. However, this condition has not been met in any satisfactory way in research dealing with goal-setting. For example, in the literature, the concept "aspiration" can be associated with about four other aspects of goal-setting which on the other hand have been measured with different instruments depending mostly on the semantic prowess of the researchers.

Haller calls attention to two important aspects of aspiration: the Realistic and the Idealistic.¹ According

¹Haller, A.O., "On the Concept of Aspiration," Rural Sociology XXXIII, December, 1968, p. 485.

to Haller, while the former measures what the individual thinks he may really be able to attain in the future, the latter refers to what the individual hopes to attain if all goes well.

In operationalizing these two aspects of aspiration, Haller and Miller framed their question to portray the exact aspect being emphasized. For instance, in asking about the 'idealistic' aspect the question was framed thus:

Of the jobs listed in this question, which ONE would you choose if you were FREE to CHOOSE any of them you wished when your schooling is over?²

The realistic aspect was asked with the use of this question:

Of the jobs listed in this question which is the BEST ONE you are REALLY SURE YOU CAN GET when your schooling is over?³

The two questions above were supposed to yield response to the short range aspiration level of the respondent. Questions dealing with the long-range specified a length of time (thirty years) at which stage the adolescent would be reaching middle age.

In another study by Grigg and Middleton, questions designed to measure occupational aspiration of ninth grade students were framed thus:

In what occupation do you think you will most likely be working ten years from now?⁴

²Miller, I.W., and Haller, A.O., "A Measure of Level of Occupational Aspiration," Personnel and Guidance Journal, 42, January, 1964, p. 449.

³Miller and Haller, loc. cit.

⁴Grigg and Middleton, op. cit., p. 305.

Since this question is structurally different from that of Haller, Grigg and Middleton said that the term 'aspiration' has been subject to much semantic confusion in the literature, and added that 'aspiration' as used in their own study was "roughly equivalent to expectation as used by some authors, and does not refer to a fantasy choice uninhibited by reality factors."⁵

In another study on the occupational orientation of Negro boys in Texas, Kuvlesky and Ohlendorf used the following question to measure occupational expectation:

What kind of job do you really expect to have most of your life?⁶

The above question does not seem to bear a structural resemblance to that of Grigg and Middleton. Besides, both questions refer to different time periods, whereas the two questions are supposed to yield the same results.

The literature abounds with these inconsistencies in measurement and two factors that may be held accountable for these are the different population and levels of educational institutions which each study dealt with.

Although there is a widespread use of an adaptation of Miller and Haller's OAS instrument to measure aspiration and expectation, such a scale seems inappropriate for college students. The question used by Kuvlesky and Ohlendorf, which

⁵Grigg and Middleton, Loc. cit.

⁶Kuvlesky and Ohlendorf, op. cit., p. 145.

is cited above, tends to be the most suitable for this research when it is framed to suit the present level of educational attainment of college students. The original question used by those authors is:

What kind of job do you really expect to have most of your life?⁷

The above question has been structurally adjusted to read:

What occupation are you really sure you can get after taking your degree?⁸

This question seems adequate for the sample on hand because of the almost immediate availability of jobs for college students, the relevance of their course of study at college to their future occupation and their optimism about future employment.

⁷Kuvlesky and Ohlendorf, Loc. cit.

⁸Question 9, Appendix.

POPULATION STUDIED

The population studied is the undergraduate foreign students from the developing countries in Africa, Asia and Latin America, studying full-time at the University of Manitoba during the regular session of 1970-71.

According to the release from the Registrar's office at the University of Manitoba, there are 1,339 foreign students from 73 countries. Foreign students, presumably, are defined by this release as those students coming from outside Canada, irrespective of their continent of origin.⁹ However, the concept "foreign students" has been drastically restricted in this research to refer to those undergraduate students referred to above. Countries in North America and Europe have been left out because of the socio-economic differences between the developed countries of these continents and the developing countries in Africa, Asia and Latin America. Secondly, countries in North America and Europe have been left out of the focus of this study because the United Nations' definition of "Developing Countries" does not apply to them.¹⁰ Since the countries included in the sample were selected on the basis of this definition, it seemed expedient to exclude North American and European

⁹University of Manitoba, Bulletin for Members and Friends of the University of Manitoba Community, Winnipeg, February 3, 1971.

¹⁰United Nations, United Nations World Economic Survey, New York, 1961.

countries.

Selection of the Sample:

After excluding students from North America and Europe, there were 400 students left, from countries in the three continents of Africa, Asia and Latin America. These countries are represented in unequal proportion by the students. Furthermore, the students are registered in different faculties of study in unequal proportion. A glance through a list provided by the Registrar's office showed that students from Asia (especially Hong Kong) were about double those from Africa in number. Besides, students from Asia were registered in faculties of Engineering and Medicine, in a proportion of 10:1, when compared with students from Africa and Latin America. In order to off-set this over-representation by Asian students in the selection of the sample, a two-stage 25% stratified probability sampling was adopted. The first step consisted of stratifying the student population according to country of origin, and the second step was stratifying them according to their field of study.

At each stage, every fourth student on the list was chosen. This procedure provided the added benefit of making sure that countries with less than five students were given equal chance of being represented in the final sample. However, some countries ended up having only one student selected for the final sample. Since interest is focused on the student as a group, rather than on an inter-communal

basis, those countries that have only one were not considered to be under-represented.

Instrument and Pre-Test

A questionnaire was constructed, which was later pre-tested on a sample of foreign students to see whether the items would measure the sort of information wanted, and to ask for general comments on the structure of the questions and their relevance to the population being studied. Necessary adjustments were made to the questionnaire on the basis of the returns from the pre-test.

Data Collection:

The data were collected by mailed pre-coded questionnaire. A total of 100 questionnaires were sent out, and a 93% return was obtained. No second mailing of questionnaire was attempted as most of students were already away on holidays. As most of these students left no summer forwarding address in their place of residence, there was less chance of contacting them through the mail.

Specific Hypotheses to be Tested:

The generalizations derived from past studies were further expressed in the following hypotheses in order to present them in a testable fashion:

- (1) There is a significant association between
father's occupational status and occupational

expectation of students.

- (2) There is a significant association between father's level of education and occupational expectation of students.
- (3) There is a significant association between family income and occupational expectation of students.
- (4) There is a significant association between size of place of residence of students in their home country and their occupational expectation.
- (5) There is a significant association between father's occupational status and the past relative status aspiration of students.
- (6) There is a significant association between the level of education of fathers and the past relative status aspiration of students.
- (7) There is a significant association between family income and the past relative status aspiration of students.
- (8) There is a significant association between size of place of residence and relative status aspiration.
- (9) There is a significant association between father's occupational status and Anticipatory Goal Deflection.
- (10) There is a significant association between father's level of education and Anticipatory Goal Deflection.

- (11) There is a significant association between family income and Anticipatory Goal Deflection.
- (12) There is a significant association between a student's place of residence in his home country and Anticipatory Goal Deflection.

Operationalizing the Variables Tested:

The Independent Variables:

On the basis of the findings of past research on adolescent goal-setting, four independent variables were selected. They are father's occupation, level of father's education, family income and size of place of residence. These four variables have been shown to be effective indicators of an individual 'social background', and furthermore, they have been shown by past research to be significantly related to adolescent goal-setting.

Father's Occupation:

In this research, prestige of occupation is not being used to measure social status. This is primarily due to the fact that there is no standardized cross-cultural rating scale which can be used on a sample of foreign students coming from diverse countries as represented by the present sample.

Item 15 on the questionnaire is used to measure the variable, father's occupation.¹¹ Response to this question

¹¹See Appendix.

was coded by using a socio-economic scale developed by Turittin¹² on the basis of scores derived from Blishen's Occupational Scale.¹³

This scale is chosen because it provides meaningful categories under which each type of occupation can be placed without an underlying implication that they are being rated. Usually the following assumptions underlie a socio-economic scale:

- (1) White-collar work is superior to manual work.
- (2) Self-employment is superior to employment by others.
- (3) Clean occupations are superior to dirty ones.
- (4) The importance of business occupations depends upon the size of the business, but this is not true of agricultural occupations.
- (5) Personal service is degrading and it is better to be employed by an enterprise than to be employed in the same work by a person.¹⁴

The occupational categories provided by Turittin's Scale are: upper professional, lower professional, upper

¹²Turittin, A.H., "Intergenerational Occupational Mobility in Ontario: A Secondary Analysis of 1968 Sample Survey Data," Paper presented at the 1970 Annual Meeting of the Canadian Sociology and Anthropology Association, Winnipeg, 1970.

¹³Blishen, B.R., "A Socio-Economic Index for All Occupations in Canada," Canadian Review of Sociology and Anthropology, Vol. 4, No. 1, February, 1967, pp. 43-51.

¹⁴Caplow, Theodore, The Sociology of Work, University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1954, pp. 42-43.

managerial, lower managerial, upper-blue-collar and foremen, middle-blue-collar, lower-blue-collar, farmers and farm labourers. This scale is selected in preference to Centers¹⁵ Socioeconomic Scale because it provides a category for farm workers which is an important occupational category among students interviewed.

The upper professional class consists of those occupations that normally require degrees beyond the B.S. or B.A., such as medical doctors, college professors, lawyers, etc. The 'lower professional' constitutes a residual category which includes all other professional, technical and kindred occupations. The same explanation is applicable to "Upper Managerial" - those managerial positions that require college qualification are placed in this category, whereas those that only require on-the-job managerial training were placed under 'lower managerial'.

When the data available were further examined, it was decided to collapse the occupational categories provided by Turittin's scale into three distinct groups in order to ascertain more clearly the differences between them. The first four groups of upper professional, lower professional, upper managerial and lower managerial were collapsed and labelled non-manual; all blue-collar categories were collapsed and called manual, while the farmer's category was left as a

¹⁵Centers, Richard, The Psychology of Social Classes, Princeton University Press, Princeton, New Jersey, 1949, pp. 76-101.

separate group. Three combinations were carefully made so that the new ones still retained their ordinal form. Thus, non-manual category was treated as higher in socio-economic status than manual and these two as higher than farmers.

Level of Education:

The level of education completed by the fathers of respondents was coded by using Hollingshead's and Redlich's eight point scale for the number of years of education completed.¹⁶ This scale discriminates between those that have completed college or professional education and those that have completed high school or primary school and those with less than 7 years of education or no education at all. The categories provided by this scale were carefully collapsed into four, so that they would not lose their ordinality. The four groupings finally used provided meaningful comparisons between the categories of the dependent variables. This variable was measured by using item 18 on the questionnaire.¹⁷

Family Income:

This variable presented some problems of measurement. The most serious difficulty faced was how to compare families

¹⁶Hollingshead, August de Belmont, and Redlich, F.C., Social Class and Mental Illness; A Community Study. Wiley, New York, 1958, p. 391.

¹⁷See Appendix.

from different currency areas. It was felt that if students were asked to estimate their family's income in Canadian dollars, they tended to underestimate. This impression was derived from the pre-test of the questionnaire. Therefore, students were asked on the questionnaire to estimate their total family's income in their country's currency. The total value quoted by the respondent was converted into Canadian dollar by multiplying the stated value of family income by the currency exchange value to the dollar provided by the Bank of Nova Scotia.¹⁸ This conversion provided a base whereby some comparisons could be made.

The final figures arrived at were divided into three categories using an interval of 3,000 dollars. By using this interval, it was felt that it would be possible to distinguish those families with incomes below 3,000 dollars from those above that base-line, the official Canadian poverty-line. This technique provided a meaningful picture to the Canadian audience who would most likely constitute the largest proportion of the readers of this report. The variable was measured by using item 20 on the questionnaire.

Size of Place of Residence:

This variable was measured by using item 22 on the questionnaire. Response was categorized according to the figures used on the pre-coded questionnaire.

¹⁸Bank of Nova Scotia, What is that in Dollars, Bank of Nova Scotia Occasional Publication, June, 1970.

The Dependent Variables:

The dependent variables examined were occupational expectation, Past Relative Status Aspiration and Anticipatory Goal Deflection.

Occupational Expectation:

As pointed out earlier in this chapter, an adequate measure of occupational expectation has not been constructed in the literature. The question used by Kuvlesky and Ohlendorf¹⁹ was structurally adjusted to read:

What occupation are you really sure you can get after taking your degree? (Please be specific.)²⁰

The above question was used to measure occupational expectation.

Response to the above question was coded by using Turittin's scale. However, when the data obtained by the use of this question were examined, it was found that students had only indicated occupations that fell within the first three categories of upper professional, lower professional and managerial. This pattern should be expected in view of the fact that college students would, under normal circumstances, not aspire to low status blue-collar jobs.

Past Relative Status Aspiration:

Like the variable occupational expectation, occupational

¹⁹Kuvlesky and Ohlendorf, op. cit.

²⁰See Question 9, Appendix.

aspiration was not consistently measured by a single question in the literature. The most acceptable and frequently used one was Haller and Miller OAS which was primarily designed for High School children, whose career objectives have not been well crystallized. Therefore, it was decided that this scale could not be meaningfully applied to college students. A retrospective question was therefore introduced which was designed to direct the attention of the student to his past aspiration before coming to college.²¹ This question is used to measure past aspiration of the student before coming to college.

However, in his research, Empey has suggested that rather than use 'monolithic' definitions of occupational aspiration and impose them on all social strata it would be more helpful if relativities are taken into account.²² In accordance with this suggestion, the relative standard was used. The type of occupation a student indicated he had in mind prior to college was compared with his father's occupation on Turrittin's socio-economic scale to see whether the former was higher, lower or the same as that of his father.

Anticipatory Goal Deflection:

Using Kuvlesky and Ohlendorf's technique, this variable

²¹See Question 13, Appendix.

²²Empey, Lamar, T., "Social Class and Occupational Aspiration: Some Aspects of Family Experience as a Variable," American Sociological Review, XXI, 1956, pp. 212-215.

was derived by comparing the past occupational aspiration and occupational expectation of students.²³ The direction of deflection was indicated by the use of signs and where no deflection was observed, a zero was given.

Data Analysis:

The data from the questionnaires returned were coded and punched on eighty column IBM cards. These cards were run on an IBM card sorter to determine the frequencies for each category of the questions, after which the data were submitted to statistical analysis.

All the independent variables - father's occupation, father's level of education, family income and place of residence - were measured on an ordinal scale. Two dependent variables - relative status aspiration and anticipatory goal deflection - were measured on a nominal scale; while occupational expectation was measured on an ordinal scale.

Freeman²⁴ suggested that gamma (γ) may be used when testing hypotheses that relate two ordinal variables. Therefore the hypotheses that relate father's occupation and level of education to student's occupational expectation, and those that relate family income and size of place of residence

²³Kuvlesky and Ohlendorf, op. cit., p. 145.

²⁴Freeman, Linton C., Elementary Applied Statistics for Students in Behavioural Science, Wiley, New York, 1965, p. 125.

to expectation were tested by using gamma. Since tied ranks were expected on the variables mentioned above, the adaptation of gamma for tied ranks given by Freeman was used.

Gamma was given by the formula:

$$\gamma = \frac{f_a - f_i}{f_a + f_i}$$

where f_a is the frequency of agreements (i.e. the product of the frequency in each cell by the sum of the frequencies in the cells which lie both below and to the right of it, summed up), and f_i is the frequency of inversions (i.e. the product of the frequency in each cell by the sum of the frequencies in the cells which lie both below and to the left of it, summed up).²⁵

The remaining seven hypotheses were tested by using theta (θ), which Freeman suggested may be used to test the relationship between an ordinal and nominal variable. Since both relative status aspiration and Anticipatory Goal Deflection were treated on nominal levels, theta was found suitable. It was given by the formula:

$$\theta = \frac{D_2}{T_2}$$

where D_2 is the difference between the frequency below and the frequency above for each pair of classes in the nominal scale, and T_2 is the product of the total frequency for each

²⁵Freeman, loc. cit.

²⁶Freeman, op. cit., p. 112.

nominal class and the totals for each of the other classes two at a time, the obtained value is then summed.²⁶

Where the hypothesis put forward was accepted, the appropriate test of significance was applied. In order to test for the significance of the value of gamma, Freeman suggested expressing gamma in standard deviation units. (Z)²⁷ Unlike gamma, however, theta could not be directly expressed in standard deviation units, since its sampling distribution was unknown. Freeman suggested a procedure whereby Mann-Whitney's U could be used and the value of U expressed in standard deviation score, yielding the required test of significance.²⁸

Since no direction was predicted in the hypotheses, they were tested at .01 level of significance, with a two-tailed test.

²⁶Freeman, op. cit., p. 112.

²⁷Freeman, op. cit., p. 171.

²⁸Freeman, op. cit., p. 187.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS OF THIS RESEARCH

The hypotheses stated in Chapter III (pp. 48-49) were further stated in null-hypotheses when subjected to test. The first null-hypothesis tested states:

There is no significant association between type of father's occupation and occupational expectation of students.

Table 1

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TYPE OF FATHER'S
OCCUPATION AND OCCUPATIONAL
EXPECTATION OF FOREIGN STUDENTS

<u>Father's Occupation</u>	<u>Occupational Expectation of Students</u>				
	Upper Professional	Lower Professional	Managerial	Total	
	%	%	%		
Non-Manual	24 (52.2)	21 (45.6)	1 (2.1)	46	
Manual	12 (63.2)	5 (26.3)	2 (10.5)	19	
Farmer	3 (25)	3 (25)	6 (50)	12	

$$\gamma = .29$$

$$N = 77$$

With a two-tailed test

$$Z_o = 1.58 < Z_t .01 = 2.576.$$

The data obtained indicate that there is 29% more agreement than inversion in the ranking of the dependent variable. The value of gamma (.29) portrays a low positive association between father's occupational status and the occupational expectation of students. The Z score for the test of significance of the value of gamma equals 1.58, which

is less than the critical value of Z for a two-tailed test at .01 level of significance. The values of gamma therefore indicate that among foreign students in the sample father's occupational status has little effect on the occupational status which a student expects to have after completing his study. The null-hypotheses was therefore accepted.

The second null-hypothesis tested states:

There is no significant association between father's level of education and occupational expectation of students.

Table 2

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEVEL OF FATHER'S
EDUCATION AND OCCUPATIONAL EXPECTATION
OF FOREIGN STUDENTS

Father's Level of Education	Occupational Expectation of Students					
	Upper Professional		Lower Professional		Managerial	Total
		%		%	%	
College	12	(54.5)	10	(45.5)	0 (0.0)	22
High School	21	(58.3)	14	(38.9)	1 (2.8)	36
Less than 7 yrs.	5	(31.2)	5	(31.2)	6 (37.6)	16
No Education at all	1	(25)	1	(25)	2 (50)	4

$$\gamma = .23$$

$$N = 78$$

$$\text{With a two-tailed test } Z_o = 1.49 < Z_t .01 = 2.576$$

When the association between level of father's education and occupational expectation was examined, it was found that the coefficient of rank association is too low to support the hypothesized relationship (See Table 2). The value of gamma is .23 and the value of Z is 1.49. This value

of Z is less than its critical value for a two-tailed test at .01 level of significance. The null-hypothesis was therefore accepted.

The third null-hypothesis states:

There is no significant association between family income and occupational expectation of foreign students.

Table 3

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FAMILY INCOME
AND OCCUPATIONAL EXPECTATION OF
FOREIGN STUDENTS

Family Income	Occupational Expectation of Students				
	Upper Professional	Lower Professional	Managerial		
	%	%	%	Total	
Over \$9,000	8 (66.7)	3 (25)	1 (8.3)	12	
\$3,000-\$9,000	9 (47.4)	8 (42.1)	2 (10.5)	19	
Under \$3,000	6 (31.6)	9 (47.4)	4 (21.1)	19	

$$\gamma = .44$$

$$N = 50$$

$$\text{With a two-tailed test } Z_o = 1.11 < Z_t .01 = 2.576$$

The data presented in Table 3 are used to test the relationship specified in the hypothesis. Although the coefficient of rank association indicated that there is a positive relationship between level of family income and student's expectation, the relationship is not significant at .01 level as indicated by the Z score.

The fourth null-hypothesis tested states;

There is no significant association between size of place of residence of students in their home country and their occupational expectation.

Table 4

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SIZE OF PLACE
OF RESIDENCE AND OCCUPATIONAL
EXPECTATION OF FOREIGN STUDENTS

Size of Place of Residence	Occupational Expectation of Students			
	Upper Professional	Lower Professional	Managerial	
	%	%	%	Total
More than 100,000	31 (53.5)	23 (39.7)	4 (6.9)	58
10,000 - 100,000	5 (45.5)	5 (45.5)	1 (9.1)	11
Less than 10,000	3 (33.3)	2 (22.2)	4 (44.4)	9

$$\gamma = .33$$

$$N = 78$$

$$\text{With a two-tailed test } Z_o = 1.92 < Z_{.01} = 2.576$$

Table 4 indicates that the hypothesized relationship is valid for foreign students in the sample. The value of gamma shows that a positive relationship exists between size of place of residence of foreign students in their home country and their occupational expectation, after college. The value of Z is also greater than the critical value of this score for a two-tailed test at .01 level. It was, therefore, decided to reject the null-hypothesis which specified that no relationship exists and the research hypothesis was accepted.

The fifth null-hypothesis tested states:

There is no significant association between father's occupational status and the past relative status aspiration of students.

Table 5

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FATHER'S OCCUPATION
AND RELATIVE STATUS ASPIRATION OF
FOREIGN STUDENTS

Father's Occupation	Relative Status Aspiration		Total
	Different Status	Same Status	
Non-Manual	42 (56%)	12 (66.7%)	54
Manual	20 (26.7)	2 (11.1)	22
Farmer	13 (17.3)	4 (22.2)	17
	100	100	N = 93

With a two-tailed test $Z_o = 0.17 < Z_{.01} = 2.576$

In Table 5, comparison was made between students who aspired to a different occupational status from their father's and those who aspired to the same occupational status as their father's. Data presented in the table provide some insight into the pattern of representation within each occupational group of father's occupation. Among offspring of non-manual fathers, a larger percentage aspired to a different status from that of their father (56%). But an equally significant percentage aspired to the same occupational status as their father's. It is rather unusual that some students indicate their desire to farm, since the population under examination consists of college students. Further generalizations are not, however, advisable from this finding, since the occupational scale used for occupational expectation does not distinguish between peasant and large-scale college-trained farmers.

The value of theta for the data presented in Table 5 further indicates that there is no relationship between father's occupational status and relative status aspiration of students. The null-hypothesis was therefore accepted.

The sixth hypothesis tested states that:

There is no significant association between the level of education of father and the past relative status aspiration of students.

Table 6

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEVEL OF
FATHER'S EDUCATION AND RELATIVE
STATUS ASPIRATION

Father's Level of Education	Relative Status Aspiration		
	Different Status	Same Status	
	%	%	Total
College	16 (21.3)	9 (69.2)	25
High School	38 (60.7)	3 (23.1)	41
Less than 7 years	21 (28)	1 (7.7)	22
$\theta = .50$			$N = 88$
With a two-tailed test $Z_o = 3.48$			$> Z_{.01} = 2.576$

In Table 6, the relative status aspiration of students was related to the level of education of students' fathers. The coefficient of rank correlation indicates a high positive relationship. The value of theta is .50 and this value is significant at the .01 level when converted to Z. The null-hypothesis was, therefore rejected and it was concluded that there is a relationship between level of father's education and the relative status aspiration of foreign students.

The seventh null-hypothesis states:

There is no significant association between family income and the past relative status aspiration of students.

Table 7

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FAMILY INCOME
AND RELATIVE STATUS ASPIRATION

	Relative Status Aspiration		
Family Income	Different Status	Same Status	
	%	%	Total
Over \$9,000	19 (37.3)	0 (0.0)	19
\$3,000-\$9,000	21 (41.2)	2 (33.3)	23
Below \$3,000	11 (21.6)	4 (66.7)	15
$\theta = .57$		N = 57	
With a two-tailed test $Z_o = 3.21 > Z_{.01} = 2.576$.			

The relationship between family income and relative status aspiration is examined in Table 7. Data presented indicate that past aspiration tends to be significantly affected by family income. The seventh hypothesis was therefore accepted.

The eighth null-hypothesis states:

There is no significant relationship between size of place of residence and relative status aspiration.

Table 8

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SIZE OF PLACE OF
RESIDENCE AND RELATIVE STATUS ASPIRATION

Size of Place of Residence	Relative Status Aspiration		Total
	Different Status	Same Status	
	%	%	
More than 100,000	45 (69.2)	10 (43.48)	55
10,000 - 100,000	11 (16.9)	7 (30.4)	18
Less than 10,000	9 (13.8)	6 (26.09)	15

$$\theta = .25$$

$$N = 88$$

With a two-tailed test $Z_o = 1.43 < Z_{t.01} = 2.576$

There has been a substantial amount of studies done on the relationship between the size of place of residence and level of occupational aspiration. Such studies tend to suggest that the level of aspiration of rural farm-reared youth is lower than that of rural non-farm or urban youths.²⁸ This hypothesized relationship is, however, not supported by data in the present study as shown in Table 8. The value of theta is .25 which is too low to be accepted and Z is less than the critical value of that score at .01 level with a two-tailed test. The null-hypothesis is therefore accepted.

According to Kuvlesky and Ohlendorf, the variable, Anticipatory Goal Deflection can be derived by comparing the past occupational aspiration of respondents with their occupational expectation.²⁹ This variable, according to the

²⁸ Middleton and Grigg, op. cit., p. 353.

²⁹ Kuvlesky and Ohlendorf, op. cit., p. 236.

authors, makes it possible for the researcher to find out to what extent subjects' expectation for the future differs significantly from their past aspiration, when related to the independent variable. On the basis of the comparison between past aspiration and expectation for the future, positive scores are assigned to those students who expect to have an occupation higher in status than their aspiration. Negative scores are assigned to those who expect an occupation lower in status than their aspiration and zero to those whose aspiration and expectation are on the same status level. Similar procedure was followed in presenting Table 9.

The relationship between fathers' occupation and anticipatory goal deflection was stated in a null-hypothesis thus:

There is no significant association between father's occupational status and anticipatory goal deflection.

Table 9

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FATHER'S OCCUPATION
AND ANTICIPATORY GOAL DEFLECTION

<u>Father's Occupation</u>	<u>Anticipatory Goal Deflection</u>			Total
	<u>+</u>	<u>-</u>	<u>0</u>	
	<u>%</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>%</u>	
Non-manual	9 (45)	3 (37.5)	30 (69.8)	42
Manual	9 (45)	2 (25)	7 (16.3)	18
Farmer	2 (10)	3 (37.5)	6 (14)	11

$$\theta = .08$$

$$N = 71$$

$$\text{With a two-tailed test } Z_o = 0.24 < Z_t .01 = 2.576$$

The value of theta in Table 9 indicates that there is

no relationship between father's occupation and anticipatory goal deflection among foreign students. The hypothesis was, therefore rejected.

The tenth null-hypothesis tested states:

There is no significant association between father's level of education and anticipatory goal deflection.

Table 10

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEVEL OF
FATHER'S EDUCATION AND ANTICIPATORY
GOAL DEFLECTION

	Anticipatory Goal Deflection			
<u>Fathers' Level of Education</u>	+	-	0	
	%	%	%	Total
College	6 (30)	3 (37.5)	13 (29.5)	22
High School	11 (55)	0 (0.0)	22 (50)	33
Less than 7 yrs. of education	3 (15)	5 (62.5)	9 (20.5)	17
$\theta = .18$				$N = 12$
With a two-tailed test $Z_o = 0.41$				
$< Z_t .01 = 2.576.$				

The value of theta and Z in the Table 10 indicate that the null-hypothesis stated above must be accepted. It is, therefore, concluded that there is no significant association between level of father's education and anticipatory goal deflection.

The eleventh null-hypothesis states:

There is no significant association between family income and anticipatory goal deflection.

Table 11

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FAMILY INCOME
AND ANTICIPATORY GOAL DEFLECTION

Family Income	Anticipatory Goal Deflection			Total
	+	-	0	
	%	%	%	
More than \$9,000	6 (21.4)	5 (29.4)	6 (22.2)	17
\$3,000-\$9,000	5 (17.9)	4 (23.5)	12 (44.4)	21
Less than \$3,000	17 (60.7)	8 (47.0)	9 (33.3)	34

$$\theta = .13$$

$$N = 72$$

With a two-tailed test $Z_o = 0.32 <$
 $Z_t .01 = 2.576$

Theta for the eleventh hypothesis indicates that there is no association between anticipatory goal deflection and level of family income. This rather low value of theta leads to the acceptance of the null-hypothesis.

The twelfth hypothesis that was tested stated thus:

There is no significant association between size of students' place of residence in their home country and anticipatory goal deflection.

Table 12

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SIZE OF PLACE
OF RESIDENCE AND ANTICIPATORY GOAL DEFLECTION

Size of Place of Residence	Anticipatory Goal Deflection			Total
	+	-	0	
	%	%	%	
More than 100,000	12 (35.2)	5 (27.7)	30 (73.1)	47
10,000-100,000	14 (41.1)	6 (33.3)	6 (14.6)	26
Less than 10,000	8 (23.5)	7 (49.0)	5 (12.2)	20

$$\theta = .34$$

$$N = 93$$

With a two-tailed test $Z_o = 1.85 <$ $Z_t .01 = 2.576$

In Table 12, the value of theta obtained indicates that there is no significant relationship between size of place of residence and the tendency for students to raise their level of expectation relative to past aspiration. This finding tends to be consistent with the conclusion of Kuvlesky and Ohlendorf when they studied Negro youths in the southern United States. Both authors reported that there was no significant difference between rural and urban Negro boys when their anticipatory goal deflection was examined.³⁰

³⁰Kuvlesky and Ohlendorf, op. cit., p. 237.

CHAPTER V

CONTROLLING FOR SOURCE OF
FINANCIAL SUPPORT

When low values of gamma and theta were obtained for the hypothesized relationships in Chapter III, leading to the rejection of most of those hypotheses, these results were seen as quite unusual, due to the results of former research that have supported most of the notions developed in the present work. It was, therefore, decided to look at each category of students specified earlier regarding their source of financial support at the university. It was felt that the presence of students who are on scholarship at the university may have distorted the results obtained in a specific direction.

Each of the twelve hypotheses postulated in Chapter three was re-examined while controlling for the source of financial support of the students. They were stated in null-hypothesis fashion and subjected to test. The first null-hypothesis which states that there is no relationship between father's occupational status and occupational expectation of foreign students is examined in Tables 13a and 13b.

Table 13a

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FATHER'S
OCCUPATION AND OCCUPATIONAL EXPECTATION OF
PRIVATE FOREIGN STUDENTS

Occupation of father	Occupational Expectation of Students			
	Upper Professional	Lower Professional	Managerial	
	%	%	%	Total
Non-manual	14 (50)	13 (46.4)	1 (13.6)	28
Manual	6 (24)	2 (8)	13 (52)	25
Farmer	1 (8.3)	2 (16.7)	9 (75)	12

$$\gamma = .72$$

$$N = 65$$

$$\text{With a two-tailed test } Z_o = 5.12 > Z_t .01 = 2.576.$$

Table 13a above shows the relationship between father's occupation and occupational expectation of students who are being supported mainly by their parents. When the value for gamma was calculated it indicated a strong positive association between father's occupational status and occupational expectation of students. As the data indicated, 50 per cent of the sons of non-manual workers expect to have upper professional jobs, whereas only 24 per cent of the off-spring of manual fathers and 8.3 per cent of farmer's off-spring expect to hold jobs of that status. On the other hand, only 3.6 per cent of the off-spring of non-manual fathers hope to have a job on the managerial level, while 52 per cent of the off-spring of manual and 75 per cent of the off-spring of farmers expect to hold jobs in that level. The Z score for the hypothesized relationship tends to indicate that these

differences are significant.

Table 13b

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FATHER'S
OCCUPATION AND OCCUPATIONAL EXPECTATION
OF SPONSORED STUDENTS

Father's Occupation	Occupational Expectation of Students			
	Upper Professional	Lower Professional	Managerial	Total
	%	%	%	
Non-manual	2 (14.3)	2 (14.3)	10 (71.4)	14
Manual	3 (50)	1 (16.7)	2 (33.3)	6
Farmer	1 (12.5)	1 (12.5)	6 (75)	8

$$\gamma = - .30$$

$$N = 28$$

With a two-tailed test $Z_o = 1.58 <$
 $Z_t .01 = 2.576.$

On the other hand, among students who are sponsored by their government or by private organizations, there is no significant association found between father's occupational status and student's level of expectation. The relationship between the two variables is also negative; i.e. there is an inverse relationship between father's occupational status and expectation (see Table 13b).

On the basis of the high level of association obtained in Table 13a, it is concluded that there is a highly significant association between father's occupational status and student's level of occupational expectation among privately supported students, but that this relationship is not true of government-sponsored students.

Further analysis of the hypothesized relationship between the independent variables (level of father's education, family income and place of residence) and the dependent variables (occupational expectation, relative status aspiration and anticipatory goal deflection) are carried out. In each of the analyses that follows below, source of financial support at the university is controlled.

Table 14a

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEVEL OF
FATHER'S EDUCATION AND OCCUPATIONAL
EXPECTATION OF PRIVATELY-SUPPORTED
FOREIGN STUDENTS

Father's Level of Education	Occupational Expectation of Students			
	Upper Professional	Lower Professional	Managerial	
	%	%	%	Total
College	18 (75)	4 (16.6)	2 (24.3)	24
High School	9 (34.6)	10 (38.4)	7 (37)	26
Less than 7 Yrs.	4 (36.3)	4 (36.3)	3 (27.4)	11

$$\chi = .67$$

$$N = 61$$

$$\text{With a two-tailed test } Z_o = 2.32 < Z_t .01 = 2.576.$$

Table 14a shows that there is an association between private student's background and their occupational expectation. The value of Z, however, indicates that the relationship is not significant.

Conversely, Table 14b indicates that there is no relationship between the level of education of fathers and the occupational expectation of foreign students.

Table 14b

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEVEL OF
FATHER'S EDUCATION AND OCCUPATIONAL
EXPECTATION OF SPONSORED FOREIGN
STUDENTS

Father's Level Of Education	Occupational Expectation of Students			
	Upper Professional	Lower Professional	Managerial	
	%	%	%	Total
College	3 (30)	7 (70)	0 (0.0)	10
High School	9 (81.8)	2 (18.2)	0 (0.0)	11
Less than 7 yrs.	1 (16.6)	1 (16.6)	4 (66.8)	6
No education at all	0 (0.0)	1 (33.3)	2 (66.7)	3

$$\chi = .01$$

$$N = 30$$

With two-tailed test $Z_o = 0.33 < Z_t .01 = 2.576$.

Table 15a

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FAMILY INCOME
AND OCCUPATIONAL EXPECTATION OF PRIVATE
STUDENTS

Family Income	Occupational Expectation of Students			
	Upper Professional	Lower Professional	Managerial	
	%	%	%	Total
Over \$9,000	15 (57.7)	10 (38.5)	1 (3.9)	26
\$3,000-\$9,000	3 (13.0)	8 (34.8)	12 (52.2)	23
Less than \$3,000	5 (83.3)	1 (16.7)	0 (0.0)	6

$$\chi = .65$$

$$N = 55$$

With a two-tailed test $Z_o = 2.35 < Z_t .01 = 2.576$.

Table 15a is used to analyse the relationship between

family income and occupational expectation of privately-supported students. Although the value of gamma indicates a strong relationship between those two variables, the value of Z for the relationship is less than the critical value which must be obtained in order to reject the null-hypothesis.

Table 15b

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FAMILY INCOME
AND OCCUPATIONAL EXPECTATION OF
GOVERNMENT-SPONSORED STUDENTS

Family Income	Occupational Expectation of Students				
	Upper Professional		Lower Professional		Managerial
	%		%		% Total
Over \$9,000	2	(25)	3	(37.5)	3 (37.5) 8
\$3,000-\$9,000	3	(75)	1	(25)	0 (0.0) 4
Less than \$3,000	5	(50)	3	(30)	2 (20) 10

$$\gamma = .45$$

$$N = 22$$

$$\text{With two-tailed test } Z_o = 1.71 < Z_t .01 = 2.576.$$

The value of gamma in Table 15b seems to suggest that there is a relationship between family income and occupational expectation among government sponsored students, but the value of Z is too low, therefore the hypothesized relationship must be rejected.

The hypothesized relationship between size of place of residence and occupational expectation of students was examined while controlling for source of income.

Table 16a

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SIZE OF PLACE
OF RESIDENCE AND OCCUPATIONAL
EXPECTATION OF PRIVATELY-SUPPORTED
STUDENTS

Size of Place of Residence	Occupational Expectation of Students			
	Upper Professional	Lower Professional	Managerial	
	%	%	%	Total
More than 100,000	14 (51.9)	10 (37.04)	3 (11.1)	27
10,000-100,000	1 (6.3)	7 (43.8)	8 (50)	16
Less than 10,000	2 (10.5)	9 (47.4)	8 (42.1)	19
$\chi^2 = .74$				N = 62
With a two-tailed test of significance, $Z_o = 2.84 > Z_t .01 = 2.576.$				

Table 16b

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SIZE OF PLACE
OF RESIDENCE AND OCCUPATIONAL
EXPECTATION OF GOVERNMENT
SPONSORED STUDENTS

Size of Place of Residence	Occupational Expectation of Students			
	Upper Professional	Lower Professional	Managerial	
	%	%	%	Total
More than 100,000	0 (0.0)	1 (20)	4 (80)	5
10,000-100,000	2 (33.3)	3 (50)	1 (16.7)	6
Less than 10,000	11 (57.9)	7 (36.8)	1 (5.3)	19
$\chi^2 = .74$				N = 30
With a two-tailed test of significance, Z_o $= 1.03 < Z_t .01 = 2.576.$				

Tables 16a and 16b indicate that there is a relationship between size of place of residence and occupational

expectation of both privately sponsored and government sponsored foreign students. However, while the value of Z for the hypothesized relationship is significant for privately-sponsored students, this does not hold for government-sponsored students. Thus, the interpretation of the significant value of gamma in Table 16b must be explained in terms of some other variables. However, the data at hand do not allow for further analysis of this situation; therefore it must be recommended for further studies.

The hypotheses relating father's occupation, level of father's education, family income and size of place of residence to Relative Status Aspiration are further re-applied, while controlling for source of financial support at the university. In testing each of those variables, the following tables are developed:

Table 17a

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FATHER'S OCCUPATION
AND RELATIVE STATUS ASPIRATION OF PRIVATELY
SUPPORTED FOREIGN STUDENTS

Father's Occupation	Relative Status Aspiration		Total
	Different Status	Same Status	
	%	%	
Non-Manual	27 (84.4)	8 (30.8)	35
Manual	3 (9.4)	13 (50)	16
Farmer	2 (6.3)	5 (19.2)	7

$$\theta = .52$$

$$N = 58$$

With two-tailed test of significance $Z_o = 3.06$
 $> Z_t .01 = 2.576.$

Table 17b

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FATHER'S
OCCUPATION AND RELATIVE STATUS ASPIRATION
OF GOVERNMENT-SPONSORED FOREIGN STUDENTS

Father's Occupation	Relative Status Aspiration		Total
	Different Status	Same Status	
	%	%	
Non-Manual	13 (46.4)	2 (28.6)	15
Manual	6 (21.4)	3 (42.9)	9
Farmer	9 (32.1)	2 (28.6)	11
$\theta = .10$			N = 35
With a two-tailed test of significance $Z_o = 0.31 < Z_t .01 = 2.576.$			

Table 18a

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FATHER'S
EDUCATION AND RELATIVE STATUS ASPIRATION
OF PRIVATELY SUPPORTED STUDENTS

Level of Father's Education	Relative Status Aspiration		Total
	Different Status	Same Status	
	%	%	
College	27 (77.1)	2 (11.1)	29
High School	7 (20)	6 (33.3)	13
Less Than 7 Yrs.	1 (2.9)	10 (55.6)	11
$\theta = .76$			N = 53
With a two-tailed test of significance $Z_o = 3.41 > Z_t .01 = 2.576.$			

Table 18b

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FATHER'S EDUCATION
AND RELATIVE STATUS ASPIRATION OF GOVERNMENT
SPONSORED STUDENTS

Level of Father's Education	Relative Status Aspiration		Total
	Different Status	Same Status	
	%	%	
College	8 (28.6)	2 (33.3)	10
High School	10 (35.7)	2 (33.3)	12
Less than 7 Yrs.	10 (35.7)	2 (33.3)	12

$$\theta = .04$$

$$N = 34$$

With a two-tailed test of significance,
 $Z_o = 0.12 < Z_t .01 = 2.576.$

Table 19a

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FAMILY INCOME
AND RELATIVE STATUS ASPIRATION OF
PRIVATELY SUPPORTED STUDENTS

Family Income	Relative Status Aspiration		Total
	Different Status	Same Status	
	%	%	
Over \$9,000	2 (25)	6 (75)	8
\$3,000-\$9,000	3 (23.0)	10 (77)	13
Less than \$3,000	16 (88.9)	2 (11.1)	18

$$\theta = .64$$

$$N = 39$$

With a two-tailed test of significance
 $Z_o = 1.89 < Z_t .01 = 2.576.$

Table 19b

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FAMILY
INCOME AND RELATIVE STATUS ASPIRATION
OF GOVERNMENT SPONSORED STUDENTS

Family Income	Relative Status Aspiration			Total
	Different Status		Same Status	
		%	%	
Over \$9,000	4	(66.7)	2 (33.3)	6
\$3,000-\$9,000	4	(80)	1 (20)	5
Less than \$3,000	8	(80)	2 (20)	10
$\theta = .15$				$N = 21$
With a two-tailed test of significance $Z_o = 0.41 < Z_t .01 = 2.576.$				

Table 20a

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SIZE OF
PLACE OF RESIDENCE AND RELATIVE
STATUS ASPIRATION OF PRIVATELY
SUPPORTED STUDENTS

Size of Place of Residence	Relative Status Aspiration			Total
	Different Status		Same Status	
		%	%	
Over 100,000	24	(88.9)	3 (11.1)	27
10,000-100,000	5	(35.7)	9 (64.3)	14
Less than 10,000	3	(42.8)	4 (57.2)	7
$\theta = .54$				$N = 48$
With a two-tailed test of significance $Z_o = 3.16 > Z_t .01 = 2.576.$				

Table 20b

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SIZE OF
PLACE OF RESIDENCE AND RELATIVE STATUS
ASPIRATION FOR GOVERNMENT SPONSORED STUDENTS

Size of Place of Residence	Relative Status Aspiration		
	Different Status	Same Status	
	%	%	Total
Over 100,000	4 (3.7)	9 (96.3)	13
10,000-100,000	4 (80)	1 (20)	5
Less than 10,000	3 (50)	3 (50)	6

$$\theta = .26$$

$$N = 24$$

With a two-tailed test of significance
 $Z_o = 0.78 < Z_t .01 = 2.576.$

Tables 17a, 18a, 19a and 20a indicate that among foreign students who are supported by their families, social background has a significant effect on the type of job to which they aspired in the past. The value of theta in each of the relationships indicates strong relationship and theta is significant in three of those tables (Tables 17a, 18a, and 20a).

On the other hand the hypotheses are found not to hold when applied to government sponsored students.

The hypotheses relating the three independent variables to Anticipatory Goal Deflection are re-applied while controlling for source of financial support. The following tables emerged as a result of further analysis of data to test the hypotheses relating the variables cited above:

Table 21a

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FATHER'S
OCCUPATION AND ANTICIPATORY GOAL DEFLECTION
AMONG PRIVATELY SUPPORTED STUDENTS.

Father's	Anticipatory Goal Deflection			Total
	+	-	0	
Non-Manual	2 (13.0)	2 (8.2)	10 (43.5)	14
Manual	3 (20)	7 (63.6)	7 (30.4)	17
Farmer	10 (66.6)	2 (18.2)	6 (26.1)	18

$$\theta = .39$$

$$N = 49$$

With a two-tailed test of significance
 $Z_o = 1.29 < Z_t .01 = 2.576.$

Table 21b

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FATHER'S OCCUPATION
AND ANTICIPATORY GOAL DEFLECTION AMONG
GOVERNMENT SPONSORED FOREIGN STUDENTS

Father's Occupation	Anticipatory Goal Deflection			Total
	+	-	0	
	%	%	%	
Non-Manual	6 (50)	1 (25)	19 (79.3)	26
Manual	5 (41.6)	1 (25)	4 (16.6)	10
Farmer	1 (8.4)	2 (50)	1 (4.1)	4

$$\theta = .20$$

$$N = 40$$

With a two-tailed test of significance
 $Z_o = 0.59 < Z_t .01 = 2.576.$

Table 22a

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEVEL OF
FATHER'S EDUCATION AND ANTICIPATORY
GOAL DEFLECTION AMONG PRIVATELY
SUPPORTED STUDENTS

	Anticipatory Goal Deflection				
Father's Level of Education	+	-	0		
	%	%	%		Total
College	4	1	6		11
High School	6	9	15		30
Less than 7 Yrs. of Education	2	3	3		8
$\theta = .23$					$N = 45$
With a two-tailed test of significance					
$Z_o = 0.75 < Z_t .01 = 2.576.$					

Table 22b

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEVEL OF FATHER'S
EDUCATION AND ANTICIPATORY GOAL DEFLECTION
AMONG GOVERNMENT SPONSORED STUDENTS

	Anticipatory Goal Deflection				
Level of Father's Education	+	-	0		
	%	%	%		Total
College	1	2	7		10
High School	4	3	6		13
Less than 7 Yrs. of Education	4	2	6		12
$\theta = .17$					$N = 35$
With two-tailed test of significance					
$Z_o = 0.51 < Z_t .01 = 2.576.$					

Table 23a

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FAMILY INCOME
AND ANTICIPATORY GOAL DEFLECTION AMONG
PRIVATELY SUPPORTED FOREIGN STUDENTS

Family Income	Anticipatory Goal Deflection			Total
	+	-	0	
	%	%	%	
Over \$9,000	6	5	15	25
\$3,000-\$9,000	2	4	1	7
Below \$3,000	16	2	3	21

$$\theta = .45$$

$$N = 53$$

With a two-tailed test of significance
 $Z_o = 1.88 < Z_t .01 = 2.576.$

Table 23b

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FAMILY INCOME AND
ANTICIPATORY GOAL DEFLECTION AMONG
GOVERNMENT SPONSORED FOREIGN STUDENTS

Family Income	Anticipatory Goal Deflection			Total
	+	-	0	
	%	%	%	
Over \$9,000	7	2	3	12
\$3,000-\$9,000	1	5	2	8
Below \$3,000	3	2	2	7

$$\theta = .19$$

$$N = 27$$

With a two-tailed test of significance
 $Z_o = 0.50 < Z_t .01 = 2.576.$

Table 24a

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SIZE OF PLACE
OF RESIDENCE AND ANTICIPATORY GOAL
DEFLECTION AMONG PRIVATELY SUPPORTED
FOREIGN STUDENTS

	Anticipatory Goal Deflection			
Size of Place of Residence	+	-	0	
	%	%	%	Total
Over 100,000	10	2	21	33
10,000-100,000	5	1	2	8
Below 10,000	3	3	5	11
$\theta = .23$				$N = 52$
With a two-tailed test of significance				
$Z_o = 0.65 < Z_t .01 = 2.576.$				

Table 24b

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SIZE OF
PLACE OF RESIDENCE AND ANTICIPATORY
GOAL DEFLECTION AMONG GOVERNMENT
SPONSORED STUDENTS

	Anticipatory Goal Deflection			
Size of Place of Residence	+	-	0	
	%	%	%	Total
Over 100,000	3	1	4	8
10,000-100,000	1	1	4	6
Below 10,000	4	3	12	19
$\theta = .10$				$N = 33$
With a two-tailed test of significance				
$Z_o = 0.28 < Z_t .01 = 2.576.$				

When the independent variables of father's occupation,
level of father's education, family income and place of

residence are related to anticipatory goal deflection, no significant relationship is found between these independent variables and anticipatory goal deflection for either private students or scholarship holders (Tables 21a, 22a, 23a, 24a, 21b, 22b, 23b and 24b). It is further observed that 67% of those whose anticipation for the future has been positively deflected are the off-spring of farmers. Those whose anticipation is negatively deflected are mostly the off-spring of manual-worker fathers (64 per cent), and those who still expect to have the kind of job to which they aspired in the past are mostly the offspring of non-manual worker fathers (Table 19a). It is further observed that the percentage of those who have changed their aspiration to higher levels do not differ in any striking way from one type of occupational status to the other. This same pattern is true of the categories of students according to the level of education of their fathers (Table 20a).

When private students are categorized according to the level of income of their families, it is found that a significant relationship exists between anticipatory goal deflection and family income (Table 21a).

The patterns of relationship thus observed in the data presented in Tables 21 to 24 indicate that the tendency for foreign students to change or retain the occupational status to which they aspire within a period of time does not seem to be determined by their social background. This may be due to other factors which cannot be assessed with the

data available presently.

Summary: Certain significant deductions can be made from the foregoing analyses. To make the first deduction, the steps taken in the above analyses must be reviewed. The source of financial support for foreign students is controlled. This procedure classified the sample into two groups - those whose expenses are paid by their parents at the University of Manitoba and those who are attending the University on scholarship or bursary from a government. It is found that the occupational expectation and aspiration of students who are sponsored by their parents is affected by their social background. This conclusion does not apply to those students who are sponsored by their government. It is difficult to interpret these conclusions beyond this point, but some alternative interpretations may be suggested.

In the first place, privately supported students may have an allegiance to their background while the scholarships may give some financial independence from parental influence to high and low-status students alike. Secondly, it is observed that a considerable number of students sponsored by a government come from parents whose income falls below 3,000 dollars per annum (Tables 15b and 19b). This level of income is not enough to maintain a student in a foreign university, which suggests that students in that income group might have not been able to attend a university if no financial aid was provided. Findings previously cited, therefore, suggest that financial aid to students can

significantly lead to high levels of expectation for the future. Furthermore, that government-sponsored students from different backgrounds aspire to high occupational statuses in the past as suggested by Tables 17b, 18b, 19b and 20b, somehow indicates that those students had an amount of self-confidence in their academic ability. This conclusion may not be widely applied, however, due to the previous limitations to instruments of measurement of aspiration briefly indicated in Chapter Three.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Summary

The results of this research may be briefly summarized thus: that there is no relationship between the social background of foreign students from the developing countries and their level of occupational expectation, past aspiration, or goal deflection. This generalization is derived from the results of the following hypotheses that have been tested.

The first hypothesis states that there is a significant relationship between father's occupation and occupational expectation of students. This hypothesis was, however, rejected (Table 7).

The second hypothesis states that there is a significant relationship between father's level of education and occupational expectation of students. This hypothesis was also rejected because the data indicate that students whose fathers have completed lower educational grades expect to have high-status occupation just as those whose fathers have completed college or high school (Table 2).

The third hypothesis states that there is a relationship between family income and occupational expectation. There was no significant difference between the three income groups used when occupational expectation of students is controlled. This conclusion which was derived from data in Table 3 led to the rejection of the hypothesis.

The fourth hypothesis which states that there is a relationship between size of place of residence and occupational

expectation was rejected because differences between the occupational expectation of students from each community size is not significant (Table 4).

The fifth hypothesis states that there is a relationship between father's occupation and past relative status aspiration of foreign students. This hypothesis was also rejected because data tend to indicate that students who are sons of non-manual workers aspire to different occupational status from their father's in almost equal proportion as those who aspire to the same occupational status as their father's (Table 5).

The sixth hypothesis which states that there is a significant association between level of education of fathers and the past relative status aspiration of students was accepted. The data for this relationship indicate that students whose fathers have obtained college education aspire to the same status significantly more than any other educational group used in the table. Furthermore, students whose fathers completed less than 7 years of schooling invariably aspire to a different status compared to sons of college graduates (Table 6).

The seventh hypothesis states that there is a significant relationship between family income and relative status aspiration. This hypothesis was accepted also (Table 7).

The eighth hypothesis which states that there is a significant relationship between size of place of residence and relative status aspiration was rejected because the

difference in the percentage of students who aspired to different and similar status as their father's was not significant (Table 8).

The ninth hypothesis states that there is a significant relationship between father's occupation and anticipatory goal deflection. Data analysed to test this hypothesis indicate that this relationship does not hold for foreign students at the University of Manitoba. The hypothesis was, therefore, rejected (Table 9).

The tenth hypothesis states that there is a significant relationship between level of father's education and anticipatory goal deflection. This hypothesis was also rejected (Table 10).

The eleventh hypothesis which states that there is a significant relationship between family income and anticipatory goal deflection was rejected because the differences in the percentage of students in each income group who have changed their occupational goals was not significant (Table 11).

The twelfth hypothesis states that there is a significant relationship between size of place of residence of students and anticipatory goal deflection. Data tend to indicate that this hypothesis is not applicable to foreign students from the developing countries at the University of Manitoba. The hypothesis was, therefore, rejected.

In all, ten hypotheses were rejected and two that were related to relative status aspiration were accepted. This conclusion, however, is striking, because former

research both in North America and in countries of the developing world tend to suggest that aspiration of youth may be significantly influenced by the socio-economic status of parents. It was felt that the result of the present work is unusual.

Further analysis was therefore carried out to test for each of the hypotheses offered again, while controlling for source of financial support. This procedure yielded significant results because all the hypotheses formerly rejected (except two) were found to be applicable to foreign students supported by their parents. The hypotheses were found not to apply, however, to those students who are supported financially by a government. It was, therefore, concluded that the sample of government-sponsored students included in the original test might have neutralized the effect of social background on students' occupational expectation and aspiration. However, it was found out that among the two samples of students - i.e. privately-supported and government-sponsored students - social background has no effect on anticipatory goal deflection. This finding tends to suggest that factors other than social background may account for the tendency among college students to change their occupational aspiration for the future.

Conclusion:

It may be concluded from the results of this study that occupational aspirations and expectation for the future,

among foreign students at the University of Manitoba is significantly related to their social background. What this tentative conclusion suggests is that foreign students at this institution tend to associate their chances of attaining their occupational goals with their social origin. The above conclusion is similar to that offered by early American sociologists that individuals chances of attaining their educational and occupational aspiration levels depends to a large extent on their social origin.

Another striking aspect of the results of the present study is that students who are on scholarship or fellowship do not see their social background as affecting their future occupational plans. This conclusion may be explained by the fact that students on government support are normally trained for specific posts in their home-country. They obtain promise of a job on the basis of their scholarship bonds, which, on the other hand, was awarded to them because of their academic excellence. However, the above explanations can not be stretched any further, since only students in professional fields of study obtain such promises, and those in liberal arts can only be certain of a position if it is available. Besides, other factors, like academic performance may account for their high occupational plans.

The above conclusions tend to provide a basis for demanding that increased financial aid must be awarded to deserving foreign students in order to provide adequate and competent manpower for newly developing nations of the world.

That there are motivation to study and aspiration to higher occupational categories among students can not be denied. What is lacking is effective planning for financing trained manpower to fill new technical, professional and administrative positions. It may also be of interest to note that out of 93 students who responded to the questionnaire, only 30 (approximately 33%) were on one form of scholarship or another. The remaining 63 (approximately 67%) were supported by their parents and these students sometimes supplement the support with part-time jobs during regular sessions and summer vacations. The fact that these students who are privately supported, possess the motivation to study for higher professions in spite of their social limitations tends to suggest that award of scholarship should be based not only on academic excellence, but also on factors like motivation to study and parental ability to pay the student's way through college.

Limitations of this study: The results of this study can not be recommended for widespread generalizations to foreign students due to some limitations which may render such generalizations invalid.

The first limitation may be that this study examines students who are registered for the session 1970-71 only. The extent to which this is a selective group considering the increasing economic potentialities of developing countries, is not known. It is not known whether a longitudinal study will yield different results from those

obtained in this study. However, such an approach is recommended.

Furthermore, the method of analysis adopted for this investigation permits the use of a small sample. In the present research, the size of the sample has dictated the statistical method of analysis used. The size of the sample, however, has been limited by the availability of funds. Thus, a larger sample may provide a more detailed insight into the problems raised in this research.

There is no doubt that categorization used may affect the results obtained. The use of a socio-economic scale rather than an occupational prestige scale may obscure father's occupational status and foreign students' expectation. Furthermore, certain categories have been collapsed due to the presence of zero and low cells, which emerged as a result of the rather small sample being used. The procedure of collapsing the categories under the variable relative status aspiration no doubt conceals the direction of the difference between father's occupation and son's expectation. Although this process serves the purpose of the research, it places a substantial amount of limitation on the extent to which generalizations from the findings in that aspect are useful.

Recommendations for further study:

In the face of the limitations mentioned above, the investigation raises more questions than it has answered.

This study can not claim to have conclusively answered the questions asked in the introductory chapter.

The first area recommended for further research is the alternative suggestions which can be given as explaining the levels of expectation and aspiration of college students. The variables tested have only been offered as necessary but not sufficient conditions for either high or low aspiration and expectation. Further research in this direction will significantly improve the present knowledge on aspiration and also the building of a grand theory sufficient to explain the phenomena dealt with.

There is no doubt that the methodology of this research is one of convenience for the reasons stated earlier in the section dealing with the limitations of the study. There should be an adequate scale of measurement for aspiration which can be reliably and validly applied to students from both developed and developing countries. Such a scale may allow for a more sophisticated statistical method of analysis which will also lead to prediction of direction between the variables being related. This approach is not lacking in research already undertaken in the United States and Canada, but it is regrettably absent in research done in the developing countries.

The approach recommended above may lead to more objective evaluation of the factors that determine individual's occupational aspiration and subsequently to the building up of a theory of occupational choice, the knowledge of which is lacking in modern sociology.

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APPENDIX

APPENDIX

QUESTIONNAIRE

SERIAL NO _____

1. Age:
 1. 18 or younger _____
 2. 19 - 20 _____
 3. 21 - 22 _____
 4. 23 - 24 _____
 5. 24 or over _____
2. Sex:
 1. Male _____
 2. Female _____
3. Marital Status:
 1. Single _____
 2. Married _____
 3. Divorced _____
 4. Separated _____
 5. Widowed _____
4. Country of origin _____
5. In what faculty are you presently enrolled?
 1. Agriculture _____
 2. Architecture _____
 3. Commerce _____
 4. Arts _____
 5. Dentistry _____
 6. Education _____
 7. Engineering _____
 8. Art _____
 9. Graduate studies _____
 10. Home Economics _____
 11. Law _____
 12. Medicine _____
 13. Medical Rehabilitation _____
 14. Music _____
 15. Dental Hygiene _____
 16. Nursing _____
 17. Pharmacy _____
 18. Physical Education _____
 19. Social Work _____
 20. Education _____
 21. Science _____

6. What degree will you take eventually when you graduate?

1. B.A. _____
2. B.A. (Latin Philosophy) _____
3. B.A. (Hons) _____
4. B.Sc. _____
5. B.Sc. (Hon) _____
6. B.S.A. _____
7. B.E.S. _____
8. B.Arch. _____
9. B.L.A. _____
10. B.I.D. _____
11. B. Comm. _____
12. D.M.D. _____
13. B.Paed. _____
14. B.Ed. _____
15. B.Sc. (Eng) _____
16. B.F.A. _____
17. B.F.A. (Hon) _____
18. B.H.Ec. _____
19. LL.B. _____
20. B.O.T. _____
21. B.P.T. _____
22. M.D. _____
23. B.Sc. (Med) _____
24. B.Mus. (Hon) _____
25. B.Mus. _____
26. B.Mus. (Perf) _____
27. B.N. _____
28. B.Sc. (Pharm) _____
29. B.P.E. _____
30. B.S.W. _____
31. Others (specify) _____

7. Position in your family:

0. Only child _____
1. Oldest child _____
2. Youngest child _____
3. Middle (have both older & younger brothers and sisters).

8. After taking my degree, my plan is (please check one):

1. To continue in graduate school _____
2. To work for sometime, with hope of coming back to graduate school _____
3. To go and work and settle down in life _____
4. To go to study for a profession _____

9. What occupation are you really sure you can get after taking your degree? (Please be specific).

10. Is this choice of occupation (please check one):
1. Self selective (by own choice) _____
 2. Entirely government decision _____
 3. Parent's decision _____
 4. Determined by supply and demand _____
 5. Others (please specify) _____

11. How certain are you that you will get this type of occupation:

1. Very certain _____
2. Certain _____
3. Not very certain _____
4. Very uncertain _____

12. What makes you feel confident that you will get this job?

1. Government assurance _____
2. Parents are very influential _____
3. Parents own business _____
4. Relatives or friends working with government _____
5. Others (please specify) _____

13. What was the occupation you intended going into prior to your coming to the university? _____

14. If you changed your mind as to the type of occupation you wished to enter, what brought about this change?

1. Course too hard _____
2. No money to finance study _____
3. Parents wanted me to go into above-mentioned profession _____
4. Do not like above-mentioned profession any longer _____
5. Others (Please specify) _____

15. Father's occupation (please give exact designation; if deceased, please write down his last occupation and explain what he does in details).

16. Is your mother working?

1. Yes
2. No

17. If yes to Question 16, what is her occupation?
(Please give exact designation and explain in parentheses. If deceased, write down her last occupation).

18. Father's Education:

1. Graduate professional training _____
2. Standard college or university graduation _____
3. Partial college training _____
4. High school graduation _____
5. Partial High School _____
6. Junior High school _____
7. Less than seven years of school _____
8. No education at all _____

19. Mother's Education:

1. Graduate professional training _____
2. Standard college or university graduation _____
3. Partial college training _____
4. High school graduation _____
5. Partial High school _____
6. Junior High school _____
7. Less than seven years of school _____
8. No education at all _____

20. Family income: (Please estimate in your country's currency)

- i) Father's income _____
- ii) Mother's income _____
- iii) Total family income _____

21. Place of residence in your home country:

1. Village or rural area _____
2. Small town _____
3. City _____
4. Suburb of a city _____

22. What is the population in your place of residence at your home country?

1. Less than 10,000 _____
2. 10,000 - 30,000 _____
3. 30,000 - 50,000 _____
4. 50,000 - 100,000 _____
5. More than 100,000 _____

23. Has your family lived in that place of residence all their lives?
1. Yes
 2. No
24. If no to Question 23, for how long did they live there?
1. Less than 5 years _____
 2. 5 - 10 years _____
 3. 10 - 15 years _____
 4. More than 15 years _____
25. When they moved, where did they move to?
1. Rural area or village _____
 2. Another town _____
 3. Another city _____
 4. Another country _____
 5. Other (please specify) _____
26. Why did they move? (Please check one)
1. Father got another job _____
 2. To be near school _____
 3. To reside with relatives _____
 4. Father got transferred _____
 5. Other reason (please specify) _____
27. I would say my family in its present setting is:
1. Upper class _____
 2. Upper-middle _____
 3. Lower-middle _____
 4. Working class _____
 5. Lower class _____
28. Would you expect to be in the same class after getting your degree and going back home?
1. Yes
 2. No
29. If no to Question 28, what would say account for the change?
1. Getting education from a foreign country would be of great help toward enhancement of position _____
 2. People at home will look at me differently _____
 3. I think I will be able to make more money than my father _____
 4. I think I will be much needed in my country in terms of my skill _____
 5. I think there will be a lot of opportunities available for me _____
 6. Others (please specify) _____

30. Do you think your parents participate fully in matters affecting your home town?

1. Participate fully _____
2. Seldom participate _____
3. Rarely participate _____
4. Do not participate at all _____

31. Write down two things that make you feel they participate (or do not participate) fully.

1.

2.

32. What was the most important thing that made you go into your present field of study at the university?

1. Parents' influence _____
2. Relatives _____
3. Government decision _____
4. Myself _____
5. Friends have influenced me _____
6. Others (please specify) _____

33. The single most important person influencing me to come to college was:

0. Father _____
1. Mother _____
2. A teacher _____
3. A counsellor _____
4. Adult outside the family _____
5. A relative _____
6. Wife _____
7. A high school friend _____
8. Somebody associated with college _____
9. Somebody else _____
10. Myself, I always knew I would _____

34. How do you finance your expenses at the university?

1. Self (Employment/Savings) _____
2. Scholarship/Loan/Bursary _____
3. Parents _____
4. Other close relatives _____
5. Other distant relatives _____
6. Wife/Husband _____
7. No steady source _____

35. If more than one source, what percentage comes from each source:

<u>SOURCE</u>	<u>PERCENTAGE</u>
1. Self	_____
2. Scholarship/Loan/Bursary	_____
3. Parents	_____
4. Other close relatives	_____
5. Other distant relatives	_____
6. Wife/Husband	_____

36. Did you get any promise of financial help before coming to this university?

1. Yes
2. No

37. If yes to Question 36, by whom? (Please check one)

1. Parents _____
2. Relatives _____
3. Spouse _____
4. Outside bodies like government, institutions and other agencies _____

38. What type of agencies, if any, have sponsored you?

1. Church organizations _____
2. Government agencies _____
3. International agencies _____
4. Others (please specify) _____

39. Has the help continued ever since?

1. Yes _____
2. No _____

40. If no to Question 39, why was it stopped?
1. Aid stopped with expiration of contract _____
 2. Aid stopped with death of helper _____
 3. Aid stopped due to own fault _____
 4. Aid stopped by mutual agreement _____
 5. Aid stopped unilaterally _____
41. Have you ever had to drop out to work for money?
1. Yes
 2. No
42. What periods were these?
1. When in primary school _____
 2. After last grade in primary school, before entering secondary school _____
 3. When in secondary School _____
 4. After last grade in secondary school _____
 5. When in college _____
43. Why did it become necessary for you to go out of school to work?
1. To help my family _____
 2. To help myself getting through school _____
 3. Parents were not able to put me through school _____
 4. Death of one of the parents _____
 5. To help me get through college _____
 6. Others (please specify) _____
44. Do you find your present study too difficult?
1. Yes
 2. No
45. If yes to Question 44, what are the difficulties you have?
1. Adjusting to society _____
 2. Lack of proper understanding of the language _____
 3. Lack of interest in study _____
 4. Others (please specify) _____
46. Will you drop out of the university if things continue to be difficult?
1. Yes _____
 2. No _____

47. What will be the reaction of your parents if you drop out of your course?
1. Will feel concerned _____
 2. Will not feel concerned _____
 3. Will feel disappointed _____
 4. Others (please specify) _____

48. If you had a choice, would you have like to attend a university in your country?
1. Yes
 2. No

49. If yes to Question 48, why?
1. I would have no language problems _____
 2. I would not have faced problems of adjustment _____
 3. I would have been with my family and friends _____
 4. I do not think I am getting much out of my education here _____
 5. I think training in my country is just as good as training here _____
 6. Others (please specify) _____

50. If no to Question 48, why?
1. Being in a foreign country carries status symbol _____
 2. The availability of the same training I am getting here back at home _____
 3. We don't have higher education in my country _____
 4. Others (please specify) _____

51. Would you please rank the university that impresses you most in your country of origin with the following universities around the world:

	<u>UNIVERSITY</u>	<u>Better</u>	<u>Equal</u>	<u>Below</u>	<u>Don't Know</u>
1.	Harvard	_____	_____	_____	_____
2.	Yale	_____	_____	_____	_____
3.	McGill	_____	_____	_____	_____
4.	Oxford	_____	_____	_____	_____
5.	Cambridge	_____	_____	_____	_____
6.	London	_____	_____	_____	_____
7.	Manitoba	_____	_____	_____	_____
8.	Toronto	_____	_____	_____	_____
9.	British Columbia	_____	_____	_____	_____
10.	University of California (Los Angeles)	_____	_____	_____	_____

52. Why did you choose the University of Manitoba as a place to study?

1. Government decision _____
2. Course not available anywhere else to my knowledge _____
3. Had no choice _____
4. No university in my home country _____
5. Other (please specify) _____

53. Are you planning to return to your country of origin after you have finished your studies in this university?

1. Yes, I am planning to return _____
2. No, I am not planning to return _____
3. I may stay around for sometime before going back _____
4. Other (please specify) _____

54. If no to Question 53, why do you prefer staying to going back?