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Career Aspirations, Expectations, And Beliefs Of African-American, White, And Hispanic Male Adolescents With Holland Social Personality Types

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CAREER ASPIRATIONS, EXPECTATIONS, AND BELIEFS OF AFRICAN-AMERICAN, WHITE, AND HISPANIC MALE ADOLESCENTS WITH HOLLAND SOCIAL PERSONALITY TYPES

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to investigate differences in career aspirations, expectations, and beliefs of male adolescents as a function of race and Holland social personality type. Participants were 22 African-American, 38 White, and 28 Hispanic male, ninth-graders from a suburban high school.

Participants responded to four instruments: (a) A demographics form (b) a career aspiration and expectation questionnaire, (c) the Vocational Preference Inventory, and (d) the Career Beliefs Inventory. Two null hypotheses were tested using a 3 X 2 analysis of covariance.

There were no differences in career aspirations and expectations either by race or by Holland social personality type. The only difference in career beliefs by race was that African-Americans scored higher than Whites and Hispanics in their belief that approval of others was not important in choosing a career.

Differences in career beliefs by Holland social personality type were noted on four scales. High Social Personality Types scored higher than Low Social Personality Types on all four scales, indicating the following beliefs: (a) A willingness to work harder despite facing uncertain futures; (b) a greater inclination to persevere even in the face of failure; (c) envisioning greater capacity to pursue job satisfaction, even if it meant changing jobs in the

process; and (d) feeling more confident in being able to overcome future obstacles in pursuit of meaningful work.

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INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

Recently, researchers have begun to focus attention on the percentage of African-American males employed in social occupations. In the Dictionary of Occupational Titles (United States Department of Labor, 1977), social occupations include the following: (a) college and university teachers, (b) teachers, except at colleges and universities, (c) educational and vocational counselors, (d) social scientists and urban planners, and (e) social, recreational, and religious workers. Statistics compiled by the United States Department of Labor (1989) revealed that African-American males represented 2.7% of all workers in the social occupations.

African-American males, however, comprise 6% of the United States' population. Therefore, it may be expected by chance that 6% of all workers in the social occupations should be African-American males (Gottfredson, 1978a). Because they only represent 2.7% of all workers in the social occupations, however, it is clear that they are underrepresented in these occupations. This

underrepresentation in the social occupations has been a cause for concern, especially in the teaching profession, which constitutes 75% of the social occupations (Garibaldi, 1987; Grant & Gillette, 1987; Guiton, 1988; Haberman, 1988).

The importance of proportional representation of African-American males in the social occupations, and, particularly, in the teaching profession, lies in their function as role models. Research has indicated that the presence of role models throughout students' formal education expands their career options (Gibbs, 1988; Grant & Gillette, 1987). In concert with this, the presence of role models has been shown to facilitate the development of the characteristics, values, and skills which are necessary to realistically pursue those careers (Gibbs, 1988). The presence of role models is especially important in a racially and culturally diverse society such as the United States (Garibaldi, 1987; Grant & Gillette, 1987; Guiton, 1988).

Researchers have asserted that the underrepresentation of African-American role models has an effect on the educational and vocational development of all students (Grant & Gillette, 1987). For instance, Grant & Gillette (1987) stated that the absence of African-American role models deprives White students of the opportunity to develop skills and knowledge which would enhance their multicultural interactions. This is becoming increasingly important for two reasons.

First, to successfully compete in the emerging global economy, companies will be needing employees who can collaborate, problem solve, and interact with individuals of differing backgrounds both within the company and with companies around the world (Leckrone, 1993). Second, the demography of the United States is changing; it is projected that by the year 2000, ethnic minorities will represent one-third of the nation's population (United States Department of Labor, 1989). Furthermore, by the year 2020, it is predicted that 50% of all school age children will be ethnic minorities (Leckrone, 1993). With proportional representation, African-American role models can assist in preparing all students for living and working in an increasingly diverse and global world (Grant & Gillette, 1987; Leckrone, 1993).

In addition to preparing White students to participate in a pluralistic society, the presence of African-American role models will also benefit ethnic minority students. According to statistics, ethnic minority students appear to have the most compelling need for appropriate African-American male role models. For example, Hoyt (1988) reported that 40% of ethnic minority youth were currently functionally illiterate. He added that some cities had experienced a dropout rate of almost 50% among black youth, coupled with the statistic that African-American children were suspended from school at twice the rate of White

students, and that only 20% of African-American high school seniors proceeded to matriculate to college.

Among ethnic minority students, African-American male students are in a position to be the main beneficiaries of increased numbers on African-American male role models. According to Reed (1988), of all the ethnic groups in America, African-American males received the lowest grades in classroom courses and also on the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT).

In addition, Hoyt (1988) and Larson (1988) asseverated that, in contrast to non-Hispanic White men, African-American males were less well-prepared for occupational success by the existing educational system. Hoyt reported that the unemployment rates for African-American youth were almost double those for White youth. Moreover, he added that, in 1986, the unemployment rate for White high school dropouts was 36% compared to 43% for African-American high school graduates. He also stated that, during this same year, the unemployment rate for 16- to 24-year-old African-Americans was almost three times the rate for Whites (29% for African-Americans versus 10.5% for Whites).

Although the American educational system has been criticized for the inadequate preparation of students in general, it has been specifically criticized for the poor educational achievement and vocational preparation of African-American males (Garibaldi, 1987; Gibbs, 1988; Grant & Gillette, 1987; Haberman, 1988; Hoyt, 1988). One of the

by-products of the industrial era was the passing of the proverbial educational torch from the American family to the American teacher (Reed, 1988). This change was viewed as critically important if this nation's youths, of all races, ethnicities, and cultures, were to effectively participate in a democratic society, and were to be adequately armed with the essential skills to be productive in the work place (Grant & Gillette, 1987). The American school system, therefore, was hailed as the launching pad for American youth into the post-industrial world of work (Hoyt, 1988; Reed, 1988).

The unsuccessful launching of African-American males from the school system has greatly reduced the pool of employees from which to recruit workers. Furthermore, this predicament is projected to continue into the next decade based on the decreasing number of ethnic minorities majoring in education and social sciences (Garibaldi, 1987). This decline is accompanied by an increase in the ethnic minority student population at the elementary and secondary levels (Garibaldi, 1987). With the continuing decline in the number of African-American males participating in the academic and vocational development of this nation's youth, researchers speculate that African-American male students may continue to be the constituency which is most at-risk for academic and vocational failure (Davidson, 1980; Gibbs, 1988; Hoyt, 1988; Reed, 1988; Smith, 1980).

Without the preparation to earn a respectable living, to adequately provide for their family, and to make a positive contribution to corporate America, many African-American males have essentially ceased looking for gainful employment (Gibbs, 1988; Larson, 1988). By removing themselves from the labor force, however, they frequently become mired in the underground economy of illegal trafficking in drugs, stolen goods, gambling, and prostitution (Gibbs, 1988).

These conditions have undoubtedly contributed to the exceedingly high rates of homicide of African-American males. Gibbs (1988) reported that, in 1983, African-American males accounted for 35% of all homicides, although they constituted only 6% of the population. In addition, they have been incarcerated in numbers significantly surpassing their numbers in the American college system (Reed, 1988). According to the United States Bureau of Justice Statistics (1993), in 1991, African-American males represented 46% of state prison inmates while representing only 4% of college students. Furthermore, substantial numbers of them exist in poor, matriarchal, single-parent homes. According to the United States Bureau of the Census (1994), in 1988, 61% of African-American children lived in single-parent homes, whereas, in 1960, only 33% lived in single-parent homes.

The inevitable repercussions for African-American males can be gleaned from their failure to participate in the new

service economy, which is requiring more education at all employment levels, than the previous manufacturing economy (Larson, 1988; Silvestri & Lukasiewicz, 1987), and in their higher disproportionate representation among menial jobs--jobs found at the lowest educational level, and jobs through which they will probably not be able to escape poverty (Smith, 1980).

Arbona (1989) used the 1980 census employment data to examine the White, African-American, and Hispanic employment patterns using Holland's (1973) typology which classified work into the following six modalities: Realistic (R), Investigative (I), Artistic (A), Social (S), Enterprising (E), and Conventional (C). Arbona reported that jobs were disproportionately distributed among these six modalities of work, with social, enterprising, and conventional modalities accounting for 50% of all jobs, while over 40% of all jobs were in the realistic modality, with investigative and artistic modalities accounting for only 5% of all jobs.

Furthermore, Arbona (1989) asserted that the major distinction of this classification of jobs was the differential educational requirements of each modality. For example, the great majority of the realistic jobs were found at the lowest educational level, while investigative and artistic jobs were decidedly found at the college level and above, with a significant number of enterprising and conventional occupations found at the high school level.

Social jobs were found to be equally available at both the high school and the college levels.

With respect to the representation of Whites, African-Americans, and Hispanics among these six modalities of work, Arbona (1989) reported the following: (a) White men constituted 50% of the total employed labor force, and were overrepresented in moderate and high level realistic, enterprising, and investigative jobs, with at least 70% representation of the total number of workers in each of these areas; (b) African-American men represented approximately 5% of the employed labor force and were found to be overrepresented in the low level and moderate realistic jobs, and dramatically underrepresented in all the other categories with the possible exception of the moderate level social jobs; (c) Hispanic men represented 3% of all workers, with underrepresentation of the men in all the categories except the low level and moderate level realistic jobs; (d) 50% of White men compared to 70% of African-American and 70% of Hispanic men were employed in realistic jobs.

As previously stated, the changing demographics and the emergence of the new service economy will require that increasing proportions of the nation's labor force will come from ethnic minorities (Gibbs, 1988). The portrait of African-American male students depicts members of a constituency who will not be able to compete for these jobs. Their lack of educational achievement and vocational

preparation indicates that members of this constituency may have special needs which must be identified and subsequently met.

This issue was addressed by Davidson (1980) who proclaimed that African-American youth were characteristically unique and different from Whites in America based on the circumscribed American ethos and cultural phenomena that separate African-Americans and Whites psychologically, socially, and economically. Concerning African-American youth and their career development, he asserted that:

> Youth need to be assisted by teachers, counselors, other students, and the external community in exploring, planning for, and attempting to achieve personal, educational, and career objectives. Youth need to be able to obtain information about themselves; their interests and abilities; available and alternative educational experiences and settings; and the specific and/or universal education and skill requirements necessary for them to become autonomous, productive, and contributing adults. Teachers and counselors must be the first to empower this ultimate youth competency. (p. 136)

Implicit in Davidson's assertion is the idea that African-American males should be well-represented in the teaching profession, specifically, and in the social occupations, in general (Holland, 1985a). These are the workers who traditionally have been entrusted with the responsibility of formally educating the youth of this nation (AACTE, 1987). The American school system has the potential to ensure that this happens for African-American males (Garibaldi, 1987; Gibbs, 1988; Grant & Gillette, 1987; Haberman, 1988; Hoyt, 1988).

However, as previously stated, African-American males have been entering these social occupations in significantly lower proportions than their White counterparts. Statistics compiled by the United States Department of Labor (1989) have consistently chronicled this trend. The statistical data of males employed in the social occupations during 1989 were examined as a precursor to this study. The data are presented in Table 1 and Table 2.

African-American males comprise 6% of the United States' population (United States Bureau of the Census, 1994). Therefore it may be expected by chance that they should represent 6% of all workers in each of the categories listed in Table 1 (Gottfredson, 1978a; Arbona, 1989).

Table 1. Composition of Males by Race as Percentages of the Total Employed Labor Force in Social Occupations in 1989.

Occupations	Af Am	Whites	Hispanics
Teachers: College and University	2.4	53.9	1.3
Teachers: Except College & University	1.9	24.3	1.1
Counselors: Educational & Vocational	3.7	34.1	2.8
Social Scientists & Urban Planners	3.5	46.5	1.3
Social, Recreation, & Religious Workers	5.2	44.3	1.7

As shown in Table 1, they are underrepresented in each category. Similarly, Hispanic males represent 5% of the

United States' population, and should be expected by chance to represent 5% of all workers in each of the categories listed in Table 1 (Gottfredson, 1978a; Arbona, 1989). However, Table 1 shows that they are also underrepresented in each category. White males comprise 36% of the United States' population. Therefore it may be expected by chance that they should represent 36% of all workers in each of the categories listed in Table 1 (Gottfredson, 1978a; Arbona, 1989). However, Table 1 indicates that they are overrepresented in three categories (United States Bureau of the Census, 1994).

The importance of these statistics lies in the reports by several researchers, including Arbona (1989) and Gottfredson (1978a, 1978b), who stated that African-American males are best represented in social occupations (Bayer, 1972; Bayer & Boruch, 1969; Brazziel, 1961; Doughtie, Chang, Alston, Wakefield, & Yom, 1976; Hager & Elton, 1971; Kimball, Sedlacek, & Brooks, 1973; Smith, 1975). Although they are best represented in social occupations, as Table 1 indicates, they are clearly underrepresented in this area as well.

In 1992, African-Americans represented approximately 11% of the United States' male population, while Whites represented approximately 72%, and Hispanics represented approximately 10% (United States Bureau of the Census, 1994). Therefore, of the male employed labor force, similar percentages of workers in the social occupations may be

expected by chance to be African-American, White, and Hispanic, respectively. The statistical data of males as percentages of the total number of males employed in the social occupations during 1989 are presented in Table 2.

As shown in Table 2, African-American males are underrepresented in each category. Similarly, Hispanic males are also underrepresented in every category.

Table 2. Composition of Males by Race as Percentages of the Total Number of Males Employed in Social Occupations in 1989.

Occupations	Af Am	Whites	Hispanics
Teachers: College and University	4.2	93.6	2.2
Teachers: Except College & University	7.0	88.9	4.1
Counselors: Educational & Vocational	9.2	83.9	6.9
Social Scientists & Urban Planners	6.8	90.6	2.6
Social, Recreation, & Religious Workers	10.1	86.5	3.4

White males, on the other hand, are overrepresented in all categories (United States Bureau of the Census, 1994).

Recently, efforts have been undertaken to effectively recruit and retain African-American teachers (AACTE, 1987; Garibaldi, 1987; Grant & Gillette, 1987; Haberman, 1988). To secure the success of these efforts, however, it seems necessary to have access to pertinent vocational information

and better assessment tools to ensure that these recruits would have the requisite interests and abilities which match the job (Gottfredson, 1978a, 1978b; Holland, 1985a). After conducting an exhaustive survey of the vocational literature pertaining to research on the career development of African-Americans, Smith (1975) raised the following questions:

1. Has this growing body of research actually contributed to a better understanding of the vocational development of African-American individuals?

2. What do we know of their concept of work, their process of making vocational choices, their interest patterns, occupational aspirations and expectations, and their vocational maturity?

3. Is the process of career development for African American youth similar to or different from that of their White counterparts?

4. What are the factors that may potentially have a bearing on similarities and/or differences in the vocational development of African-American and White youth?

5. If there are marked differences in the career progress of these two groups, what are the implications for vocational theory development? (p. 41)

These questions have proven to be more relevant today than when they were raised by Smith in 1975. Moreover, in examining African-American youth and their career development, Davidson (1980) stipulated that, unless more is known about the psycho-socio-historical development of African-Americans, future efforts to alleviate their current social, educational, and economic plight would continue to be futile.

Research has also shown that African-Americans tend to have a negative self-image which fosters identity foreclosure, that is, a rigid closing out of self and direction, yet no empirical information has been presented to elucidate this problem either (Smith, 1975). In addition, research findings have consistently shown disparities between the career aspirations and career expectations of African-Americans males. For instance, they have been shown to have high aspirations for social occupations; however, the labor statistics indicate that they have not been entering these occupations in numbers commensurate with their high aspirations (United States Department of Labor, 1989). Researchers have not adequately explained this phenomenon (Smith, 1975).

According to Holland's (1985a) classification of workers and work environments, workers whose interests and skills typify Holland social personality types, should not only aspire to work in social occupations, but also should expect to work in those occupations. Pursuant to understanding why African-American males with Holland social personality types, who aspire to social occupations, but who are not entering these occupations, an in-depth investigation of their career beliefs may prove instrumental in providing them with effective career counseling (Davidson, 1980; Smith, 1975, 1980).

In this study, answers were sought to the following questions: (a) Are there differences in the Career

Aspirations among male adolescents as a function of race? (b) Are there differences in the Career Expectations among male adolescents as a function of race? (c) Are there differences in the Career Beliefs among male adolescents as a function of race? (d) Are there differences in the Career Aspirations among male adolescents as a function of Holland social personality type? (e) Are there differences in the Career Expectations among male adolescents as a function of Holland social personality type? (f) Are there differences in the Career Beliefs among male adolescents as a function of Holland social personality type?

To understand the career development of African-American males in a socio-cultural context, comparisons were made between: (a) Their career development and the career development of White males, and (b) their career development and the career development of Hispanic males. The males in this study were all ninth-graders. Ninth-graders were chosen because their vocational behaviors have been shown to have some predictive validity for the future (Zunker, 1994).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to compare the Career Aspirations, Expectations, and Beliefs of male adolescents to ascertain whether there were any systematic differences by race, Holland social personality type, or an interaction of these two independent variables while controlling for socioeconomic status.

Importance of the Study

The present study was important for several reasons. First, it was done to fill a void in the vocational field since there was a dearth of pertinent information available on the career development of African-American males. Second, it was one of the first studies to address the relationship between race and Holland social personality types in the investigation of the career development of African-Americans. Third, it was an attempt to provide important normative data which could assist in the fine-tuning of current vocational theoretical constructs as they relate to African-American males. Fourth, it provided the opportunity to determine whether or not African-American male adolescents were receiving and processing career information similarly or dissimilarly to their White counterparts. And finally, it would provide the impetus for stimulating further research by developing meaningful questions such as these: "At what age are career beliefs being formed?"; and, "What are the precipitating factors in the formation of these career beliefs?"

Delimitations

The scope of this study was delimited in a number of ways. First the study was restricted geographically to the Dallas County, Texas area. Therefore, care should be exercised in extrapolating the results of the study to other geographic areas. Second, the study has been delimited to males only. Hence, the results of the present study are not

to be taken as descriptive of females. Third, the participants were all ninth-grade students from the same high school. Therefore, no claim can be made that the results of the present study would be descriptive of students from other high schools, or of students in other grade levels. Finally, the study has been delimited to the examination of Holland social personality types based on Holland's (1985b) typology. Thus, the results of the present study are not descriptive of Holland's five other personality types.

Definition of Terms

This study utilized several terms which may be susceptible to varied interpretations. These terms are operationally defined below in order to ensure clarity.

Holland Code: This is a three letter code determined by the three highest raw scores of the first six scales obtained from the Vocational Preference Inventory (Holland 1985b), ranked from highest to lowest.

High Social Personality Type (HSPT): This term describes a participant who had S in either the first, second, or third position in his Holland code (Holland, 1985b).

Low Social Personality Type (LSPT): This term describes a participant whose three-letter Holland code did not contain an S (Holland, 1985b).

Career Aspiration: This term refers to the occupations which participants idealized for themselves; adapted from Crites (1973).

Career Expectation: This term refers to the occupations which participants realistically saw themselves entering; adapted from Crites (1973).

Key influencers: This descriptor refers to the persons whom the participants identified as having exercised the greatest influence on their Career Aspirations and Expectations (Pallone, Richard, & Hurley, 1970).

Socioeconomic Status: This designation refers to the classification of participants based on the income level of the head of household. The income level was estimated by years of schooling achieved and current occupation held (Hollingshead, 1957).

Assumptions

In this study four assumptions were made. First, it was assumed that the Vocational Preference Inventory was a valid and reliable instrument for obtaining a Holland code for each personality type. Second, it was assumed that the Career Beliefs Inventory was a valid and reliable measure of the concept of career beliefs. Third, it was assumed that the Career Aspiration and Expectation Questionnaire would reliably and validly solicit the targeted information. Finally, it was assumed that the modifications to the Hollingshead Two Factor Index of Social Position

(Hollingshead, 1957) would provide a valid measure of the participants' socioeconomic statuses.

Chapter 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE AND RESEARCH

In his book, Choosing a Vocation, Parsons defined vocational counseling as a process of helping individuals study their interests, abilities, and occupational opportunities (as cited in Sharf, 1992). Eight decades later, a few comprehensive theories of career development have been promulgated, (Holland, 1959; Roe, 1953; Super, 1957), and researchers have attempted to explicate these theories by investigating differences with respect to race, ethnicity, age, and gender (Bayer, 1972; Bayer & Boruch, 1969; Brazziel, 1961; Doughtie, Chang, Alston, Wakefield, & Yom, 1976; Hager & Elton, 1971; Kimball, Sedlacek, & Brooks, 1973; Slaney & Brown, 1983; Smith, 1975). Of these independent variables, race and gender appeared to be the most popular. Accordingly, studies abound which have compared the career development of African-Americans, Whites, and Hispanics. However, the primary foci of these studies have been the career development of Whites with only secondary emphasis on the career development of African-Americans and Hispanics.

In addition, numerous studies have been conducted with respect to age. Of particular relevance to this study are those studies which pertained to the career development of adolescents. While many of these studies investigated a wide array of dependent variables, most notable, though, were those variables pertaining to career aspirations and expectations, and academic achievement.

The review of the literature was therefore organized around the constructs of race, gender, age, and career aspirations and expectations, and is presented under the following headings: (a) race and career development theories, (b) career aspirations and expectations (c) educational and career planning development, and (d) social psychological factors.

Race and Career Development Theories

June and Pringle (1977) examined the concept of race in the career-development theories of Roe (1956), Super (1957), and Holland (1973), and arrived at the following conclusion: All three theorists were aware of race as a factor in career development. Surprisingly, however, Holland made the fewest references to race as a significant factor. This was surprising because June and Pringle concluded that, of the three theories: (a) Hollands had the greatest potential for African-Americans, (b) Roe appeared to harbor strong beliefs about the effects of race on career development, while Super and Holland described African-Americans as a group in a

theorists essentially ignored race as a crucial factor in developing, researching and writing about their theories. June and Pringle concluded with these remarks:

> We join Williams and Smith in echoing the need for a perspective in vocational theorizing that considers the factors that have an impact on the vocational development of Blacks. It is unrealistic to assume that Whites will do this adequately. (p. 23)

In support of June and Pringle's conclusion, Williams (1972) stated that contemporary vocational theories and career education practices were inapplicable to African-Americans because they failed to consider the unique experience of African-Americans in America. Davidson (1980) also stated that institutional racism has posed an insurmountable barrier for African-American youth, which has limited the access to educational and occupational opportunities. In addition, Davidson asserted that:

> We cannot isolate the education or employment issues from the many other problems Black people face in this society. Programmatic efforts should address the development of personal management, social skills, economic development, group consciousness, and community responsibility. (p. 121)

In conclusion, these critics consistently point out the apparent cultural biases of the existing theories and the inability, therefore, of these theorists to adequately address the career needs of African-Americans.

Career Aspirations and Expectations

Several researchers who investigated the relationship between race and vocational interests (Arbona, 1989; Gottfredson, 1978a, 1978b; Hager & Elton, 1971; Hall & Post-

Kammer, 1987) reported that in comparison to White men, African-American men demonstrated greater interest in social service than the physical sciences. Analogously, Sewell and Martin (1976) reported that among their 11th and 12th grade inner city participants, African-American males preferred health, social service, and artistic fields, while White males preferred scientific-technical, health, and social service fields.

Lee (1985) investigated the differences in occupational aspirations, expectations, and discrepancies among rural African-American, White, and Native American male and female adolescents, and reported that gender and geographical differences existed in the occupational choices among these groups. Lee reported that females, independent of ethnicity, aspired to higher level occupations; while the majority of males, regardless of ethnicity, aspired to intermediate occupations such as farming, mechanic, or skilled craftsman. Lee also stated that his finding substantiated earlier findings that occupational choice was dependent on place of residence (Cosby & Picou, 1971; Sewell & Orienstein, 1965).

In addition, Lee reported that African-American and Native American youth had high occupational aspirations similar to White youth; however, they expected to enter these occupations less frequently than White youth (Haberman, 1966; Stephenson, 1957). Lee explained these differences in terms of the traditionally discriminatory

environment often confronting rural minorities (Durant & Knowlton, 1978).

Dunteman, Wisebaker, and Taylor (1979) reported that, in contrast to White men, African-American men were more oriented toward people than toward things. Moreover, Shade (1984) provided evidence substantiating the notion that African-Americans were relatively person-oriented in comparison to Whites. Thomas (1984) reported that 5% of the African-American college men, in their study, mentioned that the ability to help people was an important aspect of their ideal career. The aspiration for helping people was related to choice of an education, social work, nursing, or social science major (Hall & Post-Kammer, 1987). Sewell and Martin (1976) asserted that the lack of African-American role models in other occupations, such as enterprising and investigative, made knowledge of those fields inaccessible, thereby promoting the belief that other occupations were unattainable.

Dawkins (1980) investigated the educational and occupational goals of African-American male and female high school seniors, and reported that a significant relationship existed between occupational expectations and sex. African-American females, in this study, aspired to social occupations such as teaching, at a higher rate than African-American males, 8.5% females to 3.8% males, respectively. African-American males, however, held higher expectations for realistic occupations such as craftsmanship (16.9%

males, 0.6% females), and technical jobs (11.5% males, 5.3% females). Dawkins also examined attitudes toward future careers, commenting that previous attempts to interpret sex differences failed to incorporate job values. Significant differences were also found in this area. For instance, in contrast to females, males placed a premium on earning a lot of money, being free from supervision, being looked up to, and having a greater chance to be a leader. Females, on the other hand, emphasized having the opportunity to help others, having more opportunity for steady progress, and working with people as opposed to working with things.

In addition, Hager and Elton (1971) examined the vocational interests of college freshmen (40 African-American males and 150 White males) using the Strong Vocational Interest Blank. In contrast to the White freshmen males, significant differences were found for the African-American freshmen males on a bipolar factor of interest in social service (working with people) versus interest in the physical sciences. African-Americans, for example, were found to conform to Baird's (1967), and Bereiter and Freedman's (1962) finding that African-American students from low socioeconomic families were more likely to choose social service occupations than the general student population. White students, on the other hand, were reported to conform more to Hager's (1968) finding that White college students showed more interest in scientific occupations.

Dillard and Perrin (1980) examined the career aspirations, expectations, and maturity of 32 Puerto Rican, 105 African-American, and 57 Anglo male and female students in the 9th through 12th grades. These adolescents came from both intact and non-intact homes of both lower and middle socioeconomic status families. The sample was randomized and Hollingshead's (1957) Two Factor Index of Social Position was used to ascertain the participants' socioeconomic status. Crites' (1973) Attitude Scale of Career Maturity Inventory (Att-CMI) was administered by ethnic minority counselors to measure the career maturity of the participants. The educational and occupational levels of the head of household were the indices used to measure socioeconomic status. Career aspirations and expectations were measured by participants filling out a short form answering the following questions: "If you had a choice, what occupation would you want to have after completing your schooling?" and "Name the occupation that you really expect to get after completing your schooling." The responses to these questions were rated on a seven-point scale according to the Occupational Scale of the Two Factor Index of Social Position (Hollingshead, 1957).

Dillard and Perrin examined the relationships among the variables of sex, ethnic group membership, socioeconomic status, grade, career aspirations, career expectations, and career maturity. First, they reported that male career aspirations correlated with ethnicity. For example,

African-American and Puerto Rican males aspired to higher level careers than White males. Second, they stated that a relationship was found between career expectations and socioeconomic status. Socioeconomic status was found to increase concomitantly with career expectations meaning that higher socioeconomic status was associated with higher expectations and vice versa.

Third, socioeconomic status was found to be the best predictor of career expectations after ethnicity and sex were controlled for, implying that lower socioeconomic groups may be more realistic in their career expectations than middle socioeconomic groups. Finally, career maturity was related to ethnicity, socioeconomic status, and grade level. This relationship was stated as being associated more with socioeconomic background than with ethnicity. Other researchers have also arrived at the conclusion that, career development differences between African-American and White males, were more a function of socioeconomic status than race (Ansell & Hansen, 1971; Cosby & Picou, 1973; Dillard & Jo-Campbell, 1981; Gottfredson, 1982; Slaney & Brown, 1983).

Furthermore, Pallone, Richard, and Hurley (1970) reported that when researchers gave due consideration to race and socioeconomic status, these two variables were found to produce an interaction effect. For instance, they reported that in contrast to white males, the amount of occupational information possessed by African-American males

was predicated by their socioeconomic status. African-American students of higher socioeconomic status had more occupational information than African-Americans of low socioeconomic status. The net result was that the higher socioeconomic status participants were predisposed to make more informed career decisions than their low socioeconomic status counterparts.

Thus, high socioeconomic status participants, regardless of race, had similar career developments, and low socioeconomic participants, regardless of race, had similar career developments. Nonetheless, the career maturity of White participants was reported to exceed that of the African-American participants. Additionally, as grade-level increased, career maturity increased.

Chansky (1965) examined race, aptitude, and vocational interests of ninth graders, and reported that when aptitude was controlled, African-American and White youth differed in their vocational interests. African-American youths displayed more interest in social occupations while White youths exhibited interest in realistic occupations.

In summary, the evidence that African-American men aspired to careers in the social services was well-documented. However, evidence pertaining to the career aspirations and expectations across races appeared to be inconclusive. One consistent finding, however, was the importance of controlling for socioeconomic status in comparative studies across races. When socioeconomic status

was controlled for, statistical significance typically found on the independent variable of race was often nullified.

Educational and Career Planning Development

Kammer, Fouad, and Williams (1988) asserted that minority students were considered this country's largest source of untapped talent. Moreover, they insisted that while the number of minority college students appeared to be increasing, the high attrition rate among this population has negatively affected the educational development and retention of minority and disadvantaged students. Furthermore, they asserted that the abundant talent of minority students often goes unnoticed during their pre-college years, thereby limiting the numbers of those entering college. In addition, they added that African-American women were overrepresented in the fields of education, social science, and social welfare, due to these fields being traditionally female-oriented and less discriminatory.

Hall and Post-Kammer (1987) emphasized that, while problems with career guidance were not race specific, African-American students received inadequate educational and career guidance. Bachman, Johnston, and O'Malley (1984) supported this contention and reported that, while African-American high school seniors received slightly more individual and group counseling than White students, 74% of the African-American students versus 59% of the White students expressed an interest in additional counseling

concerning occupational choices. Similarly, 67% of the African-Americans compared to 54% of the Whites requested additional assistance with their educational or training plans, and 56% of the African-Americans versus 43% of the Whites requested further assistance in choosing major courses. The underlying reason for African-American students' expressed problems in counseling was attributed to inadequate career counseling (Hall & Post-Kammer, 1987).

In concert with these researchers, McDavis and Parker (1981) asserted that previous career development efforts have proven ineffective for ethnic minorities primarily because counselors have failed to incorporate the cultural differences of these students. To correct this failure, McDavis and Parker suggested five strategies to help ethnic minorities with their career development: self-concept enhancement, information-giving, assessment, decision-making, and culturally relevant career guidance materials. They concluded by imploring career development educators to accept the challenge of effectively enhancing the career choices of today's ethnic minority youth thereby encouraging these youth to become productive members of America's work force.

Commenting on the past inefficacy of public school vocational counseling services, Hoyt (1988) asserted that, as the primary means available for reducing bias and producing movement out of poverty, the American education system has failed disastrously and should be changed

immediately. He urged his colleagues in career development to accept the responsibility to ensure equal opportunities in career development for the poor, minority persons, persons with disabilities, and women from youth through adulthood. Dillard and Perrin (1980) further admonished counselors to provide all students, but especially minority students, with career information pursuant to helping them clarify their values and career goals in light of emerging career information.

In summary, it has been repeatedly stated that, despite the abundance of research studies conducted in the area of career development, and despite the advances in the field of career counseling, ethnic minorities, and African-Americans especially, did not appear to be among the beneficiaries in any prominent way. Consequently, there seems to be a notable discrepancy in the delivery of career counseling resources with differential benefits across races.

Social-Psychological Factors

Educational Aspirations and Expectations

Holloway and Berreman (1959) investigated the educational and occupational aspirations and expectations of African-American and White male elementary school students, and reported marked differences between educational and occupational items. First, they reported that, unlike educational aspirations, occupational aspirations varied with socioeconomic class for White students. The White

middle-class students exhibited higher occupational aspirations than the White lower-class students. The results for African-American students were deemed unreliable due to the small number of African-American middle-class students. Nevertheless, similar educational aspirations were found for all socioeconomic classes regardless of race. However, when socioeconomic class was controlled, the occupational and educational aspirations did not vary by race.

Kelly and Wingrove (1975) examined the educational and occupational choices of African-American and White male and female students in a rural Georgia community and reported that African-American males were consistently below Whites and African-American females in their educational expectations.

Sex Role Socialization

Thomas (1984) reported that sex differences were more significant indicators than race differences in predicting students' choices of college majors with men more likely to major in scientific majors. Dawkins (1980) reported that sex values were also found in job values, with African-American men valuing money, freedom from supervision, and leadership roles to a degree far exceeding African-American women. African-American women, on the other hand, valued the social occupations more highly than African-American men. Dawkins concluded that African-American men

incorporated more sex role stereotypes in their view of work than African-American women.

Krippner (1963) investigated the vocational preferences of junior high school students and their parents' occupational levels. Krippner explained that his study may prove beneficial to educational psychologists studying vocational development, and to child psychologists concerned with sexual identification processes. He reported that the occupational preferences of sons were influenced more by their fathers' occupational level, while the occupational preferences of daughters were influenced more by their mothers' occupational levels. Fathers and sons were reported to favor the careers of engineer, doctor, and lawyer. Mothers frequently chose medicine, law, engineering, business and education for their sons. Teaching was essentially rejected by the boys in this sample. Krippner speculated that the lack of role models for boys in this field might be responsible for their rejection of teaching as a career.

Key Influencers

Pallone, Richard, and Hurley (1970) examined the key influencers of occupational preference among African-American youth. They defined key influencers as those persons who influence another's career development by vocational identification with that person, serving as occupational role models, or providing occupational information (Super, 1957). They found that very few studies

examined the key influencers of African-American youths, with the noticeable exception being the study by Uzzell (1961).

In 1961, Uzzell investigated the influencers of occupational choices of 300 urban senior African-American male high school students in Eastern North Carolina. Uzzell reported a significant relationship between students' occupational aspirations and their knowledge of occupational models. Of the 211 respondents who knew models, 77% stated that their occupational aspirations were distinctly influenced by those models while only 23% indicated that they were not influenced by them.

Dillard and Jo-Campbell (1981) examined the influences of Puerto Rican, African-American, and White parents' career behaviors on their adolescent children's career development. Their sample was comprised of 194 ninth through twelfth-grade students and their respective parents. These adolescents came from intact and non-intact families from both middle and lower socioeconomic levels. They reported that the career behavior of the three ethnic groups' parents differentially affected their children's career development. For instance, African-American mothers had a significantly greater effect on their children's career development than did African-American fathers by comparison.

Of essence was the overall finding that the career values and aspirations which White parents held for their children were lower than those held by both African-American

and Puerto Rican parents. Dillard and Jo-Campbell hypothesized that White adolescents may have greater contact with nonparental factors related to their career development than parental factors such as their parents' career behaviors.

Sewell and Martin (1976) reported that African-Americans aspired to occupations in which role models were conspicuous. As a result, they explained that African-American men preferred careers in the education, health, and social service fields because successful African-American role models were found in those fields.

June and Fooks (1980) commented on the fact that research on the career development of African-Americans began only recently, while there is a long history of career development among Whites. They investigated the key influencers on the career directions and choices of African-American university professionals. Their results substantiated earlier findings that a person's career development was greatly influenced by role models, significant others, and key influencers.

Ginzberg, Ginsburg, Axelrad, and Herma (1951) asserted that the influence on an individual's career choice by key persons exerting various degrees of pressure was monumental. For their study, 161 African-American and 218 White high school eleventh- and twelfth-grade students of both sexes from working class homes were assessed. They reported the significant finding that African-American males ranked in

descending order of importance the following key influencers: (a) persons holding the preferred occupation, (b) their fathers or mothers, (c) teachers, (d) peers or siblings, (e) relatives not of the immediate family, (f) counselors, and (g) neighbors. In contrast, White males ranked in descending order of importance the following key influencers: (a) persons holding the preferred occupation, (b) their fathers, (c) teachers, (d) peers or siblings, (e) their mothers, (f) counselors, (g) neighbors, and (h) relatives not of the immediate family.

Super (1957) also believed that the family was instrumental in influencing the career aspirations of adolescents, explaining that, in their capacities as role models, parents provided identification opportunities for their adolescents. Moreover, Super (1957) postulated that, in their preparation to enter the world of work, the adequacy of role models appropriate to their vocational preferences was of serious import for adolescents.

June and Fooks (1980) administered the VPI to African-American faculty and staff members at a large, predominantly White university along with an extensive questionnaire to ascertain the key influencers on their occupational choices. They reported that the key influencers for males were role models who held that particular job, teachers, and mothers.

Moreover, key influencers were found to vary with race and sex. Of the 20 non-family members who were key influencers, 18 were African-Americans; and among all the

key influencers including family members whose race was listed, 38 were African-Americans.

Other interesting results pertained to the sex of key influencers. Of the 10 male key influencers who influenced male respondents, 7 were African-American men; all 6 females who influenced males were African-American; of the 8 females who influenced females, 7 were African-Americans, while of the 3 males who influenced females, only 1 was African-American. Furthermore, males were influenced more by males and females were influenced more by females.

Another interesting result revealed by June and Fooks (1980) pertained to the race of the counselor and the level of influence wielded over respondents. Commenting on the occupational influence of White teachers and counselors on African-Americans, Henderson (1967) averred that White teachers and counselors usually functioned less effectively as role models among lower-class African-American students than among White students due to differences of race, or social class, or both. Moreover, Henderson maintained that many White teachers held the view that African-American children could not identify with them because of ethnic differences, and, as a result, they expended minimal effort on behalf of these students.

With respect to the influence of the family on the occupational expectations of African-American youth, social psychologists like Moynihan (1965) argued that, African-American families typically lacked effective role models for

youth because most were in lower social classes. And while Coser (1969) perceived fathers to be the critical link to the world of work, Lewis (1960) noted that mothers were more influential than fathers across all areas of child development in African-American families. Kelly and Wingrove (1975) also reported that African-American mothers were found to wield significantly more influence over their children's educational and occupational aspirations than African-American fathers. Of importance, though, was the revelation that African-American mothers had higher aspirations for their daughters than for their sons.

Additionally, the impact of teachers cannot go unnoticed since teachers were found to exercise greater influence over students than counselors. Of distinction, though, was the significant influence of African-American role models on African-American youth which prompted the following commentary from June and Hooks (1980):

> The results on the race of key influencers support the need to increase the number of Black professionals in a variety of occupations who can influence the career development of youth. As these data point out, these Black professionals were overwhelmingly influenced by Blacks. Therefore, one key to getting more Blacks in nontraditional careers is to train more Blacks in those areas. Until there are substantial numbers in such professions, however, available role models must be used. (p. 164)

This evidence further substantiated Davidson's (1980) plea for ethnic minority adults to assume more central roles in the formal and informal education of African-American children.

Davidson's assertion underscored the premise of this investigation that disproportionate small numbers of African-American males are working as teachers, career counselors, therapists, professors, and recreation-leaders. In other words, the paucity of African-American male role models in these social occupations seriously compromises the attractiveness of these occupations to African-American youth.

Chapter 3

SAMPLE, INSTRUMENTATION, AND PROCEDURES

Sample

The sample of this study consisted of 22 African-American males, 38 White males, and 28 Hispanic male ninth-grade students--a total of 88 students--in freshman English classes who were all enrolled in the same suburban Dallas County, Texas high school. Freshman English classes were selected as the source of access to students for two reasons: (a) all ninth-graders are required to enroll in English classes; and (b) all ninth-graders are scheduled to take English classes on the same day. This facilitated the completion of the data collection in one day.

A pool of 235 male students were initially surveyed from which 88 students were deemed eligible to participate in this study. These 88 students met the following criteria: (a) Their four instruments were entirely completed; (b) they matched the racial categories; (c) they provided the specified data for determination of their SES; and (d) they provided identifiable data which were necessary to determine their Career Aspirations and Expectations. These 88 students therefore comprised the sample for this

study. The ages of these participants ranged from 14 to 16 years.

Letters explaining the nature of the study were prepared for the parents and were given to the Dean of Instruction at the high school. She approved the research, and followed the school's protocol for conducting research. This obviated the need to forward the letters to the participants' parents. A copy of this letter is provided in Appendix A. The instruments were administered during April 1991.

Instrumentation

Participants were administered four instruments: (a) a Demographics Form, (b) a Career Aspiration and Expectation Questionnaire, (c) the Vocational Preference Inventory (VPI) (Holland, 1985-Revised), and (d) the Career Beliefs Inventory (CBI) (Krumboltz, 1988).

Demographics Form

Participants were asked to provide the following information on the Demographics Form which was developed specifically for this study: name, age, grade in school, parents' occupation, parents' highest educational level attained, number of siblings, family intactness, key influencers, and sex. A copy of this questionnaire is provided in Appendix B.

In addition, a modified version of the Hollingshead's (1957) Two-Factor Index of Social Position was used to

determine each participant's current socioeconomic status based on the indices of level of education and current occupation of their parents. The two-factor index is composed of an occupational and an educational scale which was developed by Hollingshead (1957).

The educational scale was modified, however, to reflect the inclusion of two-year colleges and technical schools. The educational scale is divided into 5 positions instead of the 7 positions used by Hollingshead. These positions were measured on a scale from 1 to 5, with position 1 representing the highest level, and position 5 representing the lowest level of education attained. The five positions are presented in Table 3.

Table 3. Educational Scale.

Position	Highest Level of Education Achieved
1	College and University: 4 years and above
2	Community College
3	Technical School
4	High School
5	Elementary School or less

The occupation scale developed by Hollingshead was retained. This scale has 7 positions, with position 1 representing the highest level and position 7 representing the lowest occupational level attained. However, because the job classification system used by Hollingshead was dated, it was

superseded by an updated version (Department of Labor 1989). The seven positions are presented in Table 4.

Table 4. Occupational Scale.

Positions	Level of Occupation Achieved
1	Managerial and Professional Specialty
2	Technical, Sales and Administrative Support
3	Service Occupations
4	Precision Production, Craft and Repair
5	Operators, fabricators, Laborers
6	Farming, Forestry, Fishing, Mining
7	Homemaker

The weighting factors assigned to occupational and educational levels developed by Hollingshead were retained. In the two-factor index, educational level achieved is given a weight of 4, and occupational level is assigned a weight of 7 (Hollingshead, 1957).

The correlation between the SES with education and occupation reported by Hollingshead and Redlich (1953) was r = .906 for the original Two Factor Index of Social Position. Since the integrity of this original design was maintained, with only minor modifications to reflect currency in educational policies and job classifications, there was no reason to believe that the reliability for the present study was compromised.

If one were to compute a score for the manager of a grocery store who had graduated from a community college, the procedure would be as follows:

Factor	Scale Score	X	Factor Weight	=	Partial Score
Occupation	3		7	=	21
Education	2		4	=	08
Index of Social Position Score				=	29

For this study, the Index of Social Position was replaced by Socioeconomic Status (SES). The range of scores in each of the five SES classes are:

Class	Range of Scores	Rank
I	11-22	High SES
II	23-33	Moderately High SES
III	34-45	Average SES
IV	46-57	Moderately Low SES
V	58-69	Low SES

While the five SES classes used by Hollingshead were retained, the score ranges were modified to reflect the modifications of the educational scale. SES was calculated for one parent per household. Since statistics compiled by the United States Department of Labor (1989) showed that male workers are paid more than female workers for identical occupations, SES was calculated for fathers if both parents were present in the household. Additionally, in the situations where both parents worked outside the home, SES was calculated for the fathers, unless the mother's educational and occupational levels were superior to the father's and they were employed in different fields. In that situation, SES was calculated for the mother. A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to determine

whether there were any significant differences in the SES among the three groups since SES was being used as a covariate. The results are presented in Table 5.

Table 5. Analysis of SES by Race.

Af Am			Whites			Hispanics			Total			ANOVA		
n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	Source	F	p
22	39.136	13.726	28	30.579	15.862	22	40.857	14.406	88	35.989	15.486	Race	4.490	.014*

* $p < .05$ (two-tailed test of significance)

As can be seen from the analysis of variance summarized in Table 5, the SES among the three racial groups were statistically significant, $F(2, 81) = 4.490$, $p < .05$. The SES of Whites (Adj. $M = 30.579$) was significantly higher than that of Hispanics (Adj. $M = 40.857$). Using the Scheffe test of pairwise comparisons, the difference in the SES between Whites and Hispanics was the only pairwise comparison which was significant. As Table 5 shows, Whites had the highest SES levels. African-Americans (Adj. $M = 39.136$) had the second highest SES levels, and the Hispanic participants had the lowest SES levels.

Career Aspiration and Expectation Questionnaire

The career aspirations and expectations of the participants were obtained by the administration of a Career Aspiration and Expectation Questionnaire which was developed for this study and which consisted of five questions. The first question was constructed to ascertain each participant's Career Aspiration. The second question was

constructed to ascertain each participant's Career Expectation. These questions were adapted from Crites' (1973) Attitude Scale of Career Maturity Inventory (Att-CMI). The remaining three questions were constructed to obtain the educational levels to which participants aspired. A copy of this questionnaire is provided in Appendix C.

With respect to the scoring of the Career Aspiration and Expectation Questionnaire, only the first two questions are pertinent. These two questions dealt with the participants' Career Aspirations and Career Expectations, respectively. The first six scales of the VPI were used to classify each Aspiration and Expectation as either a Low Social Personality Type or High Social Personality Type.

Using the Dictionary of Holland Occupational Codes (Gottfredson & Holland, 1989), each participant's Career Aspiration was assigned a three-letter Holland code. Participants whose codes contained an S in either the first, second, or third position were classified as High Social Personality Types. Participants whose codes did not contain an S in either the first, second, or third position were classified as Low Social Personality Types.

Each participant's Career Expectation was also assigned a three-letter Holland code. Participants whose codes contained an S in either the first, second, or third position were classified as High Social Personality Types. Participants whose codes did not contain an S in either the first, second, or third position were classified as Low

Social Personality Types. Finally, for the purpose of statistical analysis, Aspirations classified as Low Social Personality Types were assigned a numerical value of one, while those classified as High Social Personality Types were assigned a numerical value of two. Similarly, Career Expectations classified as Low Social Personality Types were assigned a numerical value of one, while those classified as High Social Personality Types were assigned a numerical value of two.

Vocational Preference Inventory

Holland (1985b) stated that the VPI is a personality-interest inventory composed entirely of occupations. The inventory is completed by indicating the occupations liked or disliked. He postulated that the complex clusters of personal characteristics which the inventory assessed yielded a broad range of information about interests, interpersonal relationships, values, self-conceptions, coping behaviors, and identifications.

The VPI was originally developed to assess personality; however, ample evidence supported its usefulness as a measure of vocational interests. Holland maintained that the development and validation of the VPI made it clear that vocational preferences were indeed signs of personality traits, and that research had substantiated the positive relationship between a person's values, academic achievement, liberalism, adventurousness, and other personal characteristics (Baird, 1970; Campbell, 1971).

Holland (1985a) proposed four working assumptions which comprised the heart of the theory undergirding the VPI. The first assumption characterized people by their resemblance to six personality types: Realistic (R), Investigative (I), Artistic (A), Social (S), Enterprising (E), and Conventional (C). Holland stated that resemblance to one of these personality types produced personal traits and behaviors characteristic of these types. Moreover, he posited that the interactions between environmental, cultural, and personal forces produced each type. As a result of the interaction of these forces, an individual developed interests which in turn created personal dispositions. These personal dispositions enabled the individual to act and interact with the world in prescribed ways. The six personality types were therefore models with which a person could be identified. A person's type can be ascertained by comparing that individual's attributes with each model type until the best match is obtained. This procedure was subsequently used to establish the person's primary personality type.

The second assumption stated that corresponding to the six personality types were six model environments: Realistic (R), Investigative (I), Artistic (A), Social (S), Enterprising (E), and Conventional (C), in which each environment is dominated by a given personality type. For example, the social environment is dominated by individuals with Holland social personality types. Furthermore,

different personality types tend to seek out environments and surround themselves with personality types that are congruent with their interests, competencies, and ideologies.

The third assumption stipulated that people search for environments that will let them exercise their skills and abilities, express their attitudes and values, and take on agreeable problems and roles. For example, Holland social personality types seek social environments, and would obtain the highest degree of job satisfaction if they were employed in social occupations. The search can occur either consciously or unconsciously, by trial and error, or methodically.

The fourth assumption maintained that an individual's behaviors were determined by the interaction between his or her personality and environmental characteristics. Holland (1973) postulated that the pairing of personality types with environments enabled predictions to be made from knowledge of personality types and environmental models. Accordingly, outcomes could be predicted for vocational choice, vocational ability, vocational stability and achievement, educational choice and achievement, personal competence, social behavior, and susceptibility to influence.

In summary, Holland's (1973, 1985a) typology provides a holistic approach to understanding workers and the world of work. In providing an integrative model which types both people and environment, this typological approach is

utilized in the career counseling process pursuant to helping clients optimize the degree of congruency between their personality types and the environments in which they aspire to work, all other things being equal.

The VPI was developed by Holland in 1953, and has undergone eight revisions between 1953 and 1985. According to Holland (1985b), it has four main uses: (a) it is a brief personality inventory for high school and college students as well as employed adults, (b) it is a helpful addition to a battery of personality inventories, (c) it is an interest inventory, and (d) it is an assessment technique for the investigation of career theory and behavior. Holland (1985b) stipulated that persons should be over 14 years of age when tested and should be of normal intelligence. Moreover, Holland stipulated the VPI should be used and interpreted only in combination with other psychosocial information such as age, sex, educational level, field of training, and current occupational status.

Holland (1985b) provided three levels of inferences for interpreting each of the six personality types of the VPI; namely, empirical, clinical, and conceptual. Since this study focused on the Holland social personality type, interpretation was restricted to this personality type. The following empirical summary applied to Holland social personality types who are male, high scorers: They are sociable, persuasive, sensitive, extroverted, warm, insightful, dependent, value social and religious

achievement, understanding of others, and desire to help others. The clinical interpretation was as follows: High scorers have social interests and prefer teaching or therapeutic roles. They are responsible, accepting of feminine impulses and roles, and facile and insightful in interpersonal relationships. High scorers also have good role-playing ability, the ability to relate well to others, and the ability to form "close" as opposed to "superficial" relationships.

From the conceptual perspective, Holland stated that the social scale appeared to measure a cluster of variables which were largely contained in the analytic label, "oral receptive," that is, sociability, femininity, passivity, problem solving by means of feeling rather than thinking, and dependency. A related but less central concept implied by the empirical and clinical definitions was that the superego is expressed in maturity, social responsibility, and the introjection of moral standards and religious values. Holland social personality types are therefore inclined to exhibit the following repertoire of behaviors: (a) They prefer social occupations and situations in which they can engage in their preferred activities and competencies and avoid the activities demanded by realistic occupations and situations, (b) they use social competencies to solve problems at work and in other settings, (c) they perceive themselves as liking to help others, understanding of others, having teaching ability, and lacking mechanical

and scientific ability, and (d) they value social and ethical activities and problems.

The instrument takes 15-20 minutes to complete, uses a standard answer sheet, and is self-administering. The VPI has moderate to high reliability with test-retest reliability ranging from .54 to .80 with a median of .71. Validity of the interests scales has been shown to equal or exceed the concurrent or predictive validities of other interest scales (Dolliver, 1969; Gottfredson & Holland, 1975; Wiggins & Weslander, 1977). The internal consistencies of the six interests scales range from .81 to .91 and averaged .88. Though normed on a basically White population, the VPI has been reported to be a valid instrument for ethnic minorities (Wakefield, Yom, Doughtie, Chang, & Alston, 1975; Yom, Doughtie, Chang, Alston, & Wakefield, 1975). The VPI has enjoyed widespread use as a personality and vocational instrument, and is acclaimed for its ease in administration, and clinical information (Slaney & Brown, 1983; Spokane, 1985).

The VPI yields a numerical score for each of the 6 scales. Scores can be reported as raw scores or as T-scores. T-scores above 60 are considered to be high scores. The highest three numerical scores from the six interests scales were used to identify participants as either High Social Personality Types or Low Social Personality Types. Research studies employing the VPI have used the three-letter personality codes as valid personality measures

(Doughtie, Chang, Alston, Wakefield, & Yom, 1976; Gottfredson, 1982; Holland, Sorenson, Clark, Nafziger, & Blum, 1973; Nafziger, Holland, Helms, and McPartland, 1974; Spokane, 1985; Walsh & Huston 1988; Yom, Doughtie, Chang, Alston, & Wakefield, 1975).

The VPI was used to identify participants as either High Social Personality Types or Low Social Personality Types. Based on the three highest numerical scores of the first six interests scales of the VPI, each participant was assigned a three-letter Holland code. Participants whose codes contained an S in either the first, second, or third position were classified as High Social Personality Types. Participants whose codes did not contain an S in either the first, second, or third position were classified as Low Social Personality Types.

Career Beliefs Inventory

The CBI was developed by Krumboltz (1988). It was normed on junior high school students in the state of Indiana and with high school students in the state of California in 1989. Cronbach Alpha coefficients were used to establish test-retest reliabilities for the CBI, with the retest occurring after one month. Adequate test-retest reliabilities were reported with coefficients ranging from .25 to .87 with the majority of them ranging from .54 to .73 (Krumboltz, 1990).

The primary purpose of the CBI is to help individuals examine their current beliefs to detect whether those

beliefs are helping them achieve their career goals or hindering them from achieving their career goals.

The CBI requires approximately 20 to 30 minutes to be administered. It contains twenty-five (25) scales with ninety six (96) items and uses a standard answer sheet. Krumboltz organized the 25 scales under five headings. These five headings are organized in a logical manner for clients to follow; however, Krumboltz clearly stated that it is not necessary to adhere to this sequence because each scale was designed to be interpreted independent of the others. The five headings and the 25 scales are listed in Table 6.

The CBI was developed to assess the following clusters of career beliefs: (a) status, (b) flexibility, (c) motivation, and (d) preferences. Each of the 96 items has a five point scale ranging from 1=(strongly disagree) to 5=(strongly agree), and is scored in a positive or negative direction.

The administration of the CBI was straightforward and consistent with the procedures delineated by Krumboltz (1988). However, since modifications to the original CBI were made by its author, modified scoring procedures were used as directed by him (Krumboltz, 1990).

Procedures

Prior to the administration of the questionnaires, each freshman English class was assigned an identification code number to distinguish it from other classes. A packet

Table 6. The Career Beliefs Inventory Scales.

Headings
I. My Current Career Situation:
1. Employment Status
2. Career Plans
3. Accepting Uncertainty
4. Openness.
II. What Seems Necessary for My Happiness:
5. Achievement
6. College Education
7. Intrinsic Satisfaction
8. Peer Equality
9. Structured Work Environment
III. Factors that Influence My Decisions:
10. Control
11. Responsibility
12. Approval of Others
13. Self-Other Comparisons
14. Occupation/College Variation
15. Career Path Flexibility
IV. Changes I Am Willing To Make:
16. Post-Training Transition
17. Job Experimentation
18. Relocation
V. Effort I am Willing To Initiate:
19. Improving Self
20. Persisting While Uncertain
21. Taking Risks
22. Learning Job Skills
23. Negotiating/Searching
24. Overcoming Obstacles
25. Working Hard

containing the four instruments was prepared for each student. An identification code was also assigned to each student. The research assistant, who was employed as the school's At-Risk Coordinator, kept the lists of codes. The teachers who taught freshman English, along with the school counselor, were given an orientation to the study by the research assistant.

Written instructions were provided for the teachers. A copy of the instructions is provided in Appendix D. The teachers administered the questionnaires to the students and were assisted by the school counselor. Letters were written to the students requesting their consent and informing them of their rights to decline if they were unwilling to participate in the study. A copy of the letter is provided in Appendix E.

The administration of the questionnaires began with the Demographics Form followed by the Career Aspiration and Expectation Questionnaire, the VPI, and the CBI. At the end of the day on which the administration was conducted, the packets were collected by each teacher and returned to the research assistant. The research assistant forwarded the coded packets to the writer the following week.

Null Hypotheses

The following null-hypotheses were posed:

1. There will be no significant differences on the adjusted mean career aspiration and career expectation scores by race or Holland social personality type when

initial differences between the groups were controlled with respect to socioeconomic status.

2. There will be no significant differences on the adjusted mean career belief scores by race or Holland social personality type when initial differences between the groups were controlled with respect to socioeconomic status.

Limitations

There were a number of problems and limitations that were encountered in the process of implementing this research study. These should be considered when interpreting the data.

First, the data used to compute the SES may not have been accurate since reliance was placed on the participants' knowledge of their parents' occupations and levels of education. In replications of this study, it is recommended that firm arrangements be made to ensure that the SES information is accurate.

On the CBI, several scales consisted of two or three questions. The low number of questions may have had an effect on the results. In replications of this study, it is recommended that additional instruments designed to measure career beliefs be used in accompaniment with the CBI.

The investigator did not personally supervise the administration of these questionnaires, but relied on a research assistant. This lack of control may have been responsible for the questionnaires which were unusable. Consequently, the outcome of this study may have been

affected. In replications of this study, it is recommended that the investigator supervise the administration of the questionnaires.

Additional demographic data were requested for five participants who failed to include the educational levels and occupations of their parents. This request was done within one month from the time the data was received.

Data Analysis

This study was descriptive in nature and was designed to examine differences between the career aspirations, expectations, and beliefs among African-American, White, and Hispanic males who were identified as High Social or Low Social Personality Types from varied socioeconomic backgrounds.

The data were analyzed by means of a 3 X 2 (Race x Holland social personality type) analysis of covariance (ANCOVA). Alpha was set at .05 for rejection of the null hypotheses. The design used unequal within-cell sample sizes. There were three races: (a) African-Americans, (b) Whites, and (c) Hispanics. There were two levels of Holland social personality types: (a) Low Social Personality Types, and (b) High Social Personality Types. Socioeconomic status (SES) was the covariate.

In addition to the analysis of covariance, the Scheffe test of multiple-comparisons was used to determine significant differences between cell means for complex

contrasts among race levels. The .05 level of confidence was utilized.

An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to determine whether there were significant differences in SES.

For this study, an alpha level of .05 was necessary to reject the null hypothesis. A power analysis was performed prior to the selection of the sample. A population difference of effect size $\underline{d}$ = .5 was deemed to be important. Furthermore, it was decided that a probability of at least .90 of detecting important differences should be attained. From the power curves, it was then determined that the appropriate sample size to be selected was approximately 90 participants. The analysis of covariance results were summarized in tables in terms of adjusted means and critical values for F.

Chapter 4

RESULTS

This study was designed to investigate the differences in the career aspirations, expectations, and beliefs as a function of select variables. The variables selected for study were race (African-Americans, versus Whites and Hispanics), and Holland social personality type (Low Social versus High Social). Socio-economic status was selected as a covariate.

This chapter reports the results of the study. Two null hypotheses were generated from the research questions. A 3 X 2 analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was used to test the hypotheses. The level of significance needed for rejection of the null hypotheses was set at $p \leq .05$.

Null Hypothesis One

It was hypothesized that there are no statistically significant differences among African-American, White, and Hispanic male adolescents; between Low Social Personality Types and High Social Personality Types; and between African-American, White, and Hispanic male adolescents who were Low Social Personality Types and those who were High Social Personality Types for adjusted means in the Career

Aspiration and Expectation scores when initial differences between the groups were controlled with respect to socioeconomic status. The summary of the analysis of covariance of the adjusted mean scores is presented in Table 7.

As can be seen from the analysis of covariance summarized in Table 7 under the first sub-section, the career aspirations and career expectations among the three racial groups were not significantly different, when initial differences among the groups were controlled with respect to socioeconomic status, $F(2, 81) = 1.110$, $p > .05$ and $F(2, 81) = 2.228$, $p > .05$, respectively.

Similarly, the career aspirations and career expectations of the two Holland social personality types were not significantly different, when initial differences between the groups were controlled with respect to socioeconomic status, $F(2, 81) = 0.478$, $p > .05$ and $F(2, 81) = 1.749$, $p > .05$, respectively.

The interaction of race by Holland social personality type also was not statistically significant for the career aspiration and career expectation scores, $F(2, 81) = 0.426$, $p > .05$ and $F(2, 81) = 0.103$, $p > .05$, respectively. Since no significant differences as a function of race, Holland social personality type, and the interaction of these two factors were observed, null hypothesis one was not rejected.

Table 7. Adjusted Mean Scores of all the Dependent Variables by Three Race Groups, Two Holland Social Personality Types, and Interaction Effects of Race by Holland Social Personality Type.

		Af Am LSPT	Af Am HSPT	Whites LSPT	Whites HSPT	Hispanics LSPT	Hispanics HSPT	Af Am Total	Whites Total	Hispanics Total	LSPT Total	HSPT Total	Grand Total	Among Race Group F	Among Race Group p	Among SPT Groups F	Among SPT Groups p	Interaction Race X SPT F	Interaction Race X SPT p
Career Aspirations and Expectation Questionnaire																			
	n	9	13	21	17	14	14	22	38	28	44	44	88	F	p	F	p	F	p
Aspiration	Est M	1.671	1.851	1.801	1.758	1.578	1.650	1.777	1.782	1.614	1.703	1.751	1.727	1.110	0.100	0.487	0.487	0.426	0.655
Expectation	Est M	1.477	1.618	1.709	1.878	1.575	1.647	1.548	1.785	1.611	1.613	1.728	1.670	2.228	0.114	1.749	0.190	0.103	0.902
Career Beliefs Inventory																			
	n	8	13	21	17	14	14	22	38	28	43	44	87	F	p	F	p	F	p
I. My Current Career Situation																			
Emp. Status	Est M	30.291	25.037	29.272	20.902	25.952	29.202	27.038	25.528	27.577	28.381	24.764	26.552	0.479	0.621	1.866	0.176	2.170	0.121
Career Plan	Est M	20.873	21.513	23.427	21.280	29.078	25.537	21.269	22.467	27.308	24.792	22.703	23.736	2.961	0.057	0.621	0.433	0.282	0.755
Acc. Uncer.	Est M	30.042	29.292	33.466	30.212	31.872	32.591	29.578	32.010	32.231	32.310	30.697	31.494	0.562	0.572	0.314	0.577	0.433	0.650
Openness	Est M	33.467	37.735	34.568	36.412	34.168	35.714	36.109	35.393	34.941	34.233	36.581	35.421	0.059	0.942	2.404	0.125	0.232	0.793
II. What Seems Necessary for My Happiness																			
Achievement	Est M	40.976	41.526	38.305	40.241	37.654	39.049	41.317	39.171	38.352	38.590	40.242	39.425	0.768	0.467	0.517	0.474	0.048	0.953
College Ed.	Est M	26.520	24.100	25.652	27.460	31.415	23.158	25.022	26.431	27.287	27.690	25.098	26.379	0.234	0.792	1.797	0.184	2.095	0.130
Intrin. Sat.	Est M	35.856	31.738	32.727	35.496	33.853	33.726	33.307	33.966	33.790	33.676	33.823	33.750	0.027	0.973	0.135	0.714	2.175	0.120
Peer Equal.	Est M	19.304	18.354	23.767	22.628	25.600	21.122	18.716	23.257	23.361	23.533	20.886	22.194	2.838	0.064	1.822	0.181	0.521	0.596
Str. Wrk. En.	Est M	28.854	31.304	28.549	26.856	35.570	29.511	30.371	27.792	32.540	30.892	29.015	29.943	2.393	0.098	0.863	0.356	1.481	0.234
III. Factors that Influence My Decisions																			
Control	Est M	31.751	42.128	31.263	34.360	35.103	35.088	38.175	32.649	35.095	32.604	36.887	34.770	0.935	0.397	3.409	0.069	1.363	0.262
Responsibi.	Est M	33.436	31.869	30.518	32.243	32.583	31.147	32.466	31.290	31.865	31.733	31.784	31.759	0.247	0.782	0.089	0.766	0.670	0.514
App. of Oth.	Est M	33.818	35.099	29.353	27.219	30.854	33.005	34.611	28.398	31.930	30.672	31.388	31.034	3.932	0.023*	0.059	0.809	0.652	0.524
Self-Other	Est M	33.868	29.140	31.848	30.605	30.062	31.020	30.941	31.292	30.541	31.642	30.304	30.966	0.114	0.893	1.040	0.311	0.877	0.420
Occ./Col. V.	Est M	33.805	35.503	32.909	36.598	34.649	34.227	34.856	324.59	34.438	33.642	35.520	34.592	0.021	0.980	1.498	0.225	0.933	0.398
Car. P. Flex.	Est M	21.814	21.988	24.797	26.444	26.124	21.652	21.921	25.534	23.888	24.674	23.603	24.132	2.483	0.909	0.446	0.506	2.222	0.115
IV. Changes I Am Willing to Make																			
Post-Tr. Tr.	Est M	24.621	29.659	28.324	28.364	28.378	24.256	27.740	28.342	26.317	27.653	27.440	27.545	0.773	0.465	0.051	0.822	3.059	0.052
Job. Exp.	Est M	35.129	33.535	31.882	32.188	30.159	31.150	34.030	32.019	30.654	31.925	32.202	32.065	2.614	0.079	0.018	0.894	0.408	0.666
Relocation	Est M	31.476	31.984	30.251	29.224	28.951	32.341	31.791	29.791	30.646	30.055	31.031	30.549	0.626	0.537	0.461	0.499	0.933	0.375

Table 7. (continued)

		Af Am LSPT	Af Am HSPT	Whites LSPT	Whites HSPT	Hispanics LSPT	Hispanics HSPT	Af Am Total	Whites Total	Hispanics Total	LSPT Total	HSPT Total	Grand Total	Among Race Group F	Among Race Group p	Among SPT Groups F	Among SPT Groups p	Interaction Race X SPT F	Interaction Race X SPT p
Career Beliefs Inventory																			
	n	8	13	21	17	14	14	22	38	28	43	44	*87						
V. Effort I Am Willing to Initiate																			
Imprv. Self	Est M	25.183	31.803	31.923	31.996	27.160	34.682	29.281	31.956	30.921	29.118	32.794	30.977	0.608	0.547	3.610	0.061	1.072	0.347
Pers. Uncer.	Est M	39.332	42.119	35.556	38.898	34.740	38.607	41.058	37.051	36.674	35.993	39.757	37.897	2.220	0.115	4.540	0.036*	0.035	0.965
Tak Risks	Est M	32.401	40.528	34.201	34.114	33.067	37.387	37.432	34.162	35.227	33.497	37.051	35.294	0.508	0.604	5.162	0.026*	1.758	0.179
Lrn. Job Skl.	Est M	34.308	36.825	31.836	31.308	34.148	32.711	35.866	31.600	33.429	33.048	33.383	33.218	1.413	0.249	0.010	0.922	0.341	0.712
Ngtt./Srch.	Est M	36.323	42.029	35.297	36.769	32.828	40.515	39.855	35.956	36.672	34.684	39.515	37.127	0.907	0.408	6.911	0.010**	1.161	0.318
Over. Obst.	Est M	36.792	38.356	33.469	38.019	32.657	36.714	37.760	35.505	34.685	33.823	37.703	35.785	1.720	0.186	8.114	0.006**	0.536	0.587
Work Hard	Est M	34.309	37.981	32.190	34.998	34.334	36.268	36.582	33.446	35.301	33.282	36.283	34.800	0.681	0.509	2.370	0.128	0.067	0.935

Note. *87. Eighty-seven students out of 88 completed the CBI.
* $p \leq .05$ (two-tailed test of significance)
** $p \leq .01$ (two-tailed test of significance)

Null Hypothesis Two

It was hypothesized that there are no statistically significant differences among African-American, White, and Hispanic male adolescents; between Low Social Personality Types and High Social Personality Types; and between African-American, White, and Hispanic male adolescents who are Low Social Personality Types and those who are High Social Personality Types for adjusted mean scores in their Career Beliefs when initial differences between the groups are controlled with respect to socioeconomic status.

The analysis of covariance indicated statistically significant differences for one of the 25 CBI scales: scale 12 with respect to race; and statistically significant differences for four CBI scales: scales 20, 21, 23, and 24, with respect to Holland social personality type.

In the CBI category of Factors that Influence My Decisions, the findings in Table 7 indicate statistically significant differences by race for scale 12--the Approval of Others. African-Americans (Adj. M = 34.611) scored significantly higher than Whites (Adj. M = 28.398), and Hispanics (Adj. M = 31.930), $F(2, 80) = 3.932$, $p < .05$. Using Scheffe's test of multiple-comparisons, other pairwise comparisons were not significant.

In the category Effort I am Willing to Initiate, the findings in Table 7 indicate statistically significant differences by Holland social personality type for the scale 20--Persisting While Uncertain scale. The High Social

Personality Types (Adj. M = 39.757) scored significantly higher than the Low Social Personality Types (Adj. M = 35.993), F(1, 80) = 4.540, p < .05. On scale 21--Taking Risks, the High Social Personality Types (Adj. M = 37.051) scored significantly higher than the Low Social Personality Types (Adj. M = 33.497), F(1, 80) = 5.162, p < .05. On scale 23--Negotiating/Searching, the High Social Personality Types (Adj. M = 39.515) scored significantly higher than the Low Social Personality Types (Adj. M = 34.684), F(1, 80) = 6.911, p < .01. Finally, on scale 24--Overcoming Obstacles, the High Social Personality Types (Adj. M = 37.703) scored significantly higher than the Low Social Personality Types (Adj. M = 33.823), F(1, 80) = 8.114, p < .01.

The interaction of race by Holland social personality type was not found to be statistically significant for the career beliefs scores at the .05 level of significance. The summary of the adjusted mean Career Beliefs scores on the Career Beliefs Inventory comprising these interactions are presented in Table 7.

Discussion

Results of the present study indicated that there were no significant differences between the African-American, White, and Hispanic participants with respect to their Career Aspirations and Expectations. Although no statistically significant differences were found, these findings are important. Furthermore, these findings lend support to studies by Lee (1985), and Slaney and Brown

(1983), in which it was concluded that significant career development differences between African-American and White males were nullified whenever adjustments were made for socioeconomic status. On the other hand, these findings of no significant differences, contradicted findings by other researchers (Hall & Post-Kammer, 1987; Sewell & Martin, 1976).

One explanation for the conflicting results is simply that whenever research is being conducted with race as a dependent variable, not making adjustments for confounding variables, such as socioeconomic status, can produce significant results which tend to disappear once adjustments are made (Slaney & Brown, 1983). In contrast to studies conducted by Lee (1985), and Slaney and Brown (1983), those conducted by Hall and Post-Kammer (1987) and Sewell & Martin (1976) did not make adjustments for socioeconomic status.

Another possible explanation for the nonsignificant results of the current study is that the erosion of jobs, coupled with higher levels of education being required for jobs at all levels, may be putting a quietus on the aspirations and expectations of participants. Accordingly, participants' aspirations and expectations may be restrained by the prevailing economic realities of the increasingly competitive job market.

Of the 25 CBI scales, no significant differences by race were found for 24 of the scales. This result indicates that African-American, White, and Hispanic participants held

more similar career beliefs with respect to the following CBI categories: (a) their current career situation, (b) what seems necessary for their happiness, (c) factors that influence their career decisions, (d) changes they are willing to make, and (e) efforts they are willing to initiate to achieve their career goals. These results indicate that the participants in this study were unquestionably more alike in their beliefs. Once again, a possible explanation might be that career beliefs may be more a function of SES than of race.

The one significant result in which African-American participants scored higher than White and Hispanic participants indicated that African-Americans believed that the approval from others in their environment was significantly less important to their choice of careers. This result contradicts earlier results which indicated that the career choices of African-American male students were influenced by role models in particular jobs, their mothers, and their teachers (Dillard & Jo-Campbell, 1981; June & Fooks, 1980; Kelly & Wingrove, 1975; Lewis, 1960; Sewell & Martin, 1976; Uzzel, 1961).

Another possible explanation for this significant result might be the absence of appropriate role models across the six occupational environments--realistic, investigative, artistic, social, enterprising, and conventional (Holland, 1985a). While it is important to have appropriate role models in all six environments, it is

critically important to have them in the social occupations because these are the occupations through which the preparation for employment in all six of the environments is made possible.

Another explanation might be the structural changes in the African-American family, which, in 1988, over 60% were single-parented families headed by a matriarch. This is in comparison to 33% of African-American families which were single-parented by a matriarch in 1960 (Bureau of the Census, 1994). In concert with this change, the increasing influence of gangs may be another contributing factor (Gibbs, 1988; Reed, 1988).

For White males, this result is consistent with findings by June & Fooks (1980), and Ginzberg et al. (1951) who reported that fathers, teachers, and counselors wielded influence over the career choices of white male students. One explanation for this might be that more White males are living in intact homes, and are being exposed to significant numbers of role models in all six occupational environments (Holland, 1985a). It is therefore apparent that more appropriate role models are in positions to be influential in the career choices of White males.

Between the Low Social and High Social Personality Types, no significant differences were found for 21 of the 25 CBI scales. This implies that these two groups have more similar career beliefs than dissimilar beliefs. For instance, they shared similar beliefs in terms of the

following CBI categories: (a) their current career situation, (b) what seems necessary for their happiness, (c) factors that influence their career decisions, and (d) changes they are willing to make to achieve their career goals. Accordingly, participants of both groups appear to feel very confident about their future as workers, and also appear to have confidence in their abilities to find and succeed at their future jobs.

It is important to note that, all four scales in which significant differences between the Low Social and High Social Personality Types were indicated, belonged to the same CBI category--Effort I Am Willing To Initiate. Furthermore, the High Social Personality Types scored higher than the Low Social Personality Types on all four scales. Based on these results, the High Social Personality Types indicated that, in contrast to the Low Social Personality Types: (a) they were willing to work harder despite facing uncertain futures; (b) they were more inclined to persevere even in the face of failure; (c) they envisioned having a greater capacity to pursue job satisfaction, even if it meant having to change jobs in the process; and (d) they felt more confident in their abilities to overcome any future obstacles in the pursuit of meaningful work.

This result is consistent with the requirements for employment in the social occupations as reported in the Occupational Outlook Handbook (United States Department of Labor, 1990). It is reported that jobs in the social

occupations predominate at the higher levels of prestige, and, thus, require higher levels of education (Gottfredson, 1978a). Accordingly, it is expected that participants who expect to work in the social occupations would be willing to expend effort commensurate with the higher academic and vocational preparation to successfully compete for those jobs.

In summary, the profiles of the three racial groups and the two social personality groups which emerged from this study, indicate that they share more similarities than dissimilarities in their Career Aspirations, Expectations, and Beliefs.

Chapter 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter provides a summary of the study, conclusions based on the results, implications for practice, and recommenda-tions for future research.

Summary

This study was designed to compare the Career Aspirations, Expectations, and Beliefs of male adolescents to ascertain whether there were any systematic differences by race, Holland social personality type, or an interaction of these two independent variables while controlling for socioeconomic status.

The sample of this study consisted of 22 African-American, 38 White, and 28 Hispanic male ninth-grade students--a total of 88 students--in freshman English classes, who were all enrolled in the same suburban Dallas County, Texas high school.

Two null hypotheses were tested in the study:

1. There will be no significant differences on the adjusted mean career aspiration and career expectation scores by race or Holland social personality type when

initial differences between the groups were controlled with respect to socioeconomic status.

2. There will be no significant differences on the adjusted mean career belief scores by race or Holland social personality type when initial differences between the groups were controlled with respect to socioeconomic status.

To test null hypotheses one and two, the data were analyzed using a 3 X 2 analysis of covariance (ANCOVA), with SES being the covariate.

Null Hypothesis One. There are no significant differences in the Career Aspirations and Expectations by race or by Holland social personality type.

Non-significant F ratios were obtained in the comparison of adjusted group means for Career Aspiration and Expectation scores by race and by Holland social personality type. Null hypothesis one was therefore retained.

Null Hypothesis Two. There are no significant differences in the Career Beliefs on 24 of the 25 Career Belief Inventory scales by race.

Non-significant F ratios were obtained in the comparison of adjusted group means for Career Belief scores, by race, on 24 of the 25 CBI scales. Null hypothesis two, therefore, was accepted for these 24 CBI scales.

A significant F ratio was obtained, however, in the comparison of adjusted group means for Career Belief scores by race, on scale 12 of the CBI--Approval of Others. Data indicated that, in contrast to White and Hispanic males,

African-American males did not share the belief that the approval of others was necessary in making their career choices. Null hypothesis two, therefore, was rejected for scale 12 of the CBI.

There are no significant differences in the Career Beliefs on 21 of the 25 CBI scales by Holland social personality type.

Non-significant F ratios were obtained in the comparison of adjusted group means for Career Belief scores, by Holland social personality type, on 21 of the 25 CBI scales. Null hypothesis two, therefore, was retained for these 21 CBI scales.

Significant F ratios were obtained, however, in the comparison of adjusted group means for Career Belief scores by Holland social personality type, for the following CBI scales: (a) 20 (Persisting While Uncertain), (b) 21 (Taking Risks), (c) 23 (Negotiating/Searching), and (d) 24 (Overcoming Obstacles). Data indicated that, in contrast to the Low Social Personality Types, the High Social Personality Types held the beliefs that: (a) they were willing to work harder despite facing uncertain futures; (b) they were more inclined to persevere even in the face of failure; (c) they envisioned having a greater capacity to pursue job satisfaction, even if it meant having to change jobs in the process; and (d) they felt more confident in their abilities to overcome any future obstacles in the

pursuit of meaningful work. Null hypothesis two, therefore, was rejected for scales 20, 21, 23, and 24 of the CBI.

Conclusions

The question investigated in this study was: Do the career aspirations, expectations, and beliefs of male adolescents differ by race, by Holland social personality types, or by an interaction of the two? Conclusions reached from the analysis of the data were within the scope of the limitations previously presented, and were based upon and limited by the presumed validity of earlier assumptions.

The results of this study warrant the following conclusions:

1. The career aspirations of African-American male adolescents are similar to the career aspirations of White and Hispanic male adolescents.

2. The career expectations of African-American male adolescents are similar to the career expectations of White and Hispanic male adolescents.

3. In contrast to White and Hispanic male adolescents, African-American male adolescents are more inclined to believe that their career choices are not predicated on the approval of others.

Apart from this difference in belief, African-American male adolescents share similar career beliefs with White male and Hispanic male adolescents.

4. The career aspirations of High Social Personality Types are similar to those of Low Social Personality Types.

5. The career expectations of High Social Personality Types are similar to those of Low Social Personality Types.

6. The career beliefs of High Social Personality Types are more similar to those of Low Social Personality Types than they are different. However, in contrast to Low Social Personality Types, High Social Personality Types held the beliefs that: (a) they were willing to work harder despite facing uncertain futures; (b) they were more inclined to persevere even in the face of failure; (c) they envisioned having a greater capacity to pursue job satisfaction, even if it meant having to change jobs in the process; and (d) they felt more confident in their abilities to overcome any future obstacles in the pursuit of meaningful work.

Implications

The conclusions drawn from the results of the present study indicate that African-American, White, and Hispanic male adolescents shared more similarities than dissimilarities in their Career Aspirations, Expectations, and Beliefs. The study supports the findings by Lee (1985), and Slaney and Brown (1983) who reported that when adjustments are made for SES, significant differences normally attributed to race disappear.

No statistically significant differences were therefore indicated by race or by Holland social personality types with respect to the male adolescents' Career Aspirations and Expectations. These results seem to warrant less focus on race as a factor when developing career counseling

strategies for African-American, White, and Hispanic male adolescents.

The preponderance of the results with respect to differences in the Career Beliefs as a function of race indicate that the male adolescents held career beliefs which were more similar than dissimilar. The African-Americans' belief that the approval of others is not a serious consideration in their choice of careers conflicts with results reported by researchers (Ginzberg, Ginsburg, Axelrad, & Herma, 1951; June & Fooks, 1980). Since this appears to be a definite shift in the career beliefs of African-American males, career counselors would need to consider this finding pursuant to developing appropriate career counseling strategies for this population.

Results pertaining to the differences in Career Beliefs as a function of Holland social personality type were analogous to those indicated by race. High Social Personality Types appear to hold a majority of the same Career Beliefs which the Low Social Personality Types entertain. However, with the significant differences in four beliefs occurring in the same CBI category--Effort I Am Willing To Make, it appears that these should be taken into consideration when counseling participants from both Holland social personality types. This is important because participants with Low Social Personality Types, irrespective of race, may be engaging in self-defeating behaviors which may sabotage their chances of successfully participating in

the increasingly competitive service economy (Gibbs, 1988). The High Social Personality Types, on the other hand, should benefit from counselors endorsing their career beliefs in this area.

In summary, since the results of this study indicate that the Career Aspirations, Expectations, and Beliefs of these three racial groups share more similarities than dissimilarities, the employment of different career counseling treatment modalities for these groups does not appear to be warranted. Davidson's (1980) assertion that African-American youth were different form Whites psychologically, socially, and economically may be true; however, the results of this study do not support the assertion that African-American male adolescents are different from White male adolescents with respect to their career development.

Recommendations

Based on the results of this study, the following recommendations are offered in regard to future research:

1. Future research should be conducted to investigate the discrepancies between the career aspirations and expectations of African-American male adolescents with Holland social personality types. Such research might result in the development of appropriate career development programs pursuant to providing effective vocational counseling for this population.

2. Attempting to complete the administration of the four questionnaires in one day may have influenced the results of this study. Although the administration was untimed, the number of questions may have been too voluminous for ninth-graders. It is recommended, therefore, that future investigations using multiple inventories should be scheduled over a longer time period.

3. This study should be replicated with African-Americans in other age groups to determine whether the results obtained are unique to male adolescents or applicable to those of other age groups.

4. Future research should be conducted longitudinally to track the changes in the career aspirations and expectations of Holland social personality types at different developmental stages.

5. Further inquiry should be made into the differences in career beliefs between the High Social Personality Types and the Low Social Personality Types on the CBI category--Effort I Am Willing To Initiate. In this category, the High Social Personality Types scored significantly higher than the Low Social Personality Types on 4 of the 7 scales. Further research in this category could attempt to explicate these results pursuant to developing career counseling programs for the Low Social Personality Types.

6. Further research should be conducted to assess whether or not High Social Personality Types expect to enter careers in the social occupations. Investigating their

reasons for pursuing or not pursuing jobs in the social occupations would be of interest to researchers and career counselors.

7. This study should be expanded to ascertain the underlying reasons which may be precluding African-American males with High Social Personality Types from pursuing careers in the social occupations. The results of this study established the similarity of career aspirations, expectations, and beliefs among the three races, and two Holland social personality types, but did not address discrepancies between the career aspirations and expectations of the participants, especially those of the High Social Personality Types. It is recommended, therefore, that future studies include questions which would allow participants to state why their career expectations were incongruent with their career aspirations.

8. While the ANCOVA is designed to increase statistical power and reduce biases due to confounding variables, it is not designed to replace random sampling. Accordingly, it is recommended that, in concert with the use of ANCOVA, random sampling should be a requirement in future studies of this genre.

9. While SES was controlled for in this study, other confounding variables might have influenced the results. It is therefore recommended that, in addition to controlling for SES, other confounding variables, such as IQ, should be controlled for in future research.

10. This study was restricted to the comparison of Career Aspirations, Expectations, and Beliefs among races and Holland social personality types. Future research should investigate the Career Aspirations, Expectations, and Beliefs within each of the three racial groups, and within each of the two Holland social personality types.

11. The similarities in the career development portrait of the racial groups in this study seem to suggest that future research might want to focus less on race as a determinant in the career development of male adolescents. It is recommended that future research focus on separate racial groups.

12. Further investigation into the career belief of African-Americans, that the approval of others was not an important consideration in making career decisions, warrants further research because it appears to be a major shift in their career beliefs.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

Informed Consent Form

Dear Parent,

I am a visiting faculty in the Counseling Center at the University of Florida. As part of my dissertation research, I need to gather information about the career development of adolescents.

In allowing your child to participate in this study, he/she will be asked to complete four short questionnaires:

1. A Demographics Form
2. A Career Aspiration and Expectation Questionnaire
3. The Vocational Preference Inventory
4. The Career Beliefs Inventory

The questionnaires will be administered to participants during their freshman English class period, and will take between 45-70 minutes to be completed. One of the questionnaires includes parents' income level and educational achievement, so your child will need to be provided with this information.

Participation in this research is strictly voluntary, therefore, you and your child may withdraw at any time. In addition, there are no known physical or psychological risks associated with this research, and your child's grades will not be affected in any way whether he/she participates or not. If your child chooses not to participate, he/she will be allowed to attend to his/her regular class assignments during the administration of the questionnaires. Compensation will not be provided for participating in this research.

All information will be gathered in conformance with the American Psychological Association guidelines for human subjects' participation. Your child's responses will be kept confidential through a coding system, and the results of this study will only be reported as group data, not as individual responses. If you should have any questions about this study or would like to view the questionnaires, please contact Davies E. Bellamy or Dr. Mary Fukuyama at (904) 392-1575, at the University of Florida. I appreciate your cooperation and effort.

I have read and understand the procedure described above. I agree to allow my child, _____, to participate in Mr. Bellamy's study (career development of adolescents), and I have received a copy of the description.

SIGNATURES:

_____ _____ _____ _____
Parent/Guardian Date 2nd parent/Guardian Date

I _____ would like to participate in the study.
(Adolescent's name)

_____ _____
Signed (Adolescent) Date

APPENDIX B

Demographics Form

1. AGE: _____

2. YOUR SEX (circle one):

   (A) MALE (B) FEMALE

3. YOUR ETHNICITY (circle one):

   (A) AFRICAN-AMERICAN

   (B) ASIAN AMERICAN

   (C) CAUCASIAN (not Hispanic)

   (D) HISPANIC

   (E) NATIVE AMERICAN

   (F) OTHER (please specify) _____

4. FAMILY STATUS

(1) CURRENTLY LIVING WITH (circle one):

(A) MOTHER

(B) FATHER

(C) MOTHER AND FATHER

(D) MOTHER AND STEPFATHER

(E) FATHER AND STEPMOTHER

(F) OTHER _____

(2) SIBLINGS IN YOUR FAMILY:

(A) NUMBER OF SISTERS: _____

(B) NUMBER OF BROTHERS: _____

(C) NUMBER OF HALF/STEP SISTERS: _____

(D) NUMBER OF HALF/STEP BROTHERS: ____

5. PLACE AN X BY THE HIGHEST LEVEL OF EDUCATION ACTUALLY COMPLETED BY EACH PARENT:

	ELEMENTARY SCHOOL	HIGH SCHOOL	TECHNICAL SCHOOL	COMMUNITY COLLEGE	COLLEGE OR UNIVERSITY
MOTHER:	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
FATHER:	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
STEPMOTHER:	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
STEPFATHER:	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

6. MOTHER'S OCCUPATION: _____

FATHER'S OCCUPATION: _____

STEPMOTHER'S OCCUPATION: _____

STEPFATHER'S OCCUPATION: _____

7. PLACE AN X BY THE RANGE OF INCOME EARNED BY EACH PARENT:

	MOTHER	FATHER	STEPFATHER	STEPMOTHER
UNDER $14,999	_____	_____	_____	_____
$15,000 -- $19,999	_____	_____	_____	_____
$20,000 -- $24,999	_____	_____	_____	_____
$25,000 -- $29,999	_____	_____	_____	_____
$30,000 -- $34,999	_____	_____	_____	_____
$35,000 -- $39,999	_____	_____	_____	_____
$40,000 -- $44,999	_____	_____	_____	_____
OVER $50,000	_____	_____	_____	_____

APPENDIX C

Career Aspiration and Expectation Questionnaire

1. People sometimes think about what they would like to be although they do not really believe it would ever come true. If by some magic you could be anything you want, what would you like to be after graduating from high school?

_____

_____

2. What kind of job do you think you will actually get when your education is completed?

_____

_____

3. How confident are you that you will graduate from high school? (circle one)

Not Confident	Moderately Confident	Very Confident

1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7

4. How confident are you that you will continue your education after high school? (circle one)

Not Confident	Moderately Confident	Very Confident

1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7

5. If you plan to continue your education after high school, in which educational setting do you expect to do so? (circle one)

(A) Vocational technical school

(B) Community college

(C) College or University

APPENDIX D

Instructions to be Read by Research Assistant

Please open the packet before you. You should find a brief description of the study. Take a few minutes to read this over.

When you are finished, check to make sure that you have the following: (a) One Demographics Form, (b) One Career Aspiration and Expectation Questionnaire, (c) One Vocational Preference Inventory and its answer sheet, and (d) One Career Beliefs Inventory and its answer sheet. If you are missing any of these items, please raise your hand.

Everyone should start by filling our the Demographics Form now. We will wait for everyone to finish before we move on to the next questionnaire. Please raise your hand if there are any questions? Questions will be answered one at a time.

Is everyone finished?

If so, you may now start filling out the Career Aspiration and Expectation Questionnaire. Are there any questions?

You may now proceed to the Vocational Preference Inventory. Take a few minutes to read the instructions on the front carefully before filling out the answer sheet. Please do not write on the inventory.

Is everyone finished?

You may now proceed to the Career Beliefs Inventory. Again, please take a few minutes to read the instructions on the front carefully before filling out the answer sheet.

When you are finished, place all the questionnaires and answer sheets back in the envelope before you.

Once again, thank you very much for your participation.