Occupational Aspirations of Middle and High School Hispanic Females in a US City Bordering México

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Abstract

The Occupational Aspiration Scale (OAS) (Miller & Haller, 1964) was used to obtain levels of occupational aspiration (LOA) of 7th through 12th grade Hispanic females (N = 133) who lived in a border city adjacent to México. MANOVA statistics with Bonferroni post-hoc comparisons indicated significant differences between 8th and 9th – graders and between 9th and 10th – graders in Short Range, Realistic, and Short Range Realistic LOA and between 10th and 11th – graders in Idealistic LOA. Suggestions for future research and implications for practitioners are included.

Early research reports that females aspire toward traditionally female occupations such as teacher, nurse, and secretary (Berman, 1972; Frost & Diamond, 1979), nursing, hairdressing, and clerical work (Furlong, 1986), or clerical, sales, and service positions (Looker & Magee, 2000; Powers, & Wojtkiewicz, 2004). Females have also been reported to have more restricted occupational aspirations than males (Furlong, 1986; Kenkel & Gage, 1983; Looft, 1971a, 1971b; Phillips, Cooper, & Johnson, 1995). Recent research, however, reports females more likely to aspire toward male dominated occupations and males less likely to aspire toward female dominated occupations (Alpert & Breen, 1989; Bobo, Hildreth, & Durodoye, 1998; Davey & Stoppard 1993; Francis, 2002; Wahl, & Blackhurst, 2000).

Change in female’s aspiration toward well-paying, prestigious jobs has been linked to the women’s movement of the early 1960’s and 1970’s (Shu & Marini, 1998) and reduction in gender segregation in occupations (Reskin, & Padavic, 1994). Because of their willingness to cross gender lines, females are entering prestigious occupations (Furlong, & Biggart, 1999), some of which require university degrees (Francis, 2002; Phipps, 1995; Rojewski & Yang, 1997). Ultimately, this has resulted in higher occupational aspirations for females than for males (Andres, Anisef, Krahn, Looker, & Thiessen, 1999; Apostal, & Bilden, 1991; Conroy, 1998; Dunne, Elliott, & Carlsen, 1981; Mau and Bikos, 2000; Rojewski & Yang, 1997). This attitudinal change in females does not seem to be culturally bound. In a study by Reyes, Gillock, & Kobus (1999) both male and female urban Mexican-American adolescents overwhelmingly aspired to male-dominated careers. Noteworthy,
However, was that females aspiring to male-dominated careers possessed higher levels of acculturation, higher academic achievement, higher educational expectations, and had a clearer understanding of how to achieve career goals than their male peers.

Although substantial progress has been made in examining gender issues (Astin, 1984; Farmer, 1985; Peterson & Wilson, 1993), the same cannot be said for the study of occupational aspirations of racial-ethnic minorities (Arbona, 1990, 1995; Richardson, 1993). The limited number of research studies on Hispanics’ career aspirations show that they are influenced by a myriad of factors including family and cultural factors, economic circumstances, acculturation, education, and bias in the work place. For example, early studies by Lewis (1966) and Rubel (1966) explained that lack of occupational mobility for Mexican Americans (Hispanics) was due to family and culturally related factors. This type of research calls into question Hispanic’s achievement motivation, their desire to succeed, prompts a rationale for negative stereotypes toward Hispanics, which ultimately helps to mold a negative self-fulfilling mindset in Hispanics. By the end of the 1960’s, the importance given these factors as explanations for the lower status attainment of Hispanics came under heavy criticism (Hernandez, 1970; Kuvlesky & Juárez, 1975; Vaca, 1970), which helped refocus perspectives on Hispanics’ mobility research.

Starting in the 1970’s, research studies on occupational aspiration of Hispanics found that they consistently expressed high occupational aspirations (Evans & Anderson, 1973; Kuvlesky & Patella, 1971; Kuvlesky, Wright, & Juárez, 1971; Marshall & Miller, 1977) but tended to hold lower expectations of achieving their aspirations than their Anglo peers (Evans & Anderson, 1973; Kuvlesky & Patella, 1971; Kuvlesky, Wright, & Juárez, 1971). In more recent research Yowell (2002) also found a gap between Hispanic’s occupational aspirations and expectations of attaining their aspirations, similar to that found in African Americans by Mickelson (1990). Some researchers have posited that this gap is due to differences between Hispanic students’ aspirations and their awareness of existing economic, educational, and discrimination barriers in the process of pursuing occupational goals (Albert & Luzzo, 1999; Constantine, Erickson, Banks, & Timberlake, 1998; Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 2000). Mau and Bikos (2000) suggest that the occupational aspirations-occupational expectations gap for Hispanics is exacerbated by financial pressure for survival, institutional racism, and socializing pressure to adapt to a new cultural environment. However, Gecas, (1980, p. 273) proposes that “structural conditions which contribute to their poverty and minority status” are possible explanations for the aspiration-expectation discrepancy in Hispanic youth. In his study of migrant students, Gecas (1980, p. 274) focused on “conspicuous and concrete consequences of poverty as obstacles to the child’s educational and occupational aspirations and expectations”, including keeping children out of school to work in the fields or to take care of younger siblings. Other subtle consequences proposed by Gecas included such obstacles as not having enough money for school supplies, or being embarrassed about one’s clothing, or not being able to understand the teacher due to cultural and language differences. Finally, factors such as limited life experiences (Arbona, 1990; Albert & Luzzo, 1999) and lack of opportunities (Kuvlesky & Juárez, 1975) have been suggested as possible factors for the Hispanics’ aspiration-expectation gap.
Considering that Hispanics will be a highly visible part of the labor force in the years to come, Arbona & Novy (1991) point to an urgent need to address the career aspirations of Hispanics in relation to the realities of the job market. For example, there is need for information on factors that impede Hispanic females’ career development. This lack of information thwarts efforts to develop education and career counseling programs with objectives to help Hispanic females gain knowledge and skills on how to manage barriers to educational and career aspiration, including cultural and family traditions and expectations. Without appropriate knowledge of their career aspirations and expectations and skill training to offset distracters to achieving career goals, Hispanic females will continue to fall prey to existing internal and external barriers as they pursue educational and occupational goals.

In the present study data were collected from Hispanic females enrolled in grades seven through twelve in a moderately large city adjacent to the Mexican border. Our primary goal was to gain knowledge of the occupational aspiration characteristics of Hispanic females across grade levels. To achieve this goal we obtained Hispanic females’ realistic and idealistic occupational aspirations at two career points, after schooling is completed and at thirty years old. Specifically, we obtained expressed occupational aspiration data at two career points: Realistic Short Range, Realistic Long Range, Idealistic Short Range, and Idealistic Long Range. See Table 1 for wording to achieve our investigation’s goal.

Our hypotheses for the investigation included the following:
1. There will be no significant differences in the Short-Range LOA of Hispanic females enrolled in grades seven through twelve.
2. There will be no significant differences in the Long-Range LOA of Hispanic females enrolled in grades seven through twelve.
3. There will be no significant differences in the Realistic LOA of Hispanic females enrolled in grades seven through twelve.
4. There will be no significant differences in the Idealistic LOA of Hispanic females enrolled in grades seven through twelve.
5. There will be no significant differences in the Short-Range Realistic LOA of Hispanic females enrolled in grades seven through twelve.
6. There will be no significant differences in the Short-Range Idealistic LOA of Hispanic females enrolled in grades seven through twelve.
7. There will be no significant differences in the Long-Range Realistic LOA of Hispanic females enrolled in grades seven through twelve.
8. There will be no significant differences in the Long-Range Idealistic LOA of Hispanic females enrolled in grades seven through twelve.

Methods

Participants
In developing the research design for the present investigation, we acknowledged that Hispanics are a special group with special factors that may affect occupational aspirations and expectations. We understand that Hispanics are a culturally distinguishable group in American society, possessing a distinct language, distinct values, and distinct traditions. We also acknowledge that these special traits are reinforced by proximity to their native
Because of the interplay of these factors, each important in their own right, we decided to focus on the gender issue as it affects occupational aspirations of high school students who live in a US city adjacent to the Mexican border.

Our participants included 133 Hispanic females in grades seven through twelve. Participants ranged in age from 12 to 18 (Mean Age = 14.6 years) and were selected from two public school districts within the city. Although our sample was 100 percent Hispanic, this apparent overrepresentation is reflective of the surrounding community, which identifies 99 percent of the population as Hispanic.

**Instrument**

The Occupational Aspiration Scale (OAS) (Miller & Haller, 1964) was used in the present investigation. Even though the OAS has been deemed a useable instrument in occupational aspiration research (Miller & Haller, 1964; Haller, Otto, Meier, & Ohlendorf, 1974; Hotchkiss, Curry, Haller, & Widaman, 1979; Otto, Haller, Meier, & Ohlendorf, 1974; Westbrook, 1966) it has not been widely used. The OAS has been used to study African American’s LOA (Hotchkiss, Curry, Haller, & Widaman, 1979), but we could not find a single research study that used the OAS with Hispanics.

In an article on the empirical analysis of the OAS, Haller et al. (1974) called for research on the OAS with other than upper-working-class population samples on which the OAS was tested, especially females and those from middle and lower socioeconomic classes. Hotchkiss et al. (1979) propose further research on the use of the OAS with females and minority populations and suggested that the OAS is a useable instrument for measuring the prestige of youth’s occupational aspirations, and that race and sex differences are relatively inconsequential. We believe that Hotchkiss et al. (1979) were premature in their suggestions. There is evidence that the LOA structure on the OAS may change due to response patterns of ethnic minorities and low SES groups (Haller, Otto, Meier, & Ohlendorf, 1974).

The OAS is an eight item multiple-choice instrument that can be administered in about twenty minutes to individuals or to groups. Eighty occupations are distributed among eight items, each consisting of ten distinct occupations that span the entire occupational prestige range. Occupations in each of the eight items are scrambled to reduce desirability effect, and the scrambled order is maintained for the eight OAS items.

Wording in the eight stimulus questions tap occupational aspiration at two expressed levels (realistic-idealistic) at two career points (short-long range), yielding four question combinations—Realistic Short Range (two questions), Realistic Long Range (two questions), Idealistic Short Range (two questions), and Idealistic Long Range (two questions). Wording of the four question combinations is presented in Table 1, which was obtained from Miller and Haller (1964, p. 449). Score combinations may also be obtained for Short Range, Long Range, Realistic and Idealistic LOA. The Short and Long Range LOA scores are obtained by combining short and long range occupational aspiration scores across the two occupational aspiration expression levels (realistic-idealistic). By the same token, Realistic and Idealistic LOA scores may be obtained by combining realistic and idealistic occupational aspiration scores across two career points (short-long range).
Respondents are asked to select one occupational alternative in each of the eight items. Each occupational alternative selected is awarded a predetermined score based on the prestige category of the occupation. Scores in each OAS item range from 1 to 10, with the most prestigious occupational alternatives awarded a score of 10. Thus, total scores across eight items range from 4 to 80 and are considered a measure of an individual’s level of occupational aspiration (LOA). Meaning of occupational titles is not explained in order to obtain a “true” representation of the individual’s LOA, which may include lack of knowledge of some occupations.

Procedures

Students in a graduate counseling course volunteered to collect the data. Each graduate student was also employed as a teacher in the two school districts represented in the sample. Participants for the study reflected a convenience sample, as they were students in the graduate students’ classes. Participants were asked by their teachers to respond to the instrument during class time. No time restriction was given for completing the OAS. However, all students completed the OAS within 20 minutes. All students who participated had command of English, therefore, no additional modifications were required to compensate for language barriers.

LOA data were analyzed using Multivariate Analysis of Variance in the SPSS statistical package. The Bonferroni post-hoc multiple comparison procedure was used to determine significance between paired mean LOA scores across grades. An alpha level of .05 was used in all statistical tests.

Results

The Cronbach Alpha coefficient of internal consistency for the present population sample was .7379. This compared favorably with a .80 internal consistency coefficient for the original OAS (Miller & Haller, 1964).

Multivariate ANOVA results in Table 2 reveal significant Levels of Occupational Aspirations (LOA) differences among grade levels in the Short Range LOA $[F (5, 127) = 3.969, p = .002]$, Realistic LOA $[F (5, 127) = 3.845, p = .003]$, Idealistic LOA $[F (5, 127) = 2.335, p = .046]$, and Short Range Realistic LOA $[F (5, 127) = 3.989, p = .002]$. As can be observed in Table 2, $\eta^2$ indicates that grade level differences explain approximately 13.5% of the variability in Short Range LOA scores, 13.1% of the variability in Realistic LOA scores, and 13.6% in the variability of Short Range Realistic LOA scores.

Table 3 show means and standard deviations for Short and Long Range, Realistic and Idealistic, Short Range—Long Range Realistic, and Short Range—Long Range Idealistic LOA's across grade levels. The Bonferroni post-hoc multiple comparison procedure was used to determine paired mean score differences across grade levels.

Post-hoc analysis of Short Range LOA across grade levels resulted in significant differences between paired means for grades 8-9 and 9-10. A study of mean scores in Table 3 show that the Short Range LOA mean score for grade nine (M = 20.13) was significantly higher than the Short Range LOA mean score for grade eight (M = 15.96) (M Difference = 4.17, p = .017). Grade nine Short Range LOA mean score (M = 20.13)
was also significantly higher than grade ten Short Range LOA mean score (M = 13.86) (M Difference = 6.27, p = .001). There were no significant differences on the Long Range LOA mean scores between grades.

Post-hoc analyses found that the Realistic LOA mean score for grade eight (M = 16.98) was significantly lower than the Realistic LOA mean score for grade nine (M = 21.17) (M Difference = 4.19, p = .054). The Realistic LOA mean score for grade nine (M = 21.17) was significantly higher than grade ten Realistic LOA score (M = 14.29) (M Difference = 6.88, p .001). The only significant mean score difference in the Idealistic LOA was between grades ten (M = 11.57) and eleven (M = 17.00) (M Difference = 5.43, p = .041).

Post-hoc comparisons of Short Range Realistic LOA means in Table 2 showed significant differences between grade eight (M = 9.76) and grade nine (M = 12.83) (M Difference = --3.07, p = .027) and between grade nine (M = 12.83) and grade ten (M = 8.00) M Difference = 4.83, p = .001). There were no significant differences in Long Range Realistic, Short Range Idealistic, and Long Range Idealistic LOA across grades.

There are two noticeable results shown in Table 3. First, Hispanic females’ LOA peaked in ninth grade, especially in the Short Range career point (Mean = 20.13), Realistic expression level (Mean = 21.17), and Short Range Realistic career point-expression level combination (Mean = 12.83). Second, Hispanic females’ LOA response patterns on the OAS differed from expected patterns suggested by Miller and Haller (1964): Short Range LOA should be lower than Long Range LOA and Realistic LOA should be lower than Idealistic LOA. Perusal of LOA means at each grade level in Table 3 show that Short Range LOA mean scores are higher than Long Range LOA mean scores. Short Range Realistic LOA mean scores at each grade level are higher than their paired Long Range Realistic mean score. With the exception of the eleventh grade, Hispanic females’ Realistic LOA was higher than their Idealistic LOA across grade levels. Short Range Idealistic LOA scores were higher than Long Range Idealistic LOA scores in three of six paired comparisons in Table 3. Hispanic females’ responses on the OAS give evidence that more research is warranted to unravel the reasons for these response patterns.

Discussion

Results in the present study show that Hispanic females’ LOA peaked at ninth-grade. The significant increase in occupational aspirations between eighth and ninth grade may have been a by-product of perceived prestige of being enrolled in high school. In addition, the extra encouragement and support from faculty and counselors to offset transition problems from middle to high school may have exacerbated ninth grade Hispanic females’ self-efficacy beliefs in terms of the occupations to which they aspired. Ultimately, however, ninth-graders’ selection of prestigious occupational alternatives on the OAS went beyond the educational and training requirements of occupational alternatives selected by their more mature, and probably more realistic, tenth-grade peers.

In the present study Hispanic females’ LOA response patterns deviated from expected norms. According to Miller and Haller (1964, p. 452), “general level of aspiration theory and research holds that, on the average, level of aspiration at the idealistic level is higher than level of aspiration at the realistic level, and similarly that level of aspiration in
terms of long-range goals is higher than levels of aspiration in terms of short-range goals.” However, Haller, Otto, Meier, & Ohlendorf (1974, p. 115) suggested “lower SES youth may respond quite differently to idealistic and realistic items.” In fact, Haller et al. (1974, p. 115) were suspicious that for individuals in “lower SES strata the factor structure of LOA may not follow the single-factor pattern assumed by most status attainment research.” One way that this could occur is if the lower SES group’s realistic-idealistic and short-long range items are not variable.

Results of the present study confirm Haller et al. (1974) suspicions and contradict research by Evans and Anderson (1973), Kuvlesky and Patella (1971), Kuvlesky, Wright, and Juárez (1971), and Yowell (2000) that Hispanics’ occupational expectations (Realistic LOA) are lower than their occupational aspirations (Idealistic LOA). Data presented in Table 3 show clearly that Hispanic females’ LOA response patterns do not follow the expected patterns as suggested by Haller, Otto, Meier, & Ohlendorf (1974). Hispanic females’ Short Range and Realistic occupational aspiration scores are higher than their Long Range and Idealistic occupational aspiration scores.

A possible explanation for Hispanic females’ higher Short Range than Long Range LOA may be based on participants’ interpretation of the wording, “when your SCHOOLING IS OVER,” in items one, two, three, and four of the OAS. See Table 1 for specific wording of these items. The original intent of the wording in each of these items was to obtain participants’ occupational aspirations when they graduated from high school. A second plausible interpretation of “when your SCHOOLING IS OVER” could mean after completion of college or university education.

There is evidence that Hispanic females interpreted “when your SCHOOLING IS OVER” differently than originally intended by the OAS developers. In the present study, Hispanic females aspired to become a school psychologist and a college professor “when SCHOOLING IS OVER.” Interpreting responses to the OAS using the original intent of the stimulus question would lead to the conclusion that Hispanic females chose occupational alternatives on the OAS requiring higher educational and ability levels beyond those expected at high school graduation. Whereas, if selection of occupational alternatives on the OAS were made using the latter interpretation, Short Range, Realistic, and Short-Range Realistic LOA scores may, indeed, reflect respondents’ ‘true’ level of occupational aspiration. Further research is needed to verify if wording on the OAS’s short-range items results in different LOA scores.

A second explanation for higher Short Range than Long Range occupational aspirations for Hispanic females may be based on vocational need (Gottfredson, 1981). According to this theory, by age 14, interest and vocational needs become principal determinants of occupational aspirations. In the present study, the respondents’ family economic needs may have been a primary factor in considering occupational alternatives on the OAS.

Another explanation about Hispanic females’ higher Short Range than Long Range LOA response patterns may be based on social cognitive theory (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1996). From this perspective Hispanic females may have weighed the chances of realizing their occupational aspirations based on available labor market opportunities and/or known
structural barriers to career attainment (Albert & Luzzo, 1999; Kenkel & Gage, 1983). In doing so, the cognitive-oriented wording on OAS items aimed at tapping Long Range LOA may have been disregarded in favor of using personal and cultural perspectives to make Short Range occupational choices on the OAS to attain immediate gratification (when SCHOOLING IS OVER) rather than delaying gratification until age 30.

Finally, it may be that Hispanic females in the present study used factors other than social value, interest, or vocational need when choosing occupational alternatives on the OAS. They may have based occupational choices on inculcated cultural values, family economic need or a combination of these factors, and other determinants yet to be identified. Hispanic female participants in the present study come from a moderately large city (approximately 200,000) comprised largely of Hispanic/Mexican Americans (99%). The population base is an important factor in developing career aspirations and career expectations. Role models are in place—both ethnically and culturally. In this community, if a school age children aspires to become a doctor, lawyer, bank president, accountant, police officer, etc. there is nearly a 100% certainty that they will see or know of an individual who is “like” them in these roles. Thus, children are socialized to believe that all occupations are within their reach.

Knowing Hispanic females’ occupational aspirations is only one piece of essential information to fully address Hispanic females’ expectations and concerns about achieving career goals. For example, based on the results of the present study, we agree with (Haller et al., 1974) about the need for information on whether or not Hispanic females’ (or Hispanics' in general) responses to the OAS yield a factor structure different than responses by their Anglo peers. And, if Hispanic females aspire toward occupations using different determinants than peers from the majority culture, what are those determinants, why do they use them, and what are the consequences of their use? And, if there is an aspiration-expectation gap as suggested by Constantine, Erickson, Banks, and Timberlake (1998) and Solorzano (1991), we need clarification on reasons for its occurrence. In addition, Bogie (1977) found regional differences in the occupational plans among high school seniors. Does the relative isolation of cities along the Mexican border have an impact on its student populations’ educational and career development? Research is needed to address these issues.

There is also a critical need for research to gain information about perceived and real barriers to Hispanics’ goal attainment, including parental and/or peer influences; cultural traditions, beliefs and attitudes; home and school support systems; attitudes toward ethnic minorities at school and in the work place; opportunity structures; and access to academic and financial resources. Finally, we need research to discover the extent to which acculturation affects Hispanic females’ occupational aspirations and expectations.

**Implications for Practitioners**

We believe that school counselors will need to play leadership roles in helping Hispanic female students investigate various educational and vocational options and develop realistic career plans (Mau, Hitchcock, & Calvert, 1998). The success of Hispanic females’ career development depends on counseling professionals who believe in structuring
pragmatic and culturally relevant career lessons to address factors and issues that hinder their career goal attainment. These efforts could necessitate addressing areas such as (1) offsetting cultural traditions, like parental tendencies to direct resources toward educational attainment of sons rather than daughters in an effort to secure the son’s occupational status (Rosen & Aneshensel, 1978), (2) replacing the “giving up on education” attitude with the belief that education is an underlying key element in occupational attainment and upward mobility (Powers & Wojtkiewicz, 2004), and (3) addressing the issue of job requirements. Hopefully such efforts would motivate Hispanic females to develop and carry out realistic career plans, thus, avoiding disappointments and frustrations resulting from failure to achieve career goals (MacBrayne, 1987).

Wahl and Blackhurst (2000) outline several key areas that effective career guidance programs should use to facilitate students’ career development. The following key elements were adapted from Wahl et al. (2000) and can be incorporated into career counseling programs to assist all students, including Hispanic females. These key elements for counseling programs are ambitious but important. We caution, however, not to construe the list as fixed or exhaustive. Indeed, they should be considered dynamic—ever changing to meet the needs of those being served. Certainly there are other equally valid and important key elements, which could/should be added to the list.

- Identifying and rejecting gender-, race-, culture-, and class-based occupational stereotypes,
- Investigating ways to succeed without rejecting gender, race, culture-based characteristics,
- Reducing fear of failure on the job and distress about lack of technical skills,
- Identifying and correcting disparities between aspirations and abilities; correcting misperception about job requirements versus personal skills level,
- Broadening awareness of career options and investigating potential careers,
- Developing an understanding of the long-term implications of course selection decisions upon entering high school,
- Identifying postsecondary training and education requirements for careers of interest,
- Acquiring concrete, factual information about postsecondary education and training, and
- Providing equivalent time and resources to both college-bound and work-bound students.

To be truly effective with Hispanic females, counseling programs will need to change and include emphasis on college-bound as well as school-to-work options (Van Villas, 1995). In addition, counseling efforts may have to be initiated at elementary school campuses. Even though it may be non-traditional to accept elementary school children’s occupational aspirations as realistic, they must be accepted as possible career choices (Helwig, 1998, 2004; Wahl, & Blackhurst, 2000). As children fantasize about career, they should be introduced to class activities and vocabulary of occupations so they can clarify concepts of training and educational requirements relevant to their job fantasy. Such career training activities across elementary grades will increase the likelihood that Hispanic
females' abilities will match training and educational requirements of occupations to which they aspire.

To add relevancy, Hispanic females should be introduced to female role models who are employed in occupations traditionally held by males. This may be done by the use of career posters depicting female nontraditional workers, reading stories with female characters holding nontraditional jobs, taking field trips to view female workers in nontraditional settings, and establishing a mentoring program for Hispanic female students interested in nontraditional careers (Kenkel & Gage, 1983; Lee & Cramond, 1999).

Furlough’s (1986, p. 375) idea that “increasing numbers of women in positions of authority in this generation will result in more girls aspiring to such positions in the next generation” will be promoted by effective career counseling of Hispanic females. With females in prominent positions, maybe they can restructure the societal perception that female dominated occupations pay less, offer lower prestige, have less autonomy, and offer fewer opportunities for advancement (Marini, 1978; Reskin & Padavic, 1994). Whether or not this vision is realized, however, may well rest on how well counselors develop and implement counseling programs that meet our diversity student population’s needs.

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<th>Occupational Aspiration</th>
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* Error Degrees of freedom = 127
### Table 3
Mean Scores, SD's on Short-Long Range, Realistic-Idealistic, Short-Long Range Realistic, and Short-Long Range Idealistic Occupational Aspirations for Hispanic Females, Grades 7 Through 12

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