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AN ANALYSIS OF STATUS INCONSISTENCY PATTERNS  
AND PLANS FOR ADULT EDUCATION

by

Tsze Hau Chan

A Thesis  
submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies  
through the Department of  
Sociology and Anthropology in Partial Fulfillment  
of the requirements for the Degree  
of Master of Arts at  
The University of Windsor

Windsor, Ontario, Canada

1979

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1979

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dedicated to my family

## ABSTRACT

# AN ANALYSIS OF STATUS INCONSISTENCY PATTERNS AND PLANS FOR ADULT EDUCATION

by

Tsze Hau Chan

This thesis examined the effect status inconsistency had on the individuals' plans for further education. Inconsistents were expected to have plans for adult education different than the consistents. Variations within different degrees of inconsistency and of various demographic characteristics were also expected. Data for this study were collected by the researcher in a previous study for the Windsor Board of Education.

Occupation and education were used for defining the consistents. Respondents whose education level was equivalent to their occupation level were the consistents, otherwise they were the inconsistents.

Two operationalization measures - the objective ranking method and the standard deviation method - were used to define the consistents and the inconsistents. The defined categories were then compared by five different methods and it was found that a full typology should be used in any empirical study on the phenomenon of status inconsistency.

Findings obtained suggest that status inconsistency does affect individuals' plans for adult education but not every inconsistency type reacts to the situation in the similar manner. It was also found that the effect of status inconsistency was related to the degree of inconsistency. Various levels of consistencies were also found to have dissimilar plans for adult education. Even though males were found to be more ambitious than females in general, female high consistencies were found to be more attracted to higher education than the male counterparts. The younger generation was also found to be more affected by overrewarding than the older generation.



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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

#### A. Background

In the summer of 1977, the present researcher conducted a survey for the Windsor Board of Education, Adult Education Division, to study the expectations the general public had towards adult education so that more appropriate programs could be offered. The study was basically marketing research which limited the researcher in being able to give any in-depth discussion on some of the findings. One of the interesting findings observed was that different combinations of occupation and education evoked different plans for further education. In the previous study, this finding was not described let alone analysed in a systematic way by a sociological perspective. This thesis is an attempt to complete that part of the research.

#### B. Statement of the Problem

The theory of status inconsistency has been repeatedly used to differentiate and explain the behavioral and attitudinal difference between various categories of people. Consequently, this approach is applied here to reanalyse the data previously obtained. Rather than describing the various plans made by different status



groups, the central concern of this thesis is to examine the impact status inconsistency has on plans made for adult education. The data will be used to test the theory of status inconsistency. Since adult education was regarded as part of a lifelong education process, it has acquired the same meaning as 'further education'. The two terms are, therefore, interchangeable in this thesis.

### C. An Outline of the Thesis

Empirical research using the status inconsistency perspective has been heavily criticized. For example, the greater part of the research uses the after-the-fact analysis technique which is said to be an inappropriate method. In terms of methodology, methods used by past studies have also been criticized as being inadequate and incorporating built-in distortions. As a consequence, in examining the effect of status inconsistency, other theoretical perspectives and new methods are used in this thesis. These are discussed in the following two chapters and throughout that discussion the theoretical framework of this study is outlined. Chapter Four will delineate the research design of this thesis and the hypotheses derived from the established framework will be formally stated. These hypotheses are to be tested and the findings are presented in chapter Five and Six. Chapter Seven will recapitulate the main

problem and suggestions for future research are recommended.

## CHAPTER II

### THE THEORETICAL LINK BETWEEN STATUS INCONSISTENCY AND PLANS FOR FURTHER EDUCATION

The primary purpose of this thesis is to study the effect status inconsistency has on plans upon further education. In the course of achieving this objective, there are certain features of this thesis that distinguish it from the majority of status inconsistency research. Compared to research that uses the after-the-fact analysis technique, this thesis attempts to establish, beforehand, precise predictions relating status inconsistency to plans for adult education. Furthermore, these predictions are derived from a combination of the theory of status inconsistency, the Status Equilibration Hypothesis, suggestions extracted from empirical findings, and socialization theory. These have to be discussed before establishing the hypotheses and the present chapter is designed for this purpose. In two sections, the present chapter attempts to identify the phenomenon of status inconsistency and how it will affect decisions made on adult education. The first section explains the implications of status inconsistency. Emphasis will be given to defining the term, its effects and the assumptions on which it is based. The second section is on adult education research and emphasis is given to research done

on the motivational aspect of participation, and how this can substantiate the present study.

#### A. Status Inconsistency

##### i) Definitions

A 'status' is a position that a person holds in a social hierarchy and the term 'status inconsistency' refers to the incompatibility between the statuses that a person simultaneously occupies. This concept is based on the presumption of the coexistence of a number of parallel criteria in a society by which the members can be hierarchically differentiated. Because the structure of the human group is multidimensional, "certain units may be consistently high or consistently low while others may combine high standing with respect to certain status variables and low standing with respect to others" (Lenski, 1954:405). Accordingly, status consistents are those occupants whose ranking positions in important status hierarchies are on the same level, whether they are all high or all low. On the other hand, status inconsistency refers to the situation of occupying disparate ranks in different status dimensions. Occupants of these uneven status patterns are defined as the status inconsistent.

The vertical hierarchies that have been most frequently cited by researchers to define status inconsistency are ; income, religion, ethnicity, occupation

and education (Lenski, 1954, 1956; Landecker, 1960; Jackson, 1962; Kelly, 1966; Geschwender, 1968; Baer and others, 1976). For the present study, only education and occupation will be used as the data on which this study is based on do not contain information on other dimensions. Hence, in this study, individuals whose educational rank is equivalent to the occupational rank are the status consistents. On the other hand, individuals holding disparate ranks on these two dimensions are the inconsistent. Following Geschwender (1967, 1968), the inconsistent are further divided into the overrewarded (educational level lower than occupational level) and the underrewarded (educational level higher than occupational level). Such classifications require an operationalization of the meaning of 'equivalent' and 'disparate'.

## ii) The Framework

Theoretically, the phenomenon of status inconsistency should cause behavioral and attitudinal consequences because of the strain and tension created by holding differently evaluated ranks. According to the theory, occupants holding uneven status ranks will experience strain and tension not encountered by consistents in normal social interactions. As the possession of disparate ranks is an unpleasant experience, the inconsistent should follow a course of action designed to equalize their statuses. But instead of lowering the

higher status for equalization, status inconsistency theorists have proposed a tendency of these individuals to raise their lower statuses (Kimberly, 1966, 1967; Malewski, 1966; Geschwender, 1967, 1968). The supposition that occupants holding disparate ranks will raise their lower status to achieve equilibration or the so-called 'Status Equilibration Hypothesis' originally named by Benoit-Smullyan (1944) has been widely discussed and assumed but not frequently tested. Instead, the majority of research studies have been using status inconsistency as an independent variable to explain political liberalism (Lanski, 1954), social isolation (Lanski, 1956), individual unrest and propensity to participate in social movements (Geschwender, 1968), the psychological symptom of stress (Jackson, 1962), self-esteem (Baer and others, 1976) and class consciousness (Landecker, 1960). Even though all of these studies did not put the Status Equilibration Hypothesis to test, their findings have made important insights for the present study. A review of their findings reveals three main points on which this thesis is based. It is also through the discussion of these points that the theoretical framework of the present study is developed.

First of all, their findings suggest that even though holding uneven status ranks is generally stressful, not all forms of status inconsistency will cause the same

kind of strain or tension. Two studies done by Geschwender (1967, 1968) are the best examples for clarifying this point. By defining education as the investment dimension and occupation as the social reward, Geschwender proposed that when compared with the consistents, the underrewarded (high education-low occupation) had a higher likelihood of individual unrest and propensity to participate in social movements. The overrewarded (low education-high occupation), on the other hand, would not differ from the consistents on these two issues. The difference in response between the over and the underrewarded, Geschwender concluded, exemplified the dissimilar experience that these two types of people were having. He suggested that the overrewarded were feeling guilty for having an occupation not commensurate with their education level. But since the injustice was to their benefit, they wanted to preserve the existing system - the one they could gain the most from. When this attitude was expressed in political ideology, they tended to be the moderate reformists. On the other hand, the underrewarded were frustrated by the existing system - they could not gain their expected reward. According to Geschwender, these people would feel angry instead of guilty. Consequently, they wanted a more radical change of the society.

His findings suggested that this researcher should divide the inconsistencies into the overrewarded and

the underrewarded ; they should be examined separately. It was also at this point that the theoretical framework of this thesis departed from other research.

Different from Geschwender's and all the studies cited, the present research attempts to apply the Status Equilibration Hypothesis to predict the behavior of the overrewarded. Also what is different from past research, which always assumed that educational status was not changeable, was the core assumption that educational mobility could be attained through further education. It is because of this assumption that the Status Equilibration hypothesis becomes testable, for the theory of status inconsistency states that occupying disparate ranks is an experience of stress. The Status Equilibration Hypothesis adds that because of the strain involved, the occupants will raise their lower status to achieve status equilibration. That is to say, it is because of a specific kind of strain that the overrewarded individuals will raise their educational status and, according to Geschwender, this kind of strain should be different from that experienced by the underrewarded. Instead of the feeling of guilt as suggested by Geschwender, the present study assumes a feeling of insecurity as the kind of strain experienced by the overrewarded individuals. The assumption is based upon the theory of socialization. Through socialization, an individual learns that education



is a major determinant of occupation, or in Geschwender's terms, education is the investment dimension and occupation is the social reward. It is also through socialization that an individual learns the proper relation between these dimensions. If an individual is overly rewarded or the amount of education he attains is less than what it should be for that occupation role, he will feel his position is vulnerable to external factors. He feels that he does not have the required qualifications to support his status. This is a feeling of insecurity. This feeling of insecurity occurs especially when he compares himself with those co-workers who have the proper level of investment. Lacking this, he feels that he is more liable to be demoted or even to become unemployed. In order to obtain security, he must increase his level of education. To occupy certain occupations without a comparable level of education will therefore create a feeling of insecurity which in turn may drive these individuals to be more attracted to adult education than the consistent.

For the underrewarded, as the data contain no information on occupational mobility, the Status Equilibration Hypothesis therefore cannot be applied. An alternative assumption is suggested instead. Similar to the overrewarded, the underrewarded individuals have also been socialized to expect a certain level of reward for the amount of investment they put in. As the return

falls short of the expectation, they experience disappointment instead of insecurity which in turn drives them to be less interested in increasing their investment. They have been disappointed by education and will be less attracted to it than the consistents. The assumption of insecurity and disappointment therefore differentiates the kind of strain experienced by the over and under-rewarded and consequently their plans for adult education.

The second point suggested by reviewing past studies - which is crucial for the present research - is the finding of a positive relationship between the strain experienced and the degree of inconsistency. By classifying the inconsistent into the moderate and the extreme levels, Jackson(1962) found that the symptom of stress was higher in the extreme level than in the moderate level. The difference in responses due to the extent of inconsistency, therefore, will be another point that the present research looks into. The extremely overrewarded are expected to be even more attracted to adult education than the moderates. By the same token, the extremely underrewarded will be even less attracted to further education than the moderates.

Thirdly and in the same study, Jackson found that the younger generation was less sensitive to under-rewarding than the older generation. His finding caused the present study to look at the effect of demographic

characteristics - how they will affect the effect of status inconsistency. For example, if female status is still largely considered to be submissive, females will be more affected by overrewarding but less affected by underrewarding than males. Work experience, another form of investment presumably measured by age, is expected to bring a more threatening experience to the younger generation when overrewarded. Finally, a married person is often considered to be less likely to shift jobs and so the married are expected to be less affected by overrewarding than the singles.

To sum up, the theoretical framework of this thesis is a combination of inconsistency theory, the Status Equilibration Hypothesis, suggestions extracted from empirical findings and socialization theory. By defining education as the investment dimension and occupation the social reward, this thesis attempts to compare the decisions made on adult education between the consistent (educational level equals occupational level) and the inconsistent (educational level not equals to occupational level). The assumption of educational mobility creates a direct confrontation with the Status Equilibration Hypothesis. Assuming the feeling of insecurity, the overrewarded will attempt to achieve status equalization. The overrewarded are therefore expected to be more attracted to adult education than the

consistents. On the other hand, the underrewarded are assumed to have been disappointed by education and consequently are expected to be less attracted to adult education. Furthermore, the extent of inconsistency is expected to be positively related with the unpleasant feeling involved. Finally, certain demographic variables are also expected to have an influence on the phenomenon of status inconsistency.

#### B. Adult Education Research

Compared to most adult education research, the present study is not proposing a general theory of participation or educational activities, but is using them as the dependent variables. Different motives towards adult education are assumed to be generated from the various forms of status inconsistency and plans for adult education are the indicators for testing the predictions. Nevertheless, valuable insights can be learned from the research done by adult educators on the motivational aspects of participation.

##### i) Insights from Adult Education Research

Few areas of adult education have received as much attention as the general area of participation.

Among the participation research, emphasis has been given to the motivational aspect or the concern of why adults engage in educational activities. Clientele analysis,

a term used by Knox(1965) to describe that research which only compares the demographic characteristics between the participants and the non-participants has been heavily discredited. Instead, most of the research has tried to understand the underlying motivational force accompanying these characteristics. This type of research can be called the 'life experience' approach as their main concern is to examine how certain demographic and social variables may interfere with the decisions made on further education. They hold the assumption that participation is an interaction between the individual and his environment and that some life experience will promote a "new appreciation and desire for education"(London, 1970:145). That is to say, individuals become ready to learn when they experience the need to learn. On the other hand, there are also life experience which may inhibit or divert one's interest away from education. Knox and Videbeck(1963) had successfully demonstrated how various status configurations would exhibit dissimilar propensities to participation. London(1970) in explaining the effect of formal education has on further education, suggested that it is the impression one has from past educational experience and the occupation one gets after graduation that determine the participation plans. Lower class people are less likely to join adult education simply because neither their education background nor

the occupation they occupy create such an incentive. Their life experience nurtures a negative attitude towards further schooling. Higher class individuals, on the other hand, have been found to be more likely to participate (London, 1970), more likely to select institutions of higher learning like universities and colleges (Dickinson, 1971) and that motivational factors associated with participation are primarily socially based (Douglass and Moss, 1968).

From the discussion above, two points are relevant to the present study. First of all, status inconsistency can be seen as a life experience and like any other life experience, it can stimulate (in case of the overrewarded) or divert the interest away (in case of the underrewarded) from adult education. Secondly, the dissimilar attitudes and behaviors among various social classes demonstrated calls for a methodology which can differentiate the various levels of consistents. Even though the criteria for defining social class vary among the cited studies and all of them are sophisticated in using more than merely education and occupation, they have nevertheless provided the base for the present study to predict the behaviors and attitudes of various levels of consistents.

Besides this 'life experience' approach, some writers have been trying to explain the phenomenon of participation at a more general level. One of the most

commonly used model is the Satisfaction Model which, in fact, is an expanded version of the present theoretical framework. The model assumes that all people have some needs they must satisfy. In ~~this~~ light, adults "tend to be attracted toward and feel involved in activities which they see as having good chances of satisfying their needs; and they tend not to be attracted and not to feel involved in activities which they see as having a poor chance of satisfying their needs"(Douglass, 1970:92). This Satisfaction Model has only been theoretically discussed in adult education literature and empirical testing of this theory is rare. Boshier(1973) came close to use this model but he examined the dropout phenomenon instead of participation. In this study, the Satisfaction Model can be used to further buttress the theoretical framework. Overrewarding may cause an unpleasant life experience of insecurity. Consequently, a need for security may be possible only through more education. The overrewarded, therefore, should tend to be attracted toward adult education. Underrewarding on the other hand, is an experience of disappointment. As the occupants have been let down by education, they may think that further education will not satisfy their need of occupational mobility. According to the Satisfaction principle, they should be less attracted to adult education. With the notion of life experience and

particularly the Satisfaction Model, the theoretical framework of the present study is complete.

## ii) The Dependent Variables

Enrollment (either past or current), choice of courses, choice of institution and reasons given for participation are the most oftenly studied areas (Knox and Videbeck, 1963; London 1963, 1970; Douglass and Moss, 1968; Douglass, 1970; Boshier, 1971, 1973; Burgess, 1971; Dickinson, 1971; Dickinson and Clark, 1975) in adult education research. All four of them are included in the present study as the indicators of the respondents' plans for adult education. Since the main focus of the thesis is on the effect of status inconsistency and not on participation, instead of concentrating solely on the participants, occupants of various status profiles are to be compared in terms of their intended participation plans, their intended choice of institution, their intended choice of courses and their perceived reasons for participation. More specifically, in terms of participation plans, a higher portion of the overrewarded is expected to be enrolling than the consistent. Comparatively more of them than the consistent are also expected to be interested in the institutions of higher learning and academic courses as these are the avenues to achieve mobility. Finally, a higher proportion of them is expected to be economically-motivated than the



consistents. On the other hand, disappointed by education, the underrewarded are expected to be less attracted to adult education. A smaller proportion of them than the consistents should be interested in institutions of higher learning and academic courses. Finally, as they have lost their confidence on education, more of them will consider that education is for social purposes. In this light, the predictions made on the overrewarded are the inverse of those made on the underrewarded. Furthermore, the predicted tendencies will be more obvious in the extreme level than in the moderate levels.

### CHAPTER III

#### A NOTE ON METHODOLOGY

Studies in status inconsistency have commonly agreed that the theory is useful in analysing the behavioral and attitudinal difference between various categories of individuals. No such consensus, however, has been reached in the methodological aspect of the concept. Beyond the point that the effect of status inconsistency can be observed by comparing the responses made between the consistent and the inconsistent, disagreements and criticism arise. The thrust of the criticisms lies in two major areas : the quantitative definition of status inconsistency and, secondly, the statistical errors that may distort the observed findings. Each of the issues becomes a major section in this chapter. It is also in this chapter that the method used to quantitatively define the 'consistent', 'inconsistent', 'overrewarded' and the 'underrewarded' is outlined.

#### A. Quantitative Measure

Traditionally, there have been two approaches to quantitatively define the consistent and the inconsistent. One approach was originated by Lenski (1954) and the other one was from Jackson's study on the symptoms of stress (1962).

In an article entitled "Status Crystallization : A Non-Vertical Dimension of Social Status"(1954), Lenski supplemented the theory of status inconsistency with a methodology that no one had used before. In that article, he assigned scores for each of the various positions in each of the four hierarchies that he cited, namely, income, ethnicity, occupation and education. Having obtained comparable scores for the four hierarchies, he then computed the consistency score of each respondent by taking "the square root of the sum of the squared deviations from the mean of the four hierarchy scores of the individual and subtracting the resulting figure from one hundred"(Lenski, 1954:407-408). Those respondents with crystallization scores of 53 or more were defined as the consistent and those with scores of 52 or less were defined as the inconsistent. Some researchers followed his method with different cutting-points(Landecker, 1960; Kelly, 1966) but others criticized this method of being too mechanical(Meyer and Phillip, 1971; Nelson, 1973).Nelson(1973) claimed that his cutting point was too arbitrarily chosen and it did not take into consideration the interrelationships between the status dimensions. Nelson favoured Jackson's approach instead. According to the study done by Jackson(1962), only three basic hierarchies were used and the income dimensions was excluded. Each of the dimensions was then divided into three ranks.

More specifically, education was divided into beyond high school, high school graduation and less than high school. Occupation was also divided into professionals and the business executives, clerical and skilled workers and finally, the unskilled and domestic workers. Ethnic background was divided into Old English, the North Western Europeans and colored. According to the information collected, each respondent was then assigned a rank in each of the dimensions and status inconsistency was defined by the discrepancy between ranks. Those with all like ranks(1-1-1,2-2-2,3-3-3) were the consistent, those with two like ranks(1-1-2) and no like ranks(1-2-3) were the moderate inconsistent and, finally, those with two deviant ranks(1-1-3) were the sharply inconsistent. Geschwender(1968) and Baer and others(1976) followed his method and so does the present research.

In the present study, ethnicity is not included. Jackson's(1962) classification will be applied to the other two dimensions. The consistent are therefore those respondents who have similar ranks(1-1,2-2,3-3) and the inconsistent are those who have uneven ranks. The moderately overrewarded are those respondents whose occupational level is one rank above their educational level and the extremely overrewarded are those with two ranks above. The same principle is applied to the under-rewarded. Those respondents with educational level one

rank above their occupational level are the moderately underrewarded, those with two ranks above are the extremely underrewarded. Besides Jackson's method, the present study also proposes a new approach which can avoid the criticism raised by Doriean and Stockman(1969) of assuming a fixed number of ranks in both dimensions. This new method is non-conventional and involves computing the standard deviations between education and occupation before trichotomizing them. Those respondents whose educational level is within one standard deviation from their occupational level are to be defined as the consistents and if educational level is between one to two standard deviations above their occupational level, these occupants are to be defined as the moderately underrewarded. Beyond two standard deviations will be those extremely underrewarded. The same principle is applied to define the overrewarded. In this way, the cut-off point is purely determined by the sample collected instead of being preimposed. The two methods will be used in parallel and the results will be compared.

#### B. Statistical Errors

As have been mentioned, if status inconsistency contributes to the plans made upon adult education, one should be able to observe this by comparing the responses made by the consistents with the inconsistentents. There

are at least two ways to make the comparison and the present study adds a third way of its own. The first way of comparison, as employed by Lenski(1956), is to compare the responses made between the consistents with the inconsistent as two discrete groups. That is to say, all levels of consistents are combined as one category and all types of inconsistent are combined as another one. This method of comparison has been heavily criticized by theorists and statisticians as unsatisfactory since the observed finding cannot differentiate the responses made by the various inconsistent profiles. The obtained result may also be merely a product of overrepresentation of certain status profiles(Mitchell, 1964; Blalock, 1966a, 1966b, 1967; Hyman, 1966). The second way of comparison differentiates the inconsistent into more refined categories. Under this method, there are two variations. Jackson(1962) divided the respondents into the moderates and the extremes, and Geschwender(1968), besides following Jackson, also divided the respondents into the overrewarded, the underrewarded, the investment inconsistent and the reward inconsistent. As Jackson employed more than two hierarchies, the observed results can still be obscured by a specific combination of any two dimensions. As for Geschwender's method, he did not differentiate the moderately overrewarded from the extremely overrewarded.

which would mean omitting some specifications that might occur between various degrees of inconsistency. Furthermore, all the methods mentioned above share a common denominator of combining all levels of consistents as one category which has been heavily criticized by Jackson and Curtis(1972) for neglecting the specifications of various levels of consistents. Combining all of them together as one category grosses over the specific influence of various levels of consistents and makes any comparison between them and the inconsistent inappropriate.

For the present study, three methods of comparison are used. Following the first method, the respondents are divided into two concrete groups of consistents and inconsistent. Following Geschwender, the second method will have the inconsistent divided into the overrewarded and the underrewarded. The third method is a full typology of all status combinations derived from the two dimensions and comparison are to be made between a specific level of consistents with the appropriate inconsistent (for example, the high consistents are to be compared with the high education moderately underrewarded and the extremely underrewarded). This method will be able to capture the differences occurring due to the degree of inconsistency and of various levels of consistents. This third method, in fact, is suitable not only for controlling the ranking effect but will also be able to serve the various theoretical

requirements.

Besides the possible statistical errors that method 1 and method 2 have, Blalock(1966a,1966b,1967) also suggested the importance of controlling for demographic variables. He suggested that without controlling on extraneous variables, the observed findings might not have resulted from status inconsistency as such but from those uncontrolled variables instead. In fact, the theoretical framework of this thesis also calls for exploring the effect of status inconsistency within certain demographic groups. Demographic variables such as sex, age and marital status are introduced, therefore.

#### Summary

In summary, the main objective of this thesis is to study the effect of status inconsistency. In order to achieve this objective, theories and suggestions extracted from studies not only from those of the status inconsistency perspective but also from other areas are used to predict the responses made by the various types of inconsistencies in terms of their intended participation plans, their choice of institution, their intended choice of courses and the perceived reasons for participation. Occupying dissimilar rankings is a stressful life experience and depending on the kind of stress involved, it can stimulate or intimidate a specific interest or attitude towards adult education. Being



overly rewarded nurtures the need for security which can be assuaged through equalizing the statuses. Accordingly, the overrewarded will intend to raise their educational status, the one which is evaluated as lower. Assuming that educational mobility is possible through adult education, the effect of overrewarding is therefore expected to induce more of these individuals to enrol in adult education, to select institutions of higher learning, to prefer academic courses and to be more economically motivated towards adult education than the consistent. Being underrewarded is the type of experience that nurtures disappointment instead of insecurity. As education has already failed them, these people do not believe that further education will bring occupational mobility. Accordingly, the effect of underrewarding is expected to cause the reverse of what has been suggested for the overrewarded on all the indicators. The degree of inconsistency is also expected to be proportional. Furthermore, by assuming that the female status is more submissive, age is a measure of work experience, and being married is an asset for promotion, these demographic variables are expected to have an effect upon the phenomenon of status inconsistency.

In order to accomplish what the theoretical framework proposes and at the same time to avoid methodological errors, various methods will be used to examine

the effect of status inconsistency. Following Jackson's classification, this study will impose three ranks on each dimension. In order to avoid assuming a fixed number of ranks, the standard deviation method will be used also. The consistent and the inconsistent as defined by each of these two approaches will be compared as two concrete groups, as three groups (consistent, overrewarded and underrewarded) and as nine groups (a full typology).

## CHAPTER IV

### THE RESEARCH DESIGN

This study is designed to explore how various status profiles, derived from the educational and occupational hierarchies, could affect the occupant's motivation and plans for adult education. In their attempt to reduce tension, individuals occupying irregular patterns of rank should reveal a tendency to plan their educational activities differently than those that are consistent. Variations within the types of inconsistent and consistent are also expected.

#### A. Hypotheses

The propositions to be tested with the use of multivariate analysis are as follows :

I. Status inconsistent will differ in their plans and motivations for adult education from the consistent so that

- a) individuals with an occupational level higher than their educational level (the overrewarded) will
  - i) be more likely to enrol in adult education,
  - ii) be more likely to attend institutions of higher learning (college and university),
  - iii) be more likely to select academic courses,
  - iv) be more likely to consider adult education for economic purposes.

- b) individuals with an educational level higher than their occupational level (the underrewarded) will
  - i) be less likely to enrol in adult education,
  - ii) be less likely to attend institutions of higher learning (college and university),

- iii) be less likely to select academic courses,
- iv) be more likely to consider adult education for social purposes.

II. There will be a within-group difference, so that

- a) when compared with the consistents of other levels, the high consistents will
  - i) be more likely to enrol in adult education,
  - ii) be more likely to attend institutions of higher level,
  - iii) be more likely to take academic courses,
  - iv) be more likely to conceive adult education for social purposes.
- b) when compared with the overrewarded of a moderate degree, the extremely overrewarded will be motivated and have their educational activities planned differently than the moderately overrewarded in the same manner as delineated in I(a).
- c) when compared with the underrewarded of a moderate degree, the extremely underrewarded will be motivated and have their educational activities planned differently than the moderately underrewarded in the same manner as hypothesized in I(b).

III. When sex, age and marital status are introduced as control variables,

- a) females will be more affected by overrewarding and less affected by underrewarding than males.
- b) the younger generation will be more affected by overrewarding and less affected by underrewarding than the older generation.
- c) the singles will be more affected by overrewarding and less affected by underrewarding than the married.

#### B. Sample

This study is a secondary analysis of the data from a survey originally collected in the summer of

1977 for the Board of Education, City of Windsor by the present researcher and six other co-workers most of whom were high school students. The team conducted structured interviews in a number of major sites in the city of Windsor, including shopping malls, plazas and downtown areas. All respondents were over 15 years of age and were Windsor residents. A total of 1856 cases were collected. It was an accidental sample and bias was expected.

Table 1 presents the demographic characteristics of the collected sample accompanied by the city of Windsor census tract for 1971. The research has a larger representation of the younger generation, females, singles as well as the higher educational and occupational group. Tables 2 and 3 give the frequency distributions of both education and occupation within each age category of the research sample. Due to differences in categorization, a comparable table of the Windsor population was not obtained.

The questionnaires were designed by the present researcher in consultation with the Director of the Adult Education Division of the Windsor Board of Education. Besides the major demographic variables, excepting income and race, the respondents were also asked to indicate whether they were planning to enrol in the programs offered by several agencies in the following September, what institution and what courses they would be taking,

Table 1. COMPARISON OF SAMPLE AND THE GENERAL POPULATION \*

	Windsor Census Tract	Research Sample
<u>Sex</u>		
Male	49.1%(90,000)	32.6%(602)
Female	50.9%(93,140)	67.3%(1243)
Total	100.0(183,135)	100.0(1845)
<u>Age</u>		
15 - 29	36.1%(66,145)	54.5%(1001) #
30 - 64	50.6%(92,705)	39.2%(721)
65 and up	13.2%(24,205)	6.5% (116)
Total	100.0(183,055)	100.0(1840)
<u>Marital Status</u>		
Single	25.1%(45,980)	38.7%(714)
Married	66.6%(120,950)	52.0%(958)
Other	7.2% (13,285)	9.3% (171)
Total	100.0(183,140)	100.0(1843)
<u>Education</u>		
Under Grade 12	63.7%(116,780)	26.6%(486)
Grade 12 - 13	25.5%(46,430)	33.1%(603)
Beyond High School	11.8%(19,870)	40.4%(704)
Total	100.0(183,135)	100.0(1829)

Table 1 (cont'd)

<u>Occupation</u>		
Professionals & Executives	9.5% (10,013)	13.0%(163)
Semi-Professionals, Clerical & Skilled Workers	39.4%(41,530)	52.8%(661)
Unskilled & Houseworkers	51.1%(53,762)	34.1%(436)
Total	100.0(105,405)	100.0(1260)
<u>Male</u>		
Professionals & Executives	12.4%(8960)	28.3%(113)
Semi-Professionals, Clerical, Skilled Workers	25.2%(17,521)	57.6%(230)
Unskilled & Houseworkers	62.3%(43,314)	14.0%(56)
Total	100.0(69,525)	100.0(399)
<u>Female</u>		
Professionals & Executives	3.7% (1328)	5.9% (50)
Semi-Professionals, Clerical, Skilled Workers	66.3%(23,783)	50.5%(428)
Unskilled & Houseworkers	29.9%(10,764)	43.6%(370)
Total	100.0(35,830)	100.0(848)

Table 1 (cont'd)

Male

Under Grade 12	63.4%(57,060)	24.2%(289)
Grade 12 - 13	22.7%(20,465)	27.3%(163)
Beyond High School	13.8%(12,475)	43.5%(144)
Total	100.0(90,000)	100.0(596)

Female

Under Grade 12	64.1%(59,724)	27.9%(447)
Grade 12 - 13	27.9%(26,020)	35.7%(439)
Beyond High School	7.9%(7400)	36.4%(342)
Total	100.0(93,145)	100.0(1223)

- \* Census of Canada, 1971 Vol I(part 2), table 5  
 Census of Canada, 1971 Vol I(part 4), table 3  
 Census of Canada, 1971 Vol III(part 3), table 6  
 Census of Canada, Advance Bulletin, January, 1975

# for the research sample age was divided into under 30,  
 31 - 65 and over 65



Table 2 DISTRIBUTION OF AGE AND EDUCATION

<u>Education</u>	<u>Age</u>		
	Under 30	31 - 65	65 and up
Beyond High School	41.2% (408)	41.1% (293)	26.8% (30)
Grade 12 - 13	36.4 (361)	31.1 (222)	16.1 (18)
Less than 12	22.4 (222)	27.8 (713)	57.1 (64)
Total	100.0 (991)	100.0 (713)	100.0 (112)

$\chi^2$   
 $X : 65.45$   
 $p < .001$

Table 3 DISTRIBUTION OF AGE AND OCCUPATION

<u>Occupation</u>	<u>Age</u>		
	Under 30	31 - 65	65 and up
Professionals & Executives	12.0% (71)	13.6% (85)	24.0% (6)
Semi-Professionals, Clerical, Skilled Workers	53.3 (348)	47.1 (295)	56.0 (14)
Unskilled & Houseworkers	20.2 (173)	39.3 (246)	20.0 (5)
Total	100.0 (592)	100.0 (626)	100.0 (25)

$\chi^2$   
 $X : 21.35$   
 $p < .001$

and their reasons for participating. A copy of the questionnaire is attached as appendix I.

### C. Operational Definitions

#### i) Status Inconsistency

The statuses of respondents were defined in educational and occupational terms. The causal correlation of education to occupation was found to be .23 as presented in table 4. Each dimension was classified into three ranks.

Table 4 RELATIONSHIP OF EDUCATION AND OCCUPATION

<u>Education</u>	<u>Occupation</u>			
	Upper	Middle	Low	Total
Upper	20.0% (114)	60.8% (347)	19.3% (110)	100.0% (571)
Middle	7.4 (50)	50.4 (204)	42.2 (171)	100.0 (405)
Low	6.7 (18)	40.1 (107)	53.2 (142)	100.0 (267)

Tau B : .28  
p < .001

For the occupational hierarchy : Rank 1 - professionals, business managers and farmers, Rank 2 - semi-professionals, clerical and skilled workers, Rank 3 - unskilled workers and the houseworkers; for the educational hierarchy : Rank 1 - beyond high school

education, Rank 2 - high school attainment of grade 12 - 13, Rank 3 - less than grade 12 education. The classification approximates what Jackson employed (Jackson, 1962).

Two different techniques to operationalize the definition of status inconsistency-consistency were originally pursued by the research. By the first method, respondents were defined as status consistent if their objective ranks on the two dimensions were the same, or else, they were defined as status inconsistent. The second method was to substitute the arbitrarily designated deviant rank by the standard deviation measure. The standard deviation between education and occupation of the total sample was obtained and those respondents whose occupation was one standard deviation or greater from the level of education were defined as status inconsistent. The standard deviation score was 1.077 which approximated to one rank difference as in the first technique. That is to say, those individuals whose occupational level is one standard deviation away is approximately one rank away from their educational level as in the objective ranking method. In this light, the two techniques can be seen as one and, therefore, a separate discussion was not pursued. Due to the nature of the operationalization of the concept, the unemployed, students and the retired were excluded and this came to a total of 606 cases.

## ii) Plans for Adult Education

Adult education was confined to the lecture situation where lessons were conducted by the physical presence of an instructor. Self-study and correspondence courses were not included. The plans each respondent had consisted of four components, the intention upon enrolling, the institution preferred, courses preferred and reasons given for participation. Intention upon enrolling recorded were classified into 'yes', 'no' and the 'undecided'.

Out of the total of 1856 cases, 29.4% responded with a positive answer. Table 5 presents the frequency distributions of all four indicators of the collected sample.

All respondents were classified by the institution they preferred : Board of Education, St. Clair College (community college), the University of Windsor (university) and Other Agencies which included the YM/YWCA, Manpower Centre, and Parks and Recreation. The courses listed in the questionnaire were classified into academic courses, general interest courses and skill courses. The reasons given by the respondents were divided into two categories : those who were socially-motivated and those who were economically-motivated. The first type included those who responded with answers like meeting people, for a hobby or for personal interest. The second type included such responses as for a diploma or for upgrading.

Table 5 PLANS FOR ADULT EDUCATION

Participation Plans(1977)

Yes	29.4%(533)
No	54.5(988)
Undecided	15.1(291)
Total	100.0(1812)

Institutions Preferred

Board of Education	22.6%(305)
St. Clair College	38.1(513)
University of Windsor	28.8(389)
Other Agencies	10.5(142)
Total	100.0(1349)

Courses Preferred

Academic	59.9%(855)
General Interest	23.6(338)
Skill	16.3(234)
Total	100.0(1427)

Motivations

Economic	48.4%(571)
Social	51.5(608)
Total	100.0(1179)

### iii) Sex, Age and Marital Status

Control variables were employed not only as a means to minimize the ecological problem, but also to explore the type of people who would be affected most by status inconsistency. ~~He~~ was categorised into : under 30, 31 - 65 and over 65. Marital status was divided into single, married and other which included the separated, the divorced, the single parents and the widowed.

Crosstabulations between the control variables and each of the dependent variables were obtained and are presented in appendix II. Only some general observations are to be noted here. Being a male or female, as has been found in other research, did not differentiate one's propensity to participate, nor did it affect one's preference for courses. Females were more likely, however, to select the Board of Education as the preferred institution but were less likely to select university as their choice. Females were also found to be more socially-motivated than males. Consistent with past findings, age correlated negatively with the participation rate. The younger generation (under 30) was also found to be more motivated by non-social reasons. Those who were over 30 were less likely to choose university as their preference and chose non-academic courses more than the younger generation. Compared with groups of other marital statuses, the singles were found to be more ready to.

enrol, to take courses from the university, to have academic courses and were more economically motivated.

The independent effect each of the basic component statuses has on the dependent variable must also be understood. Level of education was found to be the most influential factor in determining one's plans for adult education. The propensity to enrol in adult education was found to be significantly determined by the level of education, as can be observed in table 6. By comparing different educational groups, those who had beyond high school education were also more likely to choose university as their selected institution while those who had high school or less education were more likely to choose St. Clair college. The Board of Education was more preferred by the less than grade 12 educational group than any other (table 7). This finding supports those findings which state that individuals will be selecting the institution that approximates their level of education. As far as the motivational aspect is concerned, the higher educated group was significantly less motivated by economic reasons (table 9).

Level of occupation, however, could not provide such a clear-cut effect on plans for adult education as years of schooling did. The correlation between occupation and the intention upon enrolling was a curvilinear one. Even though the table is not significant at the .05

Table 6 EDUCATION AND PARTICIPATION PLANS

<u>Education</u>	<u>Participation Plans</u>			
	Yes	No	Unded.	Total
Beyond High School	57.9% (279)	46.7% (344)	15.4% (113)	100.0% (736)
Grade 12 - 13	26.9 (160)	56.1 (334)	17.0 (101)	100.0 (595)
Less than 12	19.1 (89)	64.9 (303)	16.1 (75)	100.0 (467)

<sup>2</sup>  
X : 54.6  
p < .001

Table 7 EDUCATION AND INSTITUTIONS PREFERRED

<u>Education</u>	<u>Institution Preferred</u>				
	Board of Education	College	Univer- sity	Other Agens.	Tot.
Beyond High School	17.4%	30.7%	44.1%	7.8%	100.0%
Grade 12 - 13	23.7 (108)	43.2 (197)	22.8 (104)	10.3 (47)	100.0 (456)
Less than 12	29.9 (96)	44.2 (142)	10.6 (34)	15.3 (49)	100.0 (321)

<sup>2</sup>  
X : 128.61  
p < .001



Table 8 EDUCATION AND COURSES PREFERRED

<u>Education</u>	<u>Courses Preferred</u>			
	Academic	Interest	Skill	Total
Beyond High School	62.1% (370)	23.8% (142)	14.1% (84)	100.0% (596)
Grade 12 - 13	60.2 (283)	23.0 (108)	16.8 (79)	100.0 (470)
Less than 12	55.5 (193)	24.4 (85)	20.1 (70)	100.0 (348)

<sup>2</sup>  
X : 6.69  
N.S.

Table 9 EDUCATION AND MOTIVATIONS TOWARDS ADULT EDUCATION

<u>Education</u>	<u>Motivations</u>		
	Economic	Social	Total
Beyond High School	44.8% (230)	55.2% (283)	100.0% (513)
Grade 12 - 13	47.6 (181)	52.4 (199)	100.0 (380)
Less than 12	57.9 (158)	42.1 (115)	100.0 (273)

<sup>2</sup>  
X : 12.43  
p < .005

level, the middle rank occupants were more interested in enrolling than any other occupational group(table 10). By comparing the various occupational groups, the middle and upper categories were found to be more interested in university education while for the lower occupational group, it was the Board of Education that they preferred. St. Clair college, on the other hand, was more favoured by the middle and lower levels(table 11). Academic courses attracted the middle and upper professions more than the lower ones(table 12). A curvelinear correlation was found between occupational hierarchy and motivation with the middle and upper groups more motivated by economic reasons(table 13).

#### D. Statistical Method

If status inconsistency contributes to the variations in plans for adult education, one should be able to observe this by comparing the consistent with the inconsistent. The impact of status inconsistency was measured by percentage difference observed between categories. Three different methods were employed in this study so that all the hypotheses could be effectively tested. All of them are delineated in diagram 1. The first method combined the consistently high with the consistently middle and low into one category of 'consistents' and they were compared with the category

Table 10 OCCUPATION AND PARTICIPATION

<u>Occupations</u>	<u>Participation Plans</u>			
	Yes	No	Undec.	Total
Professionals & Executives	25.2% (39)	54.8% (85)	20.0% (31)	100.0% (155)
Semi-Professionals, Clerical, Skilled Workers	31.0 (203)	52.3 (342)	16.7 (109)	100.0 (654)
Unskilled & Houseworkers	24.3 (102)	56.7 (238)	19.0 (80)	100.0 (420)

2  
X : 6.48  
N.S.

Table 11 OCCUPATION AND INSTITUTIONS PREFERRED

<u>Institutions</u>	<u>Occupations</u>		
	Prof. & Executives	Semi-Prof. Clerical Skilled	Unskilled Houseworkers
Board of Education	19.0% (22)	19.4% (95)	29.6 (89)
College	34.5 (40)	40.0 (196)	41.9 (126)
University	36.2 (42)	33.5 (164)	17.9 (54)
Others Agens.	10.3 (12)	7.1 (35)	10.6 (32)
Total	100.0 (116)	100.0 (490)	100.0 (301)

2  
X : 31.81  
p < .001

Table 12 OCCUPATION AND COURSES PREFERRED

<u>Occupations</u>	<u>Courses Preferred</u>			Total
	Academic	Interest	Skill	
Professionals & Executives	61.7% (79)	18.8% (24)	19.5% (25)	100.0% (128)
Semi-Professionals, Clerical, Skilled Workers	60.9 (321)	24.5 (128)	14.8 (78)	100.0 (527)
Unskilled & Houseworkers	52.1 (174)	24.9 (85)	23.1 (77)	100.0 (334)

$\chi^2$   
X : 12.45  
p .015

Table 13 OCCUPATION AND MOTIVATIONS TOWARDS ADULT EDUCATION

Occupations	<u>Motivations</u>		Total
	Economic	Social	
Professionals & Executives	45.5% (46)	54.5% (55)	100.0% (101)
Semi-Professionals, Clerical, Skilled Workers	48.0 (204)	52.0 (221)	100.0 (425)
Unskilled & Houseworkers	37.2 (96)	62.8 (182)	100.0 (258)

$\chi^2$   
X : 7.67  
p .022

## Diagram 1 : THE THREE METHODS AND THEIR COMPONENTS

## Method 1

## Titles

## Consistents

## Components

All levels of consistents  
(education equals occupation);

High Consistents(high education-high occupation)

Middle Consistents(middle education-middle occupation)

Low Consistents(low education-low occupation)

## Inconsistentents

All types of inconsistentents  
(education not equals to occupation) ;

Moderately Underrewarded High Education Group(high education-middle occupation)

Extremely Underrewarded Group  
(high education-low occupation)

Moderately Underrewarded Middle Education Group(middle education-low occupation)

Moderately Overrewarded Low Education Group(low education-middle occupation).

Extremely Overrewarded Group  
(low education-high occupation)

Moderately Overrewarded Middle Education Group(middle education-high occupation)

## Diagram 1 (cont'd)

## Method 2

## Titles

## Components

## Consistents

All levels of consistents  
(same as method 1)

## Overrewarded

All types of Overrewarded  
(education lower than occupation) ;

Moderately Overrewarded Middle  
Education Group(middle education-high occupation)

Moderately Overrewarded Low  
Education Group(low education-middle occupation)

Extremely Overrewarded Group  
(low education-high occupation)

## Underrewarded

All types of Underrewarded  
(education higher than occupation) ;

Moderately Underrewarded High  
Education Group(high education-middle occupation)

Extremely Underrewarded Group  
(high education-low occupation)

Moderately Underrewarded Middle  
Education Group(middle education-low occupation)

## Diagram 1 (cont'd)

## Method 3

Titles	Components
High Consistents	High education-High occupation
Moderately Underrewarded High Education Type	High education-Middle occupation
Extremely Underrewarded Type	High education-Low occupation
Middle Consistents	Middle education-Middle occupation
Moderately Overrewarded Middle Education Type	Middle education-High occupation
Moderately Underrewarded Middle Education Type	Middle education-Low occupation
Low Consistents	Low education-Low occupation
Moderately Overrewarded Low Education Type	Low education-Middle occupation
Extremely Overrewarded Type	Low education-High occupation

of 'inconsistents' where inconsistencies of all profiles were also combined. Without differentiating various levels of consistents nor the forms of status inconsistency, this method was only used for testing the general proposition of hypothesis I but not for I(a), I(b) or hypotheses II and III. The second method used retained the indivisible category of the truly 'consistents' but the inconsistencies were divided into the 'overrewarded' and the 'underrewarded'. The overrewarded included those individuals whose occupation was higher than their level of education and the underrewarded included those whose occupation was lower than their education. This second method was effective in testing hypothesis I including its sub-hypotheses, and hypothesis III. The third method was a typology where all nine types of status profiles were considered. All hypotheses became testable under this method. Comparisons were made among categories with a certain educational level but of various occupational attainments (that is, among 1-1, 1-2, 1-3; 2-2, 2-1, 2-3; 3-3, 3-1, 3-2), for all three ranks of education. Observations were also made for different consistents. Those individuals whose occupation level was one rank higher than their education were defined as the moderately overrewarded, those with two ranks higher were designed as the extremely overrewarded. The same classification was also applied to the underrewarded but with occupation as



as the lower status. The implementation of this typology forced the researcher to abandon an attempt of dividing each hierarchy into four ranks. A typology of 16 categories left many cells with few cases. An example is given in appendix II(table 71).

In terms of statistics, for cells with more than 30 cases, a 5% or more difference was considered as significant. For the cells with less cases, a 10% decision rule was used. Statistical significance level were set at  $.05(p \leq .05)$ .

## CHAPTER V

### RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN STATUS INCONSISTENCY AND PLANS FOR ADULT EDUCATION

The aim of this chapter is to explore the basic relationship between the various status profiles identified in the last chapter, and the plans and motivations for adult education. Hypotheses I and II will be considered separately in this chapter and the analysis of the tables with the control variables of age, sex and marital statuses is to be presented in the next chapter.

#### Hypothesis I

Status inconsistent will differ in their plans and motivations for adult education from the consistent so that

- a) individuals with an occupational level higher than their educational level (the overrewarded) will
  - i) be more likely to enrol in adult education,
  - ii) be more likely to attend institutions of higher learning (college and university),
  - iii) be more likely to select academic courses,
  - iv) be more likely to consider adult education for economic purposes.

Hypothesis I(a) is based on the extension of the theory suggested by Geschwender (1967) that occupants with an occupational level higher than their educational level will be experiencing feelings of insecurity.

Confronted with the tension, these overrewarded individuals will attempt to raise their level of education, as suggested

by the Status Equilibration Hypothesis (Benoit-Symullan, 1944), through adult educational activities. From the assumption, the overrewarded should show a higher tendency to enrol in adult education than the consistent. They will also be more likely to attend institutions where they can achieve a higher educational status and to select academic courses - the kind that can raise their status. Finally, they will consider adult education more for economic purposes.

- b) individuals with an educational level higher than their occupational level (the underrewarded) will
  - i) be less likely to enrol in adult education,
  - ii) be less likely to attend institutions of higher learning (university and college),
  - iii) be less likely to select academic courses,
  - iv) be more likely to consider adult education for social purposes.

Hypothesis I(b) can be regarded as the inverse of I(a). Hypothesis I(b) assumes that underrewarded have had disappointment in education. What they have invested has not yet rewarded in terms of occupation. The value they attach to education should be different from that of the overrewarded. If the assumption is true, the underrewarded should be less likely to enrol and in institutions of higher learning and to take academic courses, and further educational activities should be more for social reasons.

The general proposition of hypothesis I assumes the existence of strain and tension for individuals

occupying inconsistent statuses. The subhypotheses, on the other hand, assume the dissimilar experience the overrewarded and underrewarded may be going through. The dissimilarities should become observable when their plans and motivations are compared with the consistents. As hypothesis I(a) is the reflection of I(b), each subhypothesis will be analysed by each method.

#### A. Method 1 : Consistents vs Inconsistentents

The first method of analysis classified the respondents according to their relative statuses in the occupational and educational hierarchy into two discrete groups, those who were 'consistents' and those who were 'inconsistentents'. The category of consistents included all the individuals who had similar rankings and the category of inconsistentents included all the respondents with disparate rankings. Such a classification precluded complete testing of hypothesis I - only the general proposition could be tested but not the subhypotheses. With only two status profiles usable, the task was to see if the group of inconsistentents did plan their program differently than the consistents. Tables 14 to 17 present the findings obtained.

##### i) Intention to Participate

Table 14 compares the two status groups to their intention for enrolling in adult education.

Table 14 CONSISTENTS VS INCONSISTENTS IN PARTICIPATION PLANS

<u>Status Profiles</u>	<u>Participation Plans</u>			Total
	Yes	No	Unded.	
Consistents	21.1% (96)	61.6% (281)	17.9% (79)	100.0% (456)
Inconsistents	52.0 (246)	49.9 (383)	18.1 (139)	100.0 (768)

$$\chi^2 = 19.72$$

$$p < .001$$

From the table, the inconsistencies did exhibit a different tendency towards enrolling in adult education. With the percentage of the 'undecided' staying relatively stable for the two status groups, significantly more of the inconsistencies were found to have the intention to enrol in educational activities than the consistents, a finding that verifies the expectation.

This higher propensity of the inconsistencies to enrol is an incomplete finding because it did not account for the overrewarded and underrewarded. The overrewarded were expected to show a higher propensity but not the underrewarded. As the method at hand combined all the inconsistencies together as one category, it could not disentangle the differential participation rate of the subtypes. A clear picture should be obtained when

the inconsistencies were divided into the overrewarded and the underrewarded as presented in section B.

ii) Institution Preferred

Table 15 relates the two status groups with their choice of institution and the findings obtained, further verifies the proposition.

Table 15 CONSISTENTS VS. INCONSISTENTS IN INSTITUTIONS PREFERRED

<u>Institutions</u>	<u>Status Profiles</u>	
	Consistents	Inconsistents
Board of Education	23.0% (77)	22.5% (128)
College	45.7 (153)	36.8 (209)
University	22.1 (74)	32.4 (184)
Other Agens.	9.3 (31)	8.3 (47)
Total	100.0 (335)	100.0 (568)

$$\chi^2 : 12.22$$

$$p < .007$$

With the percentage of those choosing the 'Board of Education' and 'Other Agencies' staying almost the same for the two status groups, a significantly

smaller portion of the inconsistencies were found to prefer community college but more of them were found to be interested in university. The inconsistencies, therefore, exhibited a different tendency than the consistents in preferring institutions of higher learning. Again, the findings obtained could not identify whether it was due to a smaller portion of the underrewarded who preferred community college or if it was the overrewarded who preferred university more than the consistents.

### iii) Courses Preferred

Evidence obtained so far conveys the message that the inconsistencies planned their adult education activities differently than the consistents. No percentage difference was found between the two status groups in terms of course preference, as can be seen in table 16. The table is not significant at the .05 level.

Table 16 CONSISTENTS VS INCONSISTENTS IN COURSE PREFERRED

<u>Status Profiles</u>	<u>Course Preferred</u>			
	Academic	Interest	Skill	Total
Consistents	57.5% (206)	23.7% (85)	18.7% (67)	100.0% (358)
Inconsistents	58.1 (364)	25.8 (149)	18.1 (113)	100.0 (626)

2  
X : .069  
N.S.

Academic courses were the most popular choice for both status groups, followed by general interest and skill courses. No special association was found between either of the status profiles and any of the courses chosen. In fact, the percentages of the two status groups were almost identical throughout all three areas of courses. This finding contradicted the general expectation - the inconsistent did not have specific course preferences that differed from the consistent.

Once more, the finding obtained from table 16 could only be regarded as tentative. It is possible that the higher tendency of the overrewarded to select academic courses was being cancelled out the lower tendency of the underrewarded. Such within group differences could only be specified by the other two statistical methods.

#### iv) Motivations

Similarly to table 16, the inconsistent in table 17 were not found to have different conceptions towards adult education than the consistent.

Both status groups considered adult education more for social than for economic reasons. In comparison, slightly more inconsistent were socially-oriented than the consistent. The percentage difference, however, was too small to be significant. Subsequently, the findings obtained in table 17 were not considered as giving any positive confirmation to the general proposition -



the inconsistencies were not found to have a different motivation for adult education.

Table 17 MOTIVATIONS OF CONSISTENTS AND INCONSISTENTS

<u>Status Profiles</u>	<u>Motivations</u>		
	Economic	Social	Total
Consistents	45.6% (123)	54.4% (147)	100.0% (270)
Inconsistents	43.6 (222)	56.4 (287)	100.0 (509)

$\chi^2$  : 0.19  
N.S.

The findings obtained, once again, could not be considered as final since there is the possibility that the higher economic motivation of the overrewarded might be neutralized by the lower tendency of the under-rewarded.

In summary, using method 1, occupants of irregular rankings were found to have a higher propensity to enrol in adult education and to attend university than the consistents. In terms of course preference and motivation, no difference was found. The general proposition that inconsistencies would have their adult educational activities planned and oriented differently

than the consistents only received support in two instances and did not account for all the indicators. In any event, the results could not be regarded as final. The higher propensity of the inconsistent as a single group to participate and select university could be the result of a special type of inconsistent that dominated the group and, in addition, the lack of difference between consistent and inconsistent could be due to the fact that the combining of the underrewarded and the overrewarded was cancelling out the effect. The design of method 1 could not make this differentiation. It was necessary, therefore, to proceed to the second method of analysis.

B. Method 2 : Consistents, Overrewarded and Underrewarded

The second method of analysis classified the respondents according to their status in the educational and occupational hierarchy into the 'consistents', the 'overrewarded' and the 'underrewarded'. To recall, the category of the 'consistents' included all those individuals whose status ranks were similar ; it combined those who were high on education and occupation with those who were low on both. The overrewarded category included those individuals whose occupation was one rank or more above their level of education. Conversely, the underrewarded were those individuals whose educational level was one rank or more above their level of occupation.

The task at hand was to see if the underrewarded and the overrewarded had different plans and motivations from the consistent.

Both hypothesis I(a) and I(b) will be considered together under this method and the results will supplement the findings of the previous section. Hypothesis I(a) is based on the assumption of the feeling of insecurity that the overrewarded would be experiencing. In order to raise their level of education, the overrewarded were expected to express a higher propensity to enrol, to attend institutions of higher learning, to select academic courses, and to be economically-motivated than the consistent. On the other hand, the underrewarded were assumed to have been disappointed by education. They already had the education but it had not yet been rewarded. Less of them were expected, therefore, to enrol, to attend institutions of higher learning and to prefer academic courses. More of them were expected to have a socially-oriented attitude towards adult education.

#### i) Intention to Participate

The previous section indicated a higher propensity of the inconsistent to enrol in adult education without differentiating the within group difference that might occur. Here, more of the overrewarded are expected to enrol due to their attempt to equate their education

with their occupation, and, for the underrewarded, a lower portion. Findings obtained in table 18 do not support this expectation however.

Table 18 PARTICIPATION PLANS OF THE CONSISTENTS, OVERREWARDED AND UNDERREWARDED

<u>Participation Plans.</u>				
<u>Status Profiles</u>	Yes	No	Unded.	Total
Consistents	21.1% (96)	61.6% (281)	17.3% (79)	100.0% (456)
Overrewarded	16.8 (24)	62.2 (89)	21.0 (30)	100.0 (143)
Underrewarded	35.5 (222)	47.0 (294)	17.4 (109)	100.0 (625)

<sup>2</sup>  
X : 40.11  
p < .001

The percentage of the 'undecided' category was relatively stable for all the three groups. The overrewarded were found, contrary to the expectation, to have a lower propensity to enrol in adult education than the consistents. On the other hand, the underrewarded were found to have the largest proportion to enrol among all three status groups. The consistents, the overrewarded and the underrewarded, therefore, did exhibit differential participation potentials but not in the predicted

directions. In table 18 the overrewarded could not be interpreted as attempting to raise their educational status, neither did the underrewarded seem to have a negative attitude towards further education. Indeed it was the underrewarded who had the higher propensity to enrol in adult education, not the overrewarded.

Results obtained in table 18 could not be taken as valid for all of the overrewarded and the underrewarded. Similar to the situation in method 1, various degrees of inconsistency might exhibit a different propensity to enrol. Furthermore, the high consistents (high education-high occupation) might have a different participation potential than the other types of consistents. The moderately overrewarded of both the middle and lower educational groups (middle education-high occupation/low education-middle occupation) might interpret their achievements in the work world as a success and accordingly express a lesser tendency to enrol, but this does not explain the extremely overrewarded (low education-high occupation). These extremely overrewarded individuals might be actually undergoing a feeling of insecurity and be wanting to participate more. The slightly lower likelihood to enrol of the overrewarded as a group found in table 18 may be simply because there were more examples of the moderately overrewarded. The method at hand could not verify such speculations and it is necessary to further refine the method.

## ii) Institution Preferred

The overrewarded were originally expected to attend the institutions of higher learning (college and university) where they could achieve an equilibration of status, while the underrewarded were expected to be less attracted to these institutions as they already had attained a high level of education. Table 19 presents the institution preferred for the three status groups.

Table 19. INSTITUTIONAL PREFERENCE OF CONSISTENTS, OVERREWARDED AND UNDERREWARDED

<u>Institutions</u>	<u>Status Profiles</u>		
	Consistents	over-rewarded	under-rewarded
Board of Education	23.0% (77)	25.0% (24)	22.0% (104)
College	45.7 (153)	50.0 (48)	34.1 (161)
University	22.1 (74)	14.6 (14)	36.0 (170)
Other Agencies	9.3 (31)	10.4 (10)	7.8 (37)
Total	100.0 (335)	100.0 (96)	100.0 (472)

$\chi^2$   
 $\chi^2 : 30.99$   
 $p < .001$

The percentages of those choosing the 'Board of Education' and 'Other Agencies' were about the same for each of the three status groups. Half of the over-rewarded selected St. Clair college but about one in seven preferred university. For the underrewarded, almost an equal portion preferred the university and the community college. When the percentages were compared among status groups, more overrewarded were found to prefer college, especially when the comparison was made with the underrewarded. Less overrewarded however, were found to prefer university than the other two status groups. On the other hand, more underrewarded were found to prefer university but the least likely to attend college. The trend was more obvious when the percentages of the two inconsistent profiles were compared.

The hypothesis postulated was only partially supported. The overrewarded did intend to enrol more in community college, but not in university, while the reverse was found for the underrewarded. Perhaps the community college was more suitable for the overrewarded to equilibrate their statuses while the underrewarded did not hold a negative attitude towards university.

The inconsistencies were earlier found to have a higher likelihood to prefer university but not community college. Findings obtained in table 19 clearly show that the overrewarded had a higher preference for community college. The findings obtained here could not shed

light on the differential preference for institutions of the various degrees of the overrewarded or underrewarded, nor were they able to distinguish the institution preferred by various levels of consistents. The moderately overrewarded low education(low education-middle occupation) group and the extremely overrewarded(low education-high occupation) might prefer the community college more than the low consistents(low education-low occupation) and the total number of these two types might have outweighed the moderately overrewarded middle education(middle education-high occupation) - a group that might prefer university more. The actual occupations of the former two types might not be as high as the consistently high nor the moderately overrewarded middle education group. When all types of overrewarded were combined as one group, they appeared to prefer community college more. For the underrewarded, the moderately underrewarded higher education group(high education-middle occupation) who, due to their educational background could still retain their interest in university but not the extremely underrewarded(high education-low occupation). These speculations are, at best, tentative and will be re-examined in section C where a full typology is analysed.

### iii) Courses Preferred

In terms of courses, a larger portion of the overrewarded were originally expected to select academic



courses than the consistents while a lesser portion of the underrewarded were expected to do so. The latter should be more attracted to general interest or skill courses according to the hypotheses. The findings obtained in table 20 do not support this expectation.

Table 20. COURSE PREFERENCE OF THE CONSISTENTS, OVER-REWARDED AND UNDERREWARDED

<u>Courses Preferred</u>				
<u>Status Profiles</u>	Academic	Interest	Skill	Total
Consistents	57.5% (206)	23.7% (85)	18.7% (67)	100.0% (353)
Overrewarded	57.1 (68)	18.5 (22)	24.4 (29)	100.0 (119)
Underrewarded	58.4 (296)	25.0 (127)	16.6 (84)	100.0 (507)

2  
X : 5.04  
N.S.

Academic courses were overwhelmingly preferred by all three status groups and none of them were found to have a higher percentage in preferring academic courses, as found earlier. But while table 16 could not differentiate the preference on the non-academic courses, under the present classification, the overrewarded were found to have a higher interest in skill courses. More of the underrewarded were found interested in general

interest courses. This finding could not be interpreted as meaning the underrewarded were more likely to take courses for general interest because of the frustration resulting from being underrewarded, however, as both the skill and general interest courses could be considered by them for either social or recreational purposes.

The predicted relationship was not found.

#### iv) Motivations

Finally, the motivational aspect of all three status groups was examined. The overrewarded were originally expected to consider adult education more for economic reasons than the consistents, perhaps because they were attempting to reduce tension by equilibrating their statuses through adult education. An opposite expectation was suggested for the underrewarded. More of them were anticipated to be socially-oriented than the consistents. Table 21 presents the findings.

As predicted, more of the overrewarded were found to be economically-motivated than the consistents, and, the distinction was more obvious when the comparison was made with the underrewarded. The overrewarded did seem to consider adult education for economic purposes, a step to consolidate their status position. On the other hand, only a slightly larger proportion of the underrewarded considered adult education for social purposes than the consistents. Their socially-motivated

Table 21 MOTIVATIONS FOR ADULT EDUCATION OF THE  
CONSISTENTS, OVERREWARDED AND UNDERREWARDED

<u>Status Profiles</u>	<u>Motivations</u>		
	Economic	Social	Total
Consistents	45.6% (123)	54.4% (147)	100.0% (370)
Overrewarded	50.6 (41)	49.4 (40)	100.0 (81)
Underrewarded	42.3 (181)	57.7 (247)	100.0 (428)

2.  
X : 2.18  
N.S.

orientation was more obvious when compared with the overrewarded. While table 17 of section A showed essentially no difference in motivations between the consistents and the inconsistent as two separate groups, a difference was found with the present method. The overrewarded and the underrewarded did have a different set of motivations. Based upon table 21, one would expect that economic motivation would be more important for the extremely overrewarded than the moderates and the socially oriented prospective of the extremely underrewarded should be larger than that of the moderates.

In summary, when hypothesis I was reanalysed

by method 2 which divided the respondents into the 'inconsistents', the 'overrewarded' and the 'underrewarded', new differences were found because the first method did not distinguish between the underrewarded and the overrewarded. In this section, the overrewarded and the underrewarded were found to have plans and motivations different than the consistents as well as from each other, but not always in the predicted directions. The overrewarded were originally expected to express a higher propensity to enrol, to select institutions of higher learning, to pick academic courses and to be more economically motivated as they wanted to equilibrate their status discrepancy. More of them were found to be economically motivated and to select community college. They were not, however, found to have a higher proportion to enrol or to select academic courses than the consistents. Accordingly, hypothesis I(a) was only partially supported. Three out of four predictions were not found for the underrewarded. It is necessary, therefore, to further specify what is meant by status inconsistency, to further classify different levels and types of inconsistency, and this is the rationale for method 3.

### C. Method 3: A Typology of Status Profiles

Hypothesis I(a) and I(b) were reanalysed by the third method of analysis which was based upon a

typology of all status patterns that could be derived from combining each rank of the occupation and education dimensions. As each hierarchy was designated by three ranks, there were a total of nine status profiles.

Instead of combining all levels of consistents together as one category, they were divided into the high consistents (high education-high occupation); the middle consistents (middle education-middle occupation) and the low consistents (low education-low occupation). The overrewarded individuals were also divided into three types according to their level of education, namely, the moderately overrewarded low education occupants (low education-middle occupation), the extremely overrewarded (low education-high occupation) and the moderately overrewarded, middle education group (middle education-high occupation). The same classifications were applied to the underrewarded respondents which included the moderately underrewarded high education group (high education-middle occupation), the extremely underrewarded (high education-low occupation) and finally, the moderately underrewarded, middle education group (middle education-low occupation). The task was to compare the decisions made on adult education by each of these various forms of inconsistencies with the consistents (for example, the extremely and the moderately overrewarded of the low educational group were to be compared with the low consistents). According to

hypothesis I(a), more of the overrewarded were expected to enrol, to choose institutions of higher learning, to prefer academic courses, and to be economically motivated. On the other hand, the opposite was expected from the underrewarded. As in section B, each item of hypothesis I(a) and I(b) will be examined.

#### i) Intention to Participate

Hypothesis I(a) suggested that a larger portion of the overrewarded would enrol in adult education than the consistent while hypothesis I(b) predicted a lower participation rate for the underrewarded respondents. Findings are presented in table 22 according to the levels of education.

Pertaining to the high education group, instead of a predicted lower participation ratio, a higher portion of both the moderately (high education-middle occupation) and the extremely underrewarded (high education-low occupation) were found willing to enrol in adult education when compared to the consistent (high education-high occupation). Though no percentage difference was found between the moderately and the extremely underrewarded in indicating participation, a larger portion of the former group was negative. In short, the proportion planning to enrol in further education of both the moderately and the extremely underrewarded respondents in the high education category was found to have increased

Table 22 A FULL TYPOLOGY OF STATUS PROFILES AND ADULT EDUCATION PARTICIPATION

<u>Status Profiles</u>	<u>Participation Plans</u>			Total
	Yes	No	Unded.	
<u>High Education Group</u>				
High Consistents	28.3% (32)	51.3% (58)	20.4% (23)	100.0% (113)
Moderately Under-rewarded	39.2 (136)	45.8 (159)	15.0 (52)	100.0 (347)
Extremely Under-rewarded	39.1 (43)	40.0 (44)	20.9 (23)	100.0 (110)
<u>Middle Education Group</u>				
Middle Consistents	24.1 (49)	59.1 (120)	16.7 (34)	100.0 (203)
Moderately Over-rewarded	13.8 (4)	69.0 (20)	17.2 (5)	100.0 (29)
Moderately Under-rewarded	25.6 (43)	54.2 (91)	20.2 (34)	100.0 (168)
<u>Low Education Group</u>				
Low Consistents	10.7 (15)	73.6 (103)	15.7 (22)	100.0 (140)
Moderately Over-rewarded	16.8 (17)	61.4 (62)	21.8 (22)	100.0 (101)
Extremely Over-rewarded	23.1 (3)	53.8 (7)	23.1 (3)	100.0 (13)

2  
 $\chi^2$  : 69.67  
 $p < .001$

instead of decreased. Level of education was also found to be an important variable as all of the high education profiles had a larger proportion to enrol than any other status profile of other education groups.

For the middle education respondents, the present typology allowed a comparison to be made only between the moderately underrewarded(middle education-low occupation) and the middle consistents(middle education-middle occupation). From the table, it is clear that the proportion of the moderately underrewarded middle education respondents who would be willing to enrol in adult education was not less than that of the middle consistents, a finding that was not predicted.

In short, the expectation that a lesser portion of the underrewarded would be enrolling in adult education was not supported for any of the underrewarded groups examined. Nevertheless, one cannot make any definite statement at this point. In the earlier table, table 18 of section section B, the underrewarded as a total group were found to have a higher tendency to participate than the consistents. The present finding shows that it was the underrewarded of the high educational group that caused the observed increase.

On the other hand, the predicted higher portion of the overrewarded respondents planning to enrol in adult education received support from two of the overrewarding profiles. Within the respondents of the



low education category, a comparison between the moderately overrewarded(low education-middle occupation) and the low consistents(low education-low occupation) clearly shows a higher proportion of the former who would be willing to participate in adult education. The tendency was more obvious when the extremely overrewarded(low education-high occupation) were being compared with the low consistents.

In the middle education group where only the moderately overrewarded(middle education-high occupation) respondents were available, the comparison made between them and the middle consistents(middle education-middle occupation) did not agree with the prediction. A lower proportion of the moderately overrewarded middle education respondents was found to have a favourable intention towards participating in adult education than were the consistents.

In short, the predicted increase enrolment of the overrewarded was supported by two status profiles but not by all of them. Perhaps a feeling of insecurity did compel the two overrewarded profiles of the low education to participate in adult education. The predicted tendency, however, did not hold for the moderately overrewarded middle education occupants. Again, any statement concerning the validity of the basic assumption for the overrewarded individuals would be tenuous at this point.

Clearly, other findings have to be taken into consideration. But the present finding also clarifies some misinterpretations about table 18 of section B where the overrewarded as a group was found to have a lower tendency to plan for participation than the consistent. Table 22 clearly demonstrates that it was only the moderately overrewarded of the middle education group that exhibited such a reduced tendency when compared with middle consistent; the other two overrewarded profiles exhibited an increased tendency as predicted by hypothesis I(a). The case at hand is a vivid example of how misinterpretations can be obtained by underspecification of a type of inconsistent. It shows how the fluctuations within the consistent and the overrewarded are underestimated by combining types with divergent tendencies.

#### ii) Institution Preferred

If the overrewarded were attempting to equilibrate their statuses, planning to attend institutions of higher learning (college and university) could be an appropriate means. According to hypothesis I(a), occupants of all the overrewarding status profiles would be more attracted to these agencies. On the other hand, a feeling of not benefiting from any more education could be expected to divert the underrewarded away from these institutions, as suggested by hypothesis I(b). Findings presented in table 23 are arranged according to the educational level.

Table 23 A FULL TYPOLOGY OF STATUS PROFILES AND  
INSTITUTION PREFERRED

<u>Status Profiles</u>	<u>Institutions</u>				Total
	Board of Education	College	Univer- sity	Other Agens.	
<u>High Education Group</u>					
High Consistents	20.9% (18)	31.4% (27)	39.5% (34)	8.1% (7)	100.0% (86)
Moderately Under- rewarded	14.9 (40)	32.0 (86)	46.5 (125)	6.7 (18)	100.0 (269)
Extremely Under- rewarded	34.2 (27)	25.3 (20)	32.9 (26)	7.6 (6)	100.0 (79)
<u>Middle Education Group</u>					
Middle Consistents	22.2 (34)	49.0 (75)	20.9 (32)	7.8 (12)	100.0 (153)
Moderately Over- rewarded	15.0 (3)	45.0 (9)	30.0 (6)	10.0 (2)	100.0 (20)
Moderately Under- rewarded	29.8 (37)	44.4 (55)	15.3 (19)	10.5 (13)	100.0 (124)
<u>Low Education Group</u>					
Low Consistents	26.0 (25)	53.1 (51)	8.3 (8)	12.5 (12)	100.0 (96)
Moderately Over- rewarded	30.3 (20)	53.0 (35)	9.1 (6)	7.6 (5)	100.0 (66)
Extremely Over- rewarded	10.0 (1)	40.0 (4)	20.0 (2)	30.0 (3)	100.0 (10)

2.  
X : 115.87  
p < .001

The expected lower proportion of the under-rewarded to select institutions of higher learning was supported when the extremely underrewarded (high education-low occupation) were compared with the high consistents (high education-high occupation). The former did show a reduced portion in selecting both university and college and an increase for courses by the Board of Education. A lowering of interest in the institutions of higher learning was also observed in the moderately underrewarded, middle education respondents (middle education-low occupation). When compared with their own consistents (middle education-middle occupation), a lower portion of these moderately underrewarded individuals were interested in the institutions of higher learning but more of them would prefer courses from the Board of Education. The predicted direction was supported there.

Nevertheless, comparison between the moderately underrewarded high education group (high education-middle occupation) and the high consistents (high education-high occupation) showed a higher tendency of the former to select university and the portion of both profile groups in preferring community college was found about the same. The direction predicted was not found - the moderately underrewarded of the high education did not show any reduced interest in institutions of higher learning.

In short, the original expectation that the underrewarded would be less attracted to institutions of higher learning received support from the extremely underrewarded and the moderately underrewarded middle education occupants. For the moderately underrewarded high education occupants, there was a reversal of prediction as found in table 23. Supplementing the observation to table 19 of section B where a higher portion of the underrewarded was found to prefer university than the consistent, the present finding shows that this was true for the high education-middle occupation respondents but not for the extremely underrewarded nor the moderately underrewarded, middle education individuals. The latter two types showed a more intensive interest in the Board of Education as originally hypothesized.

For the overly rewarded, they were expected to be more attracted to institutions of higher learning as a result of their attempt to equilibrate their statuses. The cell size of all the overrewarded categories as can be seen in table 23, are too small to warrant any conclusive statement.

For the low education group, a larger portion of the extremely overrewarded (low education-high occupation) were found to prefer university but fewer of them would choose college than the low consistent (low education-low occupation). The finding is confusing

but small cell size of the extremely overrewarded has already thrown the finding into question. For the moderately overrewarded (low education-middle occupation), a comparison between them and the low consistents showed no difference in their interest in institutions of higher learning.

Similar to their counterparts in the low education group, more of the moderately overrewarded, middle education respondents (middle education-high occupation) when compared with the middle consistents (middle education-middle occupation) were found to choose university but not community college. The relatively small cell size of this category again ruled out the significance of the finding.

In short, the expectation that the overrewarded would be more attracted to the institutions of higher learning did not receive solid confirmation. The only finding which had a large enough sample size (the moderately overrewarded low education category) did not agree with the hypothesis. However, one could still supplement the present findings with those of table 19 of section B where the overrewarded as a group were found to be more inclined to choose community college. None of the overrewarding categories in the present analysis were found to have a higher interest in college but preferred university instead. When the consistents, and again

the underrewarded were considered only as two separate groups, within group variation could lead to misinterpretation as was shown here. Another interesting finding is that level of education was found to be another determinant in choosing university but not other institutions.

### iii) Courses Preferred

In terms of courses preferred, all the overrewarded profiles were expected to show a higher interest in academic courses than their respective consistents. The underrewarded, on the other hand, were expected to be less interested in academic courses. More of them would be attracted to general interest or skill courses instead. Table 24 presents the findings.

Going in the predicted direction, less of the extremely underrewarded (high education-low occupation) were found to be attracted to academic courses than the high consistents (high education-high occupation). More of these inconsistent profile occupants would prefer the skill and general interest courses, especially the latter.

A similar finding was obtained when the middle consistents were compared with the moderately underrewarded middle education occupants (middle education-low occupation). A slightly lower proportion of the latter were interested in academic courses and more of them would rather take the skill courses.

Table 24 A FULL TYPOLOGY OF STATUS PROFILES AND COURSES  
PREFERRED

<u>Status Profiles</u>	<u>Courses Preferred</u>			
	Academic	Interest	Skill	Total
<u>High Education Group</u>				
High Consistents	63.3% (57)	20.0% (18)	16.7% (15)	100.0% (90)
Moderately Under-rewarded	65.8 (180)	24.1 (68)	12.1 (34)	100.0 (282)
Extremely Under-rewarded	47.2 (42)	30.3 (27)	22.5 (20)	100.0 (89)
<u>Middle Education Group</u>				
Middle Consistents	57.8 (93)	26.7 (43)	15.5 (25)	100.0 (161)
Moderately Over-rewarded	60.9 (14)	8.7 (2)	30.4 (7)	100.0 (23)
Moderately Under-rewarded	53.4 (74)	23.5 (32)	22.1 (30)	100.0 (136)
<u>Low Education Group</u>				
Low Consistents	52.3 (56)	22.4 (24)	25.2 (27)	100.0 (107)
Moderately Over-rewarded	56.8 (46)	19.8 (16)	23.5 (19)	100.0 (81)
Extremely Over-rewarded	53.3 (8)	26.7 (4)	20.0 (3)	100.0 (15)

2  
X : 25.1  
N.S.



The predicted direction, however, was not supported by the moderately underrewarded high education occupants (high education-middle occupation). They were not found to have a reduced interest in academic courses when compared with the high consistents (high education-high occupation).

In short, the expectation that the underrewarded would be less attracted to the academic courses received support from two status groups - the extremely underrewarded and the moderately underrewarded middle education occupants, but not from the moderately underrewarded of the high education individuals. This latter group of individuals has persistently shown an increased interest in adult education contrary to hypothesis I(b). A fuller discussion concerning this specific status group will be presented later on. Again, the present finding can be supplemented to the finding obtained from table 20 of section B where no significant difference was found between the consistents and the underrewarded as separate groups. Table 24 clearly shows that the extremely underrewarded and, to a lesser extent, the moderately underrewarded of the middle education group were less attracted to academic courses.

The overly rewarded occupants were expected to show a higher interest in academic courses. As can be seen from table 24, a slightly higher portion of the

moderately overrewarded middle education respondents preferred academic courses when compared to the the low consistents(low education-low occupation). On the other hand, an almost identical portion of the extremely overrewarded individuals(low education-high occupation) were as interested in academic courses as the low consistents.

For the middle education group, the moderately overrewarded(middle education-high occupation) were found to have only a slight increase in preferring academic courses when compared with the middle consistents. The relatively small cell size, again, ruled out the significance of the findings.

In short, the problem of small cell size together with small percentage differences prevented the findings from being interpreted as highly significant even though no contrary trends were found. Level of education was not found to be an important determinant to differentiate course preference.

#### iv) Motivations

In terms of orientations, the feeling of insecurity experienced by the overrewarded was expected to impel a higher portion of them to hold an economically-motivated orientation towards adult education whereas the feeling of ineffectiveness experienced by the underrewarded was expected to cause an inverse trend. Table 25

presents the results obtained.

For the underrewarded, observations derived from the extremely underrewarded respondents (high education-low occupation) verified the predictions made. When compared with the high consistents (high education-high occupation), more of the extremely underrewarded were found to have a socially-motivated orientation. Their propensity to enrol might not be reduced (table 22) because of their educational background, but their definition of education may have changed. Previous tables have already shown their reduced interest in institutions of higher learning (table 23) and in academic courses (table 24). Findings from table 25 further confirm that the extremely underrewarded behave differently. Their socially-motivated perspective was even more obvious when comparison was made with the moderately underrewarded of the same education group.

Similar to the findings of the extremely underrewarded, a higher proportion of the moderately underrewarded, middle education respondents (middle education-low occupation) were also found to have a socially-motivated orientation than the middle consistents (middle education-middle occupation) - another finding that is in the predicted direction. However, a consideration of all the findings obtained so far of this specific status group presents a confusing picture. Agreeing

Table 25. A FULL TYPOLOGY OF STATUS ON MOTIVATIONS  
TOWARDS ADULT EDUCATION

<u>Status Profiles</u>	<u>Motivations</u>		
	Economic	Social	Total
<u>High Education Group</u>			
High Consistents	42.9% (33)	57.1% (44)	100.0% (77)
Moderately Under-rewarded	48.6 (119)	51.4 (126)	100.0 (245)
Extremely Under-rewarded	33.8 (25)	66.2 (49)	100.0 (74)
<u>Middle Education Group</u>			
Middle Consistents	46.7 (56)	53.3 (64)	100.0 (120)
Moderately Over-rewarded	33.5 (5)	66.7 (10)	100.0 (15)
Moderately Under-rewarded	33.9 (37)	66.1 (72)	100.0 (109)
<u>Low Education Group</u>			
Low Consistents	46.6 (34)	53.4 (39)	100.0 (73)
Moderately Over-rewarded	49.1 (28)	50.9 (29)	100.0 (57)
Extremely Over-rewarded	88.9 (8)	11.1 (1)	100.0 (9)

$\chi^2$  : 18.87  
p < .016

with the predictions, the moderately underrewarded respondents were found to have a reduced interest in selecting academic courses (table 24) and were socially-oriented (table 25). They were not found to have a reduced portion, however, in enrolling in adult education and they had an identical intention as did the middle consistents in choosing institutions of higher learning. This difference in effects may be simply a matter of the degree of inconsistency - the moderates might not experience such a sharp feeling of ineffectiveness as the extremely underrewarded. As the design of the present typology does not allow for a category of extremely underrewarded middle education occupants, the speculation cannot be confirmed.

The prediction that more underrewarded would be socially-motivated did not hold for the moderately underrewarded, high education occupants (high education-middle occupation). When compared with the high consistents (high education-high occupation), a smaller proportion instead of more of the moderately underrewarded were socially oriented. In fact, these moderately underrewarded individuals have been repeatedly found to have the tendency of reversing all the predictions made on them. Instead of less, more of them were found to be enrolling in adult education (table 22), to prefer the institutions of higher learning (table 23), and to take

academic courses(table 24) than the consistents. Together with the present finding, it seems that the real experience and the adaptation process that occupants of this specific status profile may be undergoing is beyond the scope of the present hypotheses and assumptions. Among other plausible alternatives, a hope for eventual upward mobility is suggested. They might interpret their occupation as temporary in nature - whatever they had invested would be eventaully paid off in the future. Education was still considered as the avenue to upward mobility and accordingly more training would mean a closer step to promotion. This concept of upward mobility is only one of several plasuable alternatives, but the design of the present study does not allow any closer investigation of the issue.

In short, the expectation that the under-rewarded would be more socially-oriented received support from the extremely underrewarded and to a lesser degree, the moderately underrewarded, middle education respondents. It was the moderately underrewarded high education occupants that reversed the prediction. Adding to the result of table 21, section B, where slightly more under-rewarded were found to have a socially-motivated orientation, the present finding points out that the increase was due to only two types of underrewarded categories, not all of them. The feeling of ineffective-

ness may have caused these two status groups to express a lowered interest in adult education. On the other hand, none of the findings obtained seemed to indicate the existence of similar feelings in the moderately underrewarded, high education group. The hope for upward mobility may have accounted for the difference.

For the overly rewarded, their feelings of insecurity were expected to make them more economically-motivated. The predicted direction only received moderate support when compared the moderately overrewarded, low education occupants(low education-middle occupation) with the low-consistents(low education-middle occupation).

However, previous findings had already shown their higher likelihood to enrol(table 22) and also to select academic courses(table 24). Together with the present finding, their attempt to equilibrate their statuses through adult education is possible.

The trend of being socially-motivated was more salient for the extremely overrewarded occupants(low education-high occupation). When compared with the low-consistents, an overwhelmingly higher proportion of the extremely overrewarded considered adult education for economic purposes. In spite of the cell size, the proportion(8 out of 9) was far above the chance level. In fact, this specific group had the highest percentage considering adult education for economic purposes of

any status group. Findings from other tables about this group have already demonstrated their higher inclination to enrol (table 22) and to select university courses (table 23). All of these findings point to a confirmation of the hypothesis. The status equilibration hypothesis of raising the lower status to the level of the higher one seems once again proven.

On the other hand, the predicted higher tendency was not found when the moderately overrewarded middle education occupants (middle education-high occupation) were compared with the middle consistent (middle education-middle occupation). A smaller portion of the former was found to be socially-motivated. Findings obtained for this specific status group did not agree with the predictions. All the overrewarded were hypothesized to show a higher propensity to enrol, to select institutions of higher learning and academic courses and finally, were expected to be more economically-motivated. Instead of an increase, the moderately overrewarded, middle education occupants were found to have reduced their enrollment probability (table 22) and a lesser portion of them were found to be economically-motivated (table 25). Findings on the other two variables (tables 23 and 24) were considered insignificant because of cell sizes. These findings seemed to suggest that the occupants of this status profile, instead of raising



their level of education to achieve consistency, might have adopted some other means to balance their discrepancy. These occupants might have denied the relative importance of education when compared to occupation and to have considered whatever they had achieved in the work world as a success. This alternative is not a derivative of the present conceptual scheme and is considered as an exceptional explanation unique to this specific status group, which cannot be tested here.

In short, the expectation that more of the over-rewarded would be economically-motivated received verification from two but not all of the overrewarding profiles. Both the moderately and the extremely overrewarded of the low education group were found to have such a tendency and it increased with the degree of discrepancy. The moderately overrewarded of the middle education group, however, were found to have reversed the prediction. In section B it was found that the overrewarded as a group were more economically-motivated and the present analysis indicates that it was the two overrewarded profiles of the low education group who maintained the trend.

#### Summary

It is obvious that the findings obtained from an aggregated method do not agree with the results from a more specified method. Using the first method of analysis where the respondents were divided into two

simple groups of consistents and inconsistent, the assumption was that both the over and the underrewarded were behaving in the same way. But using different assumptions, the orientations of the over and underrewarded towards adult education were expected to be different from the consistents. To capture these dissimilarities, the second method of analysis was employed. But as in method 1, dividing the respondents into three concrete categories of consistents, underrewarded and underrewarded could not capture the variance existing between the different types of over and underrewarded. This within-group variance could only be analysed by a more elaborate typology where all types of status profiles were delineated. Method three, therefore, was adopted. Differences not obtained from the previous methods were found. Methodologically speaking, a full typology of all status profiles that could be derived from the dimensions should be a more appropriate tool to investigate the phenomenon of status inconsistency. A full typology, however, has its own limitations. The foremost problem is a large enough sample size, especially for the overrewarded. As the number of overly rewarded occupants is relatively small, a further division into more rigorously defined categories would lead to further insignificant results, as can be seen from the present study.

Having discussed the methodology used in the analysis, the next step is to summarize the findings. To recall, the general proposition of hypothesis presumed that status inconsistency would affect different decisions on adult education in terms of the propensity to enrol, selecting institutions and courses, and finally, in terms of motivations. The inconsistencies as a group were assumed to have experienced certain strains that the consistents might not experience. Under the analysis of method 1, more inconsistencies were found to be ready to enrol and in selecting community college. No significant difference was found for the other two indicators. Hypothesis I(a) specified the tension experienced by the overrewarded. It was a direct application of the Status Equilibration Hypothesis that the overrewarded were expected to show a higher tendency to enrol in adult education, to prefer institutions of higher learning, to select academic courses, and to be more economically-motivated. Under the second method of analysis, a larger portion of the overrewarded were found to be economically-motivated and to select community college. A lower proportion were found to be planning to enrol and selecting university. Finally, an identical proportion of the overrewarded were found to prefer academic courses when compared to the consistents. Only under the full typology of method 3 did

the findings become more understandable. With the overrewarded divided into three groups, a higher portion of the extremely overrewarded (low education-high occupation) were ready to enrol, to select institutions of higher learning and be economically motivated when compared to the low consistent. The hypothesis received further support from the moderately overrewarded, low education occupants (low education-middle occupation). More of them were ready to enrol, to choose academic courses and slightly more of them were economically motivated when compared to the low consistent. Hypothesis I(a) however, failed to explain the behavior of the moderately overrewarded, middle education respondents (middle education-high occupation). Instead of raising their educational status, their equilibration process was suggested to have involved a shift of the relative importance of the dimensions cited.

The underrewarded were assumed to have a totally different experience from the overrewarded.

Hypothesis I(b) assumed the feeling of ineffectiveness from being underrewarded and because of that, the occupants were expected to show a lesser tendency to enrol and to select institutions of higher learning as well as academic courses. They should have more of a social definition for adult education. Again, findings obtained from method 2 were confusing. A higher portion of the

underrewarded as a group were found to be socially-motivated. Other than that, results obtained from the indicators did not seem to support the hypothesis. However, under the analysis of method 3, hypothesis I(b) received support in two of the underrewarding categories. A lesser portion of the extremely underrewarded (high education-low occupation) were found to be enrolling in institutions of higher learning and academic courses, and more of them were found to have a socially-motivated orientation than the high consistent (high education-high occupation). A similar conclusion was reached when the moderately underrewarded middle education respondents (middle education-low occupation) were compared with the middle consistent (middle education-middle occupation). Hypothesis I(b) however, failed to account for the observations derived from the moderately underrewarded high education occupants (high education-middle occupation). None of the tendencies exhibited turned out in the predicted directions. The alternative explanation suggested is based upon the notion of perceived chances of upward mobility in the occupation hierarchy.

Generally speaking, judging from the findings obtained, hypothesis I(a) received support from all of the overrewarded types except the moderately overrewarded middle education group. Hypothesis I(b) also received

supports from the underrewarded types examined except the moderately underrewarded high education group. The alternative suggestions made are at best tentative and a closer grasp of the problem is beyond the reach of the present study. Level of education was also found to be an important determinant in terms of participation plans and choosing university but not in the other two indicators. With the effect of status inconsistency confirmed, the next step is to examine more explicitly the differences resulting from various levels of consistency and various levels of inconsistency. Due to dissimilar needs and background, the high consistent should have a different attitude than the other levels of consistent. Those extremely over or underrewarded respondents would also exhibit a sharper symptom of strain than the moderates. This part of the task has been loosely discussed in the analysis of hypothesis I, but will be the substance and the primary concern of hypothesis II.

#### ✓ D. An Analysis of the Within-Group Difference

The main task of the present section is to attempt to capture the difference that should exist between the various levels of consistent and inconsistent. All the tables presented in this part are extracts of tables 22 - 25 from the previous section. The

statistics and level of significance are independently calculated.

## Hypothesis II

- a) when compared with the consistents of other levels, the high consistents will
  - i) be more likely to enrol in adult education,
  - ii) be more likely to attend institutions of higher level,
  - iii) be more likely to take academic courses,
  - iv) be more likely to conceive adult education for social purposes.

All the predictions were made on the basis of previous research. Even though they used other hierarchies besides education and occupation to define social class, they nevertheless gave ground for the present research to predict that the high consistents should be more likely to enrol (Knox and Videbeck, 1965; Douglass, 1970; Boggs, 1974), to select institutions of higher level (Dickinson, 1971), to select academic courses (Dickinson, 1971) and to be socially-motivated (Douglass and Moss, 1968; London, 1970).

### i) Intention to Participate

With the percentage of the undecided staying relatively stable, table 26 (originally from table 22, section C) indicates a positive association between class level and the likelihood of enrolling in adult education.

Even though the majority of each level did not

Table 26 LEVEL OF CONSISTENTS AND PARTICIPATION PLANS

<u>Consistent Level</u>	<u>Participation Plans</u>			
	Yes	No	Unded.	Total
High Consistents	28.3% (32)	51.3% (58)	20.4% (23)	100.0% (113)
Middle Consistents	24.1 (49)	59.1 (120)	16.7 (34)	100.0 (203)
Low Consistents	10.7 (15)	73.6 (103)	15.7 (22)	100.0 (140)

$\chi^2$  17.1  
p < .002

intend to enrol, the propensity to enrol increased significantly from the low consistents to the high consistents.

The increase was more substantial from the low to the middle level than from the latter to the upper level.

The finding is in accord with the prediction made and past findings.

#### ii) Institution Preferred

Table 27 (from table 25, section C) presents the institutions preferred by each level. As has been hypothesized, more upper consistents preferred university and the proportion decreased along with the consistent level, especially between the middle and the upper consistents. On the other hand, the preference for community college correlated negatively with the consistent levels and the percentage difference was more



Table 27 LEVEL OF CONSISTENT. AND INSTITUTIONS PREFERRED

<u>Institutions</u>	<u>Status Profiles</u>		
	High Consistents	Middle Consistents	Low Consistents
Board of Education	20.9% (18)	22.2% (34)	26.0 (25)
College	31.4 (27)	49.0 (75)	53.1 (51)
University	39.5 (34)	20.9 (32)	8.3 (8)
Other Agencies	8.1 (7)	7.8 (12)	12.5 (12)
Total	100.0 (86)	100.0 (153)	100.0 (96)

$$\chi^2 : 27.67$$

$$p < .001$$

obvious between the middle and the upper level. A similar but less salient association was also found with the preference for the Board of Education. Judging from the results obtained, the high consistents showed a higher interest in university but not in college. It may be because all past research reviewed were done in U.S.A. and the term college stood for a higher status than community college as used here.

### iii) Courses Preferred

Table 28 (from table 24, section C) confirms the prediction made on consistent levels and academic courses.

Table 28 LEVEL OF CONSISTENTS AND COURSES PREFERRED

<u>Consistent Level</u>	<u>Courses Preferred</u>			Total
	Academic	Interest	Skill	
High Consistents	63.3% (57)	20.0% (18)	16.7% (15)	100.0% (90)
Middle Consistents	57.8 (93)	26.7 (43)	15.5 (25)	100.0 (161)
Low Consistents	52.3 (56)	22.4 (24)	25.2 (27)	100.0 (107)

$$\bar{X}^2 : 5.75$$

N.S.

Academic courses were most frequently chosen by all the three levels of consistents but under comparison, the portion preferring academic courses increased with the levels. More of the high consistents were found to choose academic courses than the other two levels. The preference over skill courses, on the other hand, decreased as the levels increased.

#### iv) Motivations

The percentages found in table 29 (from table 25, section C) again confirm the prediction.

A slightly higher portion of the high consistents was socially-motivated when compared with the other two levels. In terms of motivations, middle and low consistents can be said to be motivated by the same set of reasons.

Table 29 LEVEL OF CONSISTENTS AND MOTIVATIONS TOWARDS ADULT EDUCATION

<u>Consistent Level</u>	<u>Motivations</u>		
	Economic	Social	Total
High Consistents	42.9% (55)	57.1% (44)	100.0% (77)
Middle Consistents	46.7 (56)	53.3 (64)	100.0 (120)
Low Consistents	46.6 (34)	53.4 (39)	100.0 (73)

<sup>2</sup>  
X : .31  
N.S.

In short, findings obtained are consistent with the past findings and the predictions made. Level of consistents did correlate positively with the propensity to participate in adult education. High consistents were also more likely to take the institution that approximated their class level and to select academic courses. Slightly more of them than the other levels considered adult education for social purposes.

#### Hypothesis II(b)

when compared with the overrewarded of a moderate degree, the extremely overrewarded will be motivated and have their educational activities planned differently than the moderately overrewarded in the same manner as delineated in I(a)

## i) Intention to Participate

If overrewarding means the feeling of insecurity, the strain would be sharper for the extremely overrewarded. Accordingly, they were expected to have a higher interest in involvement in adult education than the moderates. Extracted from table 22 of section C, table 30 supports this suggestion.

Table 30 DEGREES OF OVERREWARDING AND PARTICIPATION PLANS

<u>Overrewarded</u>	<u>Participation Plans</u>			
	Yes	No	Unded.	Total
Moderates (low education-middle- occupation)	16.8% (17)	61.4% (62)	21.8% (22)	100.0% (101)
Extremes (low education-high occupation)	23.1 (3)	53.8 (7)	23.1 (3)	100.0 (13)

2  
X : .37  
N.S.

With the percentage of the undecided remaining relatively stable, a larger portion of the extremely overrewarded compared to the moderately were found to be ready to enrol in adult education. The prediction received support but the relatively few cases in the

extremely overrewarded category prevents the evidence from being highly significant.

ii) Institution Preferred

Based upon the same rationale as table 30, one would expect to find the extremely overrewarded to be more likely than the moderates to choose institutions of higher learning. The cell size of the extremely overrewarded, again makes any statement tentative.

Table 31 DEGREES OF OVERREWARDING AND INSTITUTION PREFERRED

<u>Overrewarded</u>	<u>Institution Preferred</u>				Total
	Board of Education	College	University	Other Agens.	
Moderates (low education-middle occupation)	50.3% (20)	53.0% (35)	9.1% (6)	7.6% (5)	100.0% (66)
Extremes (low education-high occupation)	10.0 (1)	40.0 (4)	20.0 (2)	30.0 (3)	100.0 (10)

<sup>2</sup>  
X : 6.71  
N.S.

A comparatively higher portion of the extremes was found to prefer university than the moderates. On the other hand, community college was more preferred by the moderates. The finding at hand cannot be said as

giving any support to the prediction made.

### iii) Courses Preferred

No percentage difference was found between the two degrees of overrewarding on courses preferred and the table is not shown. This finding actually goes against the prediction that the more extremely overrewarded would be more likely to choose academic courses.

### iv) Motivations

Finally, the extremely overrewarded were also expected to be more economically oriented as they experienced a more extreme strain. Table 32 supports the prediction made.

Table 32 DEGREES OF OVERREWARDING AND MOTIVATIONS  
TOWARDS ADULT EDUCATION

<u>Overrewarded</u>	<u>Motivations</u>		
	Economic	Social	Total
Moderates (low education-middle occupation)	49.1% (28)	50.9% (29)	100.0% (57)
Extremes (low education-high occu- pation)	83.9 (8)	11.1 (1)	100.0 (9)

$\chi^2 : 4.95$   
 $p < .05$

A very large proportion of the extremes considered adult education for economic purposes when compared to the moderates. In fact, the extremely overrewarded were the only group of the nine types that showed a higher economically-motivated than socially-motivated orientation.

In short, the few cases in all of the extremely overrewarded categories affects the validity of the evidence obtained. The predicted tendencies proposed by hypothesis II(b) receive support from only two indicators (tables 30 and 32). Nevertheless, the overwhelmingly high proportion of the extremely overrewarded considering education for economic purposes seems to support the notion that they are experiencing a sharper strain than the moderates. They may really want to equilibrate their statuses, but as suggested by Clark(1954) and Goldman(1956), these lower educated people might not have a realistic perspective of the necessary procedures to achieve equilibration.

#### Hypothesis II(c)

when compared with the underrewarded of a moderate degree, the extremely underrewarded will be motivated and have their educational activities planned differently than the moderately underrewarded in the same manner as hypothesized in I(b)

## i) Intention to Participate

The extremely underrewarded were expected to have developed a more rejecting attitude toward further education than the moderates. The findings obtained from table 33 (from battle 22) do not support such a hypothesis.

Table 33 DEGREES OF UNDERREWARDING AND PARTICIPATION PLANS

	<u>Participation Plans</u>			
	Yes	No	Unded.	Total
<u>Underrewarded</u>				
Moderates (high education-middle occupation)	39.2% (136)	45.8% (159)	15.0% (52)	100.0% (347)
Extremes (high education-high occupation)	39.1 (43)	40.0 (44)	20.9 (23)	100.0 (110)

$\chi^2$   
: 2.42  
N.S.

The desire to enrol in adult education was the same for the two groups and the original prediction was not supported.

## ii) Institutions Preferred

Those respondents who had gone beyond high school education but were in low occupations were expected to hold a more negative attitude towards institutions of higher learning than those who were in



the middle occupation. Table 34 (from table 23, section C) presents the results.

Table 34 DEGREES OF UNDERREWARDING AND INSTITUTION PREFERRED

<u>Underrewarded</u>	<u>Institution Preferred</u>				<u>Total</u>
	Board of Education	College	Univer- sity	Other Agens.	
Moderates (high education-middle occupation)	14.9% (40)	32.0% (86)	46.5% (125)	6.7% (18)	100.0% (269)
Extremes (high education-low occupation)	34.2 (27)	25.2 (20)	32.9 (26)	7.6 (6)	100.0 (79)

$$\chi^2 = 15.37$$

$$p < .002$$

From this table, it can be seen that the institutions of higher learning (college and university) were less favoured by the extremely underrewarded respondents than the moderates, a finding that corresponds to the prediction.

### iii) Courses Preferred

Based upon the similar rationale of table 34, a lower portion of the extremely underrewarded were expected to prefer academic courses. The expectation is supported by table 35 (from table 24, section C).

Table 35 DEGREES OF UNDERREWARDING AND COURSES PREFERRED

<u>Underrewarded</u>	<u>Courses Preferred</u>			
	Academic	Interest	Skill	Total
Moderates (high education-middle occupation)	65.8% (180)	24.1% (68)	12.1% (34)	100.0% (282)
Extremes (high education-low occupation)	47.2 (42)	30.3 (27)	22.5 (20)	100.0 (89)

$$\chi^2 = 9.19$$

$$p < .02$$

Even though academic courses were more preferred than skill or general courses for both categories, a lesser proportion of the extremely underrewarded occupants preferred academic courses. General interest, and especially skill courses, were more chosen by the extremely than by the moderately underrewarded.

#### iv) Motivations

Finally, the extremely underrewarded were expected to be more socially-oriented because the frustration resulting from being severely underrewarded may have deflated their value for education. Findings from table 36 support this prediction.

A significantly larger proportion of the extremely underrewarded was found to hold a socially-

Table 36 DEGREES OF UNDERREWARDING AND MOTIVATIONS  
TOWARDS ADULT EDUCATION

<u>Underrewarded</u>	<u>Motivations</u>		
	Economic	Social	Total
Moderates (high education-middle occupation)	48.6% (119)	51.4% (126)	100.0% (245)
Extremes (high education-low occupation)	33.8 (25)	66.5 (49)	100.0 (74)

$\chi^2$  : 5.01  
p : .03

motivated orientation towards adult education. While the moderately underrewarded could still be holding to the possibility of upward mobility, such opportunities may have been perceived as less likely by the extremely underrewarded.

In short, the findings show a more severe effect of status inconsistency for the extremely underrewarded. Even though the extremely underrewarded were not found to have a lower intention to enrol in adult education, the other findings support the predictions of hypothesis II(c). Those who are severely underrewarded do appear to behave differently.

In summary, variations in response were found within different levels of the constants, the over-

rewarded and the underrewarded. The high consistents were found to have a different plan and motivation for adult education when compared to the other types of consistents. It is therefore conclusive to say that various levels of consistents make different decisions and hold different orientations towards adult education. In spite of the relatively few persons who were extremely overrewarded, their behavior did not contradict the prediction. The extremely overrewarded may have experienced a sharper feeling of guilt or insecurity. Excepting participation intention, there is indication of a more negative attitude towards further education for the extremely underrewarded.

#### E. Method 4 : A Crosstabulation of Education with Occupation

The method used thus far has combined specific levels of education with specific levels of occupation into a typology of status inconsistency-consistency. The effect of status inconsistency was then measured by evaluating its relation to a series of dependent variables. This indexing method, was not the only method used for examining the phenomenon of status inconsistency however, and this study attempted to review the phenomenon from another approach. Instead of using the typology, education was crosstabulated with occupation and controlled

by the same dependent variables. That is to say, as each variable had three separate categories, the cross-tabulation provided a nine cell table. A comparison was then made between the typology and the three dependent variables.

Hypothesis I together with its subhypotheses were again reanalysed by this new approach. The findings indicated that the index method was a more appropriate tool for the present research. Not all of the findings are to be presented here for a few tables should be sufficient to verify this statement. Table 37 and 38 refer to the institutions preferred. Table 37 contains respondents who preferred community college and table 38, those who preferred university.

Table 37 EDUCATION AND OCCUPATION OF THOSE PREFERRED COMMUNITY COLLEGE

<u>Education</u>	<u>Occupation</u>			Total
	High	Middle	Low	
High	20.3% (27)	64.7% (86)	15.0% (20)	100.0% (133)
Middle	6.5 (9)	54.0 (75)	39.6 (55)	100.0 (139)
Low	4.4 (4)	38.9 (35)	56.7 (51)	100.0 (90)

Tau B : .232  
p < .001

Table 38 EDUCATION AND OCCUPATION OF THOSE PREFERRED UNIVERSITY

<u>Education</u>	<u>Occupation</u>			
	High	Middle	Low	Total
High	18.4% (34)	67.6% (125)	14.1% (26)	100.0% (185)
Middle	10.4 (6)	56.1 (32)	33.3 (19)	100.0 (57)
Low	12.5 (2)	57.5 (6)	50.8 (8)	100.0 (16)

Tau B : .536  
p < .001

For both tables, the percentage presented are the distributions of status patterns within those who had chosen community college or university. Accordingly, when the two tables were compared, no information relevant to the effect of status inconsistency could be obtained but it was found that the correlation between education and occupation were quite similar between the two tables. Whereas, table 23 of section C clearly revealed that university was more favourably preferred over community college by the various high education profiles when compared to other profiles, such an observation was not found using the present method. The higher percentages of the middle column(excepting the low education category) in both tables signified the overrepresentation of these

respondents within those two samples. This approach, therefore, could only present the distribution of status levels of occupation and education but not the effect of status inconsistency as such. In this way, the dependent variables becomes the control variable and instead of reflecting the impact status inconsistency has, it becomes a condition for testing the correlation between occupation and education.

In retrospect, the crosstabulation method may be useful in clientele analysis where the demographic characteristics of the participants are to be compared with the non-participants. This method would also be appropriate for research designed to examine the correlation between education and occupation under different conditions. As far as examining how status inconsistency as an independent variable affects the occupants, only the typology could serve that purpose.

Having examined the effect of status inconsistency, the next step was to examine if the phenomenon observed was merely a result of demographic variables such as sex, age or marital status.

## CHAPTER VI

### THE EFFECTS OF DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

C A methodological problem arose when the present research attempted to examine the effect that demographic variables had on the phenomenon of status inconsistency. The problem emerged as all the methods used so far were found to have their own limitations and none of them would be appropriate for the present pursuit. A review of all the four methods used suggested that the appropriate method for the present use had to be the typological approach - one that combined the various levels of education with occupation into different status profiles. Within this approach, which included method 1 to method 3, the full typology of all status profiles was preferred as it gave specifications not obtainable from other methods. That is to say, method 3 should be the appropriate one for the present purpose. However, as was also found, a full typology of nine status profiles would require a large sample size. Some tables in section C of chapter V already had cells too small to be meaningful, further classifying them by sex, age and marital status could simply proliferate the number of cells. Facing this dilemma, a new method of analysis called method 5 was devised. This new method can be seen as a concise form of method 3. The only difference was in the number



of ranks assigned to each dimensions. Instead of three ranks, method 5 dichotomized each dimension into two ranks, high and low. Following a study done by Baer and others(1976), education was divided into two levels - beyond high school was defined as high and high school or less was defined as low. Occupation levels were also dichotomized into the white collar workers which included the clerical workers and up(including the farmers), and the blue collar workers which included the skilled, unskilled and houseworkers. Combining the two dimensions gave a full typology of four status profiles, namely, the high consistents(high education-white collar workers), the underrewarded(high education-blue collar workers), the low consistents(low education-blue collar workers) and the overrewarded(low education-white collar workers). Similar to method 3, the effect of status inconsistency was also measured by comparing the responses made between the inconsistent profiles with the appropriate consistents. But unlike method 3, this new method did not use a middle rank. There were no categories for the extremes nor the moderates and consequently no observation was possible on the degree of status inconsistency. Because there were a smaller number of types, the number of cases in each was enlarged. Further, while method 1 and method 2 also contained enough cases in their status types, certain status types were combined

into one category which subsequently omitted specifications that could be found in a full typology. Unlike these two methods, method 5 did not combine status profiles into one or two categories but simplified the number of ranks in the dimensions instead. The consistencies in this method were divided into two levels which gave a more accurate account for the phenomenon of status inconsistency. Finally, findings obtained from applying this method to hypothesis I were quite similar to those found from method 3. Omitting the middle rank did not seem to create a serious blurring. Accordingly, method 5 was used for the analysis of the effects that demographic variables had on status inconsistency.

Before proceeding to the control variables, the original findings obtained between status inconsistency and plans for adult education when analysed by method 5 have to be presented as they were the basic findings from which the analysis was derived. The following section is presented for this purpose. Through it, one would also be able to capture the similarities and differences in terms of findings between method 3 and method 5.

#### A. Method 5 : A Typology of Four Types

Hypothesis I(a) and I(b) together with their subhypotheses were reanalysed. Again, the overrewarded were expected to wish to raise their educational status

and the underrewarded were expected to be less inclined towards adult education.

i) Intention to Participate

The striving for security was expected to compel a higher portion of the overrewarded to participate in adult education while disappointment should reduce the portion of the underrewarded participating. Table 39 presents the finding according to the level of education.

Table 39 STATUS INCONSISTENCY AND PARTICIPATION PLANS

<u>Status Profiles</u>	<u>Participation Plans</u>			Total
	Yes	No	Unded.	
High Consistents	36.7% (148)	47.4% (191)	15.9% (64)	100.0% (403)
Underrewarded	37.7 (63)	41.9 (70)	20.4 (34)	100.0 (167)
Low Consistents	19.2 (77)	62.9 (253)	17.9 (72)	100.0 (402)
Overrewarded	21.4 (54)	59.5 (150)	19.0 (48)	100.0 (252)

$$\chi^2 : 48.5$$

$$p < .001$$

Contrary to the predictions, status inconsistency was not found to have any effect upon participation plans of the occupants. Where table 22 of section C (Chapter IV) showed a higher instead of a predicted lower portion of the underrewarded to be participating, this trend was

not observed in the present findings. At the same time, while overrewarding was found to be positively related to participation rates in table 22, such a trend was not observed in the present table. Nevertheless, table 26 points out the distinctive influence of education as could also be seen in table 22. A higher portion of the high education respondents were found to be participating rather than the low education respondents. It was the level of education, not status inconsistency that was really controlling the participation plans.

#### ii) Institution Preferred

In terms of institutions preferred, the over-rewarded were expected to have a higher portion than the low consistents in preferring institutions of higher learning and a reverse trend was expected for the under-rewarded. Table 40 presents the findings obtained.

From the table, it is obvious that education and status inconsistency had a separate impact on the choice of institutions. Similar to table 23 of section C (chapter IV), a larger portion of the high education individuals were found to prefer university rather than the low education ones. The majority of the latter group selected community college instead. Education background therefore differentiated the clients attracted to these two institutions. On the other hand, status inconsistency could also be seen as having its own

Table 40 STATUS INCONSISTENCY AND INSTITUTION PREFERRED

<u>Status Profiles</u>	<u>Institutions</u>				Tot.
	Board of Education	College	Univer- sity	Other Agens.	
High Consistents	17.6% (54)	28.7% (88)	46.4% (143)	7.2% (22)	100.0% (307)
Underrewarded	24.4 (31)	55.4 (45)	55.1 (42)	7.1 (9)	100.0 (127)
Low Consistents	26.0 (77)	48.6 (139)	12.2 (35)	12.2 (35)	100.0 (286)
Overrewarded	25.5 (43)	49.2 (90)	20.8 (38)	6.6 (38)	100.0 (183)

$\chi^2$  98.3  
p .001

influence on the same subject. The high consistents were found to have the highest percentage in choosing university, but when high education was combined with low occupation, the percentage dropped drastically in the predicted direction. Compared to the high consistents, more of the underrewarded preferred community college and the Board of Education. On the other hand, when the overrewarded were compared with the low consistents, a higher portion of the overrewarded was found to choose the university but no such increase was observed in choosing the community college. The prediction that institutions of higher learning would be more attractive

to the overrewarded but less to the underrewarded was verified by the preference for university but not from the preference for community college. In fact, community college was preferred over university by both the underrewarded and the two status types of the low education group. Such a finding perhaps reflects the greater variety of courses offered by the community college which could attract persons from diverse backgrounds.

### iii) Courses Preferred

The overrewarded were expected to show a stronger interest in academic courses as hypothesized in I(a) and a reverse trend was expected for the underrewarded. A higher portion of them, compared to the high consistents, should be more interested in the general interest or skill courses. Table 41 presents the findings obtained.

From the table, it is obvious that status inconsistency, not the level of education, was the major determinant in the choice of courses. As can be seen, while the high consistents had the highest portion in choosing academic courses, the portion of the underrewarded in doing so dropped to a level even less than for those in the low education profiles. More of them preferred the general interest and the skill courses as predicted. Also consistent with the past findings

Table 41 STATUS INCONSISTENCY AND COURSES PREFERRED

<u>Status Profiles</u>	<u>Courses Preferred</u>			
	Academic	Interest	Skill	Total
High Consistents	66.0% (215)	22.4% (73)	11.7% (38)	100.0% (326)
Underrewarded	47.4 (64)	29.6 (40)	23.0 (31)	100.0 (135)
Low Consistents	55.3 (172)	22.0 (71)	24.8 (30)	100.0 (323)
Overrewarded	59.5 (119)	25.0 (50)	15.5 (31)	100.0 (200)

$$\chi^2 : 27.99$$

$$p < .001$$

(table 24, section C, chapter IV) and the predictions made, more of the overrewarded were found to prefer academic courses than the low consistents.

#### iv) Motivations

Finally, more overrewarded were expected to be economically-motivated than the low consistents, but for the underrewarded, they were expected to be more socially-motivated than the high consistents.

Table 42 presents the findings.

For the high education group, even though the high consistents had the largest portion of being economically-motivated, the portion decreased drastically

Table 42 STATUS INCONSISTENCY AND MOTIVATIONS  
TOWARDS ADULT EDUCATION

<u>Status Profiles</u>	<u>Motivations</u>		
	Economic	Social	Total
High Consistents	50.5% (140)	49.4% (137)	100.0% (227)
Underrewarded	51.1 (37)	68.9 (138)	100.0 (239)
Low Consistents	42.5 (101)	57.7 (138)	100.0 (239)
Overrewarded	46.5 (67)	53.5 (77)	100.0 (144)

$$\chi^2 : 15.47$$

$$p < .001$$

for the underrewarded, even lower than the low education respondents. As predicted, more of the underrewarded were socially-motivated than the high consistents. Also as predicted, comparatively more of the overrewarded considered adult education for economic purposes than the low consistents. While the extremely overrewarded of the previous finding (table 25, section C, chapter IV) were found to have the highest percentage of being economically-motivated, the design of the present method precluded such a finding.

In short, even though some categories were omitted, essentially the same results were found from the present method as from the nine type method. Education



was found to be the major determinant in the participation plans, a separate factor in the choice of institutions, but lost its dominance to status inconsistency in determining the choice of courses and motivations. Status inconsistency, on the other hand, was found to exert the most influence when the factor of education was minimized.

In summing up the findings, the high consistents were found to have the largest portion planning to participate, in selecting university, in preferring academic courses and in being economically-motivated than any of the other status types. This finding was in accord with what had been found earlier. It seems that these high consistents, due to their educational background and the work role they occupied, felt more attracted to education especially in intellectual training for its economic values. The low consistents, on the other hand, were found to be the inverse of the high consistents. Because of their background, further education did not represent a high value either in itself or as a means for an end. Only when low education was combined with high occupation was a stronger incentive for higher training witnessed. When compared with the low consistents, a larger portion of the overrewarded was found to prefer university, to select academic courses and to hold an economically-oriented attitude towards adult

education. Three out of four predicted directions were also verified for the underrewarded. Underrewarding therefore, does seem to bring disappointment to the occupants.

The findings obtained support the hypotheses posed previously. Omitting the extreme cases was not found to have created any uncertainty but to have provided enough cases for a more refined analysis. Accordingly, method 5 was used for examining the effect demographic variables might have on the occupant's responses to status inconsistency.

#### B. The Effects of Demographic Variables

Sex, age and marital status were introduced as control variables to assure that findings obtained in the previous section were not merely the result of certain demographic characteristics. Attention was also paid to see if a specific demographic variable would cause a different status inconsistency effect than another variable. Hypothesis III was proposed for this purpose.

#### Hypothesis III

- a) Females will be more affected by overrewarding and less affected by underrewarding than males.

Hypothesis III(a) is based on interpreting sex as a status which itself carries certain role expectations. If the female status is still largely

considered to be submissive, their insecurity feeling should be stronger if they were being overrewarded. Conversely, they should be less affected than males when underrewarded.

If overrewarding affected the females more than the males, a higher proportion of the overrewarded females, in comparison to their male counterparts, should be found in participating adult education, in selecting institutions of higher learning, in preferring academic courses and in being economically-motivated. On the other hand, if underrewarding affected males more than females, there should be a lower proportion exhibiting this behavior of the underrewarded males than that of the females.

i) Intention to Participate

When the original relationship found between status inconsistency and the propensity to participate (table 39) was controlled by sex, the chi square decreased in the male sample but it remained unchanged in the female sample, as can be seen from tables 43 and 44.

As in table 39, status inconsistency was not the major determinant of participation plans and it was the level of education that differentiated the participants from the non-participants in both sexes. Regardless of sex, more of the high education respondents would participate in adult education than would the low

Table 43 STATUS INCONSISTENCY AND PARTICIPATION PLANS  
OF THE MALES

<u>Status Profiles</u>	<u>Participation Plans</u>			Total
	Yes	No	Unded.	
High Consistents	30.0% (51)	54.1% (92)	15.9% (27)	100.0% (170)
Underrewarded	30.8 (16)	46.2 (24)	23.1 (12)	100.0 (52)
Low Consistents	19.6 (22)	62.5 (70)	17.9 (20)	100.0 (112)
Overrewarded	21.4 (12)	62.5 (35)	16.1 (9)	100.0 (56)

<sup>2</sup>  
X : 7.17  
N.S.

Table 44 STATUS INCONSISTENCY AND PARTICIPATION PLANS  
OF THE FEMALES

<u>Status Profiles</u>	<u>Participation Plans</u>			Total
	Yes	No	Unded.	
High Consistents	41.6% (96)	42.2% (98)	16.0% (37)	100.0% (231)
Underrewarded	40.9 (47)	40.0 (46)	19.1 (22)	100.0 (115)
Low Consistents	19.0 (55)	63.1 (183)	17.9 (52)	100.0 (290)
Overrewarded	21.5 (42)	58.5 (114)	20.0 (39)	100.0 (195)

<sup>2</sup>  
X : 48.31  
p < .001

education group. When the educational level was compared between the two sexes, more females of the high education category were planning to participate in adult education than males. More specifically, when the underrewarded of both sexes were compared, a higher portion of the females were found to be participating in further education than males. That is to say, women react to underrewarding by an increase participation rate while men do not do so.

ii) Institution Preferred

Dividing the population into the males and females showed that chi square declined in both samples but more so in the male sample than in the female sample. As was found in table 40, level of education and status inconsistency worked separately in affecting the choice of institution for both sexes as shown in table 45 and 46.

In both tables, a larger portion of the higher educated individuals were found preferring university while more of the lower educated respondents preferred community college. On the other hand, status inconsistency was found to have its own impact upon the institutions preferred as had been found earlier. In both tables, more of the overrewarded were found preferring university than the low consistent. For those who preferred community college, however, overrewarding only initiated a small portion increase in the female sample and even a decrease in the male sample. On the other hand,

Table 45 STATUS INCONSISTENCY AND THE INSTITUTION  
PREFERRED OF THE MALES

<u>Status Profiles</u>	<u>Institution Preferred</u>				Total
	Board of Education	College	Univer- sity	Other Agens.	
High Consistents	14.8% (18)	52.8% (40)	43.4% (53)	9.0% (11)	100.0% (122)
Underrewarded	7.3 (3)	41.5 (17)	30.6 (15)	14.6 (6)	100.0 (41)
Low Consistents	20.8 (16)	49.4 (38)	16.9 (13)	13.0 (10)	100.0 (77)
Overrewarded	14.6 (6)	41.5 (17)	34.1 (14)	9.8 (4)	100.0 (41)

$$\chi^2 = 17.8$$

$$p < .04$$
Table 46 STATUS INCONSISTENCY AND THE INSTITUTION  
PREFERRED OF THE FEMALES

<u>Status Profiles</u>	<u>Institution Preferred</u>				Total
	Board of Education	College	Univer- sity	Other Agens.	
High Consistents	19.5% (36)	25.9% (48)	48.6% (90)	5.9% (11)	100.0% (185)
Underrewarded	32.6 (28)	32.6 (28)	31.4 (27)	3.5 (3)	100.0 (86)
Low Consistents	29.2 (61)	43.3 (101)	10.5 (22)	12.0 (25)	100.0 (209)
Overrewarded	26.2 (37)	51.1 (72)	17.0 (24)	5.7 (8)	100.0 (141)

$$\chi^2 = 92.5$$

$$p < .001$$

when the underrewarded were compared with the high consistents, a low portion of the former who preferred university was witnessed in both tables. The portion who preferred community college was increased in both tables. The finding was similar to the results in table 40.

When the male sample was compared to the female sample, some interesting findings not obtainable from the original table were found. More males, except in the high consistent category, were found to prefer university than females who preferred the Board of Education. More specifically, a comparison between the male and female underrewarded shows more of the males preferred both university and college than females. That is to say, underrewarding induced a higher portion of males to choose institutions of higher learning and females to choose the Board of Education. On the other hand, when the overrewarded of the two subsamples were compared, more males were found to prefer university than females but in those who preferred community college, the reverse was found. This finding suggests that the occupations that overrewarded males hold are actually higher than those of the overrewarded females and consequently more males are attracted to university and females to community college.

### iii) Courses Preferred

When gender was introduced, the chi square declined in both tables but more so in the male sample than in the female sample. For both sexes, however, it was status inconsistency, not the level of education as found in table 41 that determined the choice of courses, as shown in tables 47 and 48.

In both tables, when compared with the appropriate consistent, underrewarding was found to have initiated a predicted decrease for those who preferred academic courses and overrewarding was found to have generated a larger portion who preferred academic courses.

When the males were compared with the females, more of the males, with the exception of the high consistent category, were found to prefer academic courses than females. More specifically, when the underrewarded were compared between the two tables, a higher portion of the males was found preferring academic courses than their female counterparts. In other words, females react to underrewarding by taking non-academic courses. On the other hand, when the overrewarded were compared between the two sexes, slightly more of the males were again found preferring academic courses than the females. Instead of the predicted directions, the finding therefore suggests that males are more likely than females



Table 47 STATUS INCONSISTENCY AND COURSES PREFERRED OF THE MALES

<u>Status Profiles</u>	<u>Courses Preferred</u>			
	Academic	Interest	Skill	Total
High Consistents	65.5% (87)	25.4% (32)	13.1% (18)	100.0 (137)
Underrewarded	57.8 (26)	22.2 (10)	20.0 (9)	100.0 (45)
Low Consistents	54.0 (47)	17.2 (15)	28.7 (25)	100.0 (87)
Overrewarded	66.0 (31)	17.0 (8)	17.0 (8)	100.0 (47)

$\chi^2$  : 9.37  
N.S.

Table 48 STATUS INCONSISTENCY AND COURSES PREFERRED OF THE FEMALES

<u>Status Profiles</u>	<u>Courses Preferred</u>			
	Academic	Interest	Skill	Total
High Consistents	68.4% (128)	20.9% (39)	10.7% (20)	100.0% (137)
Underrewarded	42.2 (38)	33.3 (30)	24.4 (22)	100.0 (90)
Low Consistents	55.0 (125)	23.7 (56)	23.3 (55)	100.0 (236)
Overrewarded	57.5 (88)	27.5 (42)	15.0 (23)	100.0 (153)

$\chi^2$  : 24.77  
p < .001

to prefer academic courses regardless of the forms of status inconsistency.

#### iv) Motivations

When gender was introduced as a control variable, the chi square was enlarged in the female sample but was found to have decreased in the male sample. Tables 49 and 50 present the findings obtained.

As was found in the original table (table 42), when compared to their own consistents, less of the under-rewarded in both sexes were found to be economically-motivated. Also similar to the original finding, a slightly higher portion of the overrewarded relative to the low consistents were found to be economically-motivated in both tables. When the two tables were compared, sex was found to be an important determinant in attitudes held towards adult education as significantly more of the males (with the exception of the high consistent profile) were found to be economically-motivated than the females. When the underrewarded were compared between the two tables, more females were found to be socially-motivated than males. That is to say, males react to underrewarding by a higher aspiration than females. Similarly, a comparison between the overrewarded of the two sexes also showed a higher portion of the males who were economically-motivated. That is to say, more males were found

Table 49 STATUS INCONSISTENCY AND MOTIVATIONS OF THE MALES

<u>Status Profiles</u>	<u>Motivations</u>		
	Economic	Social	Total
High Consistents	47.0% (54)	53.0% (61)	100.0% (115)
Underrewarded	42.1 (16)	57.9 (22)	100.0 (38)
Low Consistents	59.4 (38)	40.6 (26)	100.0 (64)
Overrewarded	62.5 (20)	37.5 (12)	100.0 (32)

$\chi^2$   
X : 5.43  
N.S.

Table 50 STATUS INCONSISTENCY AND MOTIVATIONS OF THE FEMALES

<u>Status Profiles</u>	<u>Motivations</u>		
	Economic	Social	Total
High Consistents	53.8% (86)	46.3% (74)	100.0% (160)
Underrewarded	25.9 (21)	74.1 (60)	100.0 (81)
Low Consistents	36.0 (63)	64.0 (112)	100.0 (175)
Overrewarded	41.4 (46)	58.6 (65)	100.0 (111)

$\chi^2$   
X : 20.13  
p < .001

economically-motivated than females in both forms of status inconsistency.

In short, the findings obtained when controlled by sex validated the observations made in the previous section. No tables reversing the original findings were found. Education was still the major determinant in the participation decision, a secondary determinant in the choice of institutions and lost its influence to status inconsistency for the other variables. The impact of status inconsistency was still found to be at its peak when the effect of education was at its minimum. Sex, as a variable, was found to exert its own influence on the decisions upon adult education. Chi square was smaller in all the male tables than in the female tables. With the exception of the high consistent type, a higher portion of the males was found to be interested in university, in academic courses and to be economically-motivated. Males seemed to have a more intensive interest in intellectual training and its economic value than females. Women take courses more for social reasons. When the high consistent females were compared with the male counterparts, a reverse tendency was observed. Females of this specific profile were found to be more interested in higher training and its economic values than males. This observation lends support to the assumption of the present hypothesis.

Even though all the variables were largely independent of each other, there is a suggestion that females occupying high level occupation with a high level of education are actually experiencing another form of status inconsistency. The status of being a female contributes negatively to the seeming equilibrium position. She is not supposed to occupy a relatively high occupational role. As sex can still be considered as a non-mutable status, females of this specific type would be tempted to compensate the status loss by increasing the investment in education to create an objectively evaluated underrewarding position. The overrewarded females, on the other hand, were not found to have this tendency when compared with the male counterparts. When the overrewarded were compared between the two sexes, more males were found selecting university, preferring academic courses and to be economically-motivated than females. That is to say, overrewarding encourages more males to further education especially for its economic value than it does females. Overrewarding, with its assumption of insecurity, therefore affects the males more than the females instead of as predicted. Being a female and at the same time occupying an occupation which is higher than her level of education impresses her to consider herself as one of those who have it made.

In spite of her sexual status and education background, she has achieved a high occupation role, further education therefore is not necessary.

When the underrewarded males and females were compared, with the exception of participation plans where education was the dominant factor, again, more males were found selecting institutions of higher learning, preferring academic courses and being more economically motivated than females. That is to say, while both are underrewarded, males are still more in favour of education for its economic means than females. The proposition that females would be less affected by underrewarding is not supported therefore. Instead, the status disadvantage combines with the experience of underrewarding to impel more of the females to give up on further education. They are not interested in higher education as education is mainly for social purposes. Males, on the other hand, are more ambitious when underrewarded than females. Males may consider the setback as temporary and consequently are less disenchanted towards education than females.

In conclusion, even though the predicted direction was not found, the assumption of sex as a status variable seems to have accounted for the reverse findings. Males are more affected by overrewarding and less affected by underrewarding than females.

## Hypothesis III

- b) The younger generation will be more affected by overrewarding and less affected by underrewarding than the older generation.

Work experience, presumably measured by age, is another form of investment which will extend the feeling of security in an overrewarded position. The younger generation, presumably has less experience will therefore be more affected by overrewarding but less affected by underrewarding than the older generation.

If the younger generation was more affected by overrewarding than the older generation, more of them when compared with the older generation should be found participating in adult education, selecting institutions of higher learning, preferring academic courses and economically-motivated. On the other hand, one would expect a smaller portion of the young underrewarded to exhibit these behaviors than the older generation.

The original population was broken down into those who were 30 years or less and those who were between 31 and 65. There were too few cases of respondents over 65 years of age and they were subsequently excluded.

i) Intention To Participate

The chi square obtained from the original table(table 39) between status inconsistency and part-

icipation plans was found decreased when controlled by age and more so for the younger generation than for the older generation, as can be seen from tables 51 and 52.

Regardless of age, the effect of status inconsistency was minimal and it was the amount of education that a respondent had that determined the participation plans. On the other hand, age was found to have its own influence on participation plans. When the two age groups were compared, more of the younger respondents, regardless of status type, were found to be participating in adult education and the distinction was obviously sharper in the low education profiles.

Table 51 STATUS INCONSISTENCY AND PARTICIPATION PLANS OF THOSE UNDER THIRTY YEARS OF AGE

<u>Status Profiles</u>	<u>Participation Plans</u>			Total
	Yes	No	Undecided	
High Consistents	38.6% (81)	44.3% (93)	17.1% (36)	100.0% (210)
Underrewarded	40.9 (36)	39.8 (35)	19.3 (17)	100.0 (88)
Low Consistents	27.3 (45)	63.6 (103)	8.6 (14)	100.0 (162)
Overrewarded	25.6 (31)	56.2 (68)	18.2 (22)	100.0 (121)

<sup>2</sup>  
 $\chi^2 : 23.25$   
 $p < .001$



Table 52 STATUS INCONSISTENCY AND PARTICIPATION PLANS  
OF THOSE OVER THIRTY YEARS OF AGE

<u>Status Profiles</u>	<u>Institution Preferred</u>			Total
	Yes	No	Undecided	
High Consistents	35.9% (61)	51.1% (92)	15.0% (27)	100.0% (180)
Underrewarded	36.0 (27)	41.3 (31)	22.7 (17)	100.0 (75)
Low Consistents	13.5 (31)	62.4 (143)	24.0 (55)	100.0 (229)
Overrewarded	17.8 (23)	62.0 (80)	20.0 (26)	100.0 (129)

$\chi^2$  : 55.36  
p < .001

## ii) Institution Preferred

Dividing the population into two age groups did not change the general observation made between status inconsistency and institution preferred as found in table 40 nor did age give any additional information that could be used for clarifying the original findings. The findings are therefore not presented.

## iii) Courses Preferred

When the original correlation between status inconsistency and the choice of courses (table 41) were controlled by age, some interesting findings were obtained as can be seen in tables 53 and 54.

Table 53 STATUS INCONSISTENCY AND COURSES PREFERRED OF THOSE UNDER THIRTY YEARS OF AGE

<u>Status Profiles</u>	<u>Courses Preferred</u>			
	Academic	Interest	Skill	Total
High Consistents	70.6% (120)	19.4% (19.4)	10.0% (17)	100.0% (170)
Underrewarded	52.1 (37)	25.4 (18)	22.5 (16)	100.0 (71)
Low Consistents	54.9 (73)	23.5 (31)	21.8 (29)	100.0 (133)
Overrewarded	66.7 (64)	25.0 (24)	8.3 (8)	100.0 (96)

$$X^2 : 18.55$$

$$p < .006$$

Table 54 STATUS INCONSISTENCY AND COURSES PREFERRED OF THOSE OVER THIRTY YEARS OF AGE

<u>Status Profiles</u>	<u>Courses Preferred</u>			
	Academic	Interest	Skill	Total
High Consistents	61.2% (90)	25.2% (37)	13.6% (20)	100.0% (147)
Underrewarded	44.5 (27)	32.8 (20)	25.0 (14)	100.0 (61)
Low Consistents	52.2 (95)	20.9 (33)	26.9 (49)	100.0 (132)
Overrewarded	52.9 (55)	25.0 (26)	22.1 (23)	100.0 (104)

$$X^2 : 12.13$$

$$p < .05$$

First of all, with the possible exception of the low consistents, more of the young respondents preferred academic courses than the older generation. Age level therefore differentiated the potential in choosing academic courses. Secondly, overrewarding was found to have induced an increased portion of the younger respondents to choose academic courses, the older respondents, on the other hand, seemed to be immune to this inconsistency effect. When the overrewarded of the two age groups were compared, a significantly higher portion of the younger generation was found preferring academic courses. This finding supported the claim that overrewarding would be a more threatening experience for the younger generation than for the older ones. Thirdly, high consistents in both groups had the largest portion in preferring academic courses relatively to their own sample and the percentage dropped when underrewarded. But when the proportion of the underrewarded who preferred academic courses were compared between the two tables, more of the younger generation were found selecting this area than their older counterparts. According to this finding, younger respondents were still interested in academic courses when underrewarded. This findings therefore supported the claim that the younger generation would be less affected by being underrewarded.

#### iv) Motivations

As can be seen from tables 55 and 56, more of the younger respondents, with the possible exception of the underrewarded category, were found to be economically-motivated than those who were over 30.

Even though the original chi square was decreased in both tables, when compared with their own consistents, underrewarding showed a predicted decrease in those who were economically-motivated in both samples. When the underrewarded in both age groups were compared, the portion of those who were economically-motivated were not different from each other. The claim that underrewarding would affect the younger ones less was not supported therefore. Furthermore, regardless of status profiles, more of the young lower educated respondents were economically-motivated than the older generation. A comparison of the overrewarded of both samples showed a higher proportion of the younger generation of being economically-motivated. This finding therefore supported the claim that the younger generation would be more affected by overrewarding.

In general, when the two age groups were compared, the younger generation was found to be more ambitious than the older generation. More of the young respondents of all status types were found to be participating in adult education, to be choosing academic courses and to

Table 55 STATUS INCONSISTENCY AND MOTIVATIONS OF THOSE  
UNDER THIRTY YEARS OF AGE

<u>Status Profiles</u>	<u>Motivations</u>		
	Economic	Social	Total
High Consistents	54.0% (81)	46.0% (69)	100.0% (150)
Underrewarded	32.8 (21)	67.2 (45)	100.0 (64)
Low Consistents	55.9 (57)	44.1 (45)	100.0 (102)
Overrewarded	58.4 (45)	41.6 (32)	100.0 (77)

2  
X<sup>2</sup> : 11.57  
p < .01

Table 56 STATUS INCONSISTENCY AND MOTIVATIONS OF THOSE  
OVER THIRTY YEARS OF AGE

<u>Status Profiles</u>	<u>Motivations</u>		
	Economic	Social	Total
High Consistents	46.6% (54)	53.4% (62)	100.0% (116)
Underrewarded	30.2 (16)	69.8 (37)	100.0 (53)
Low Consistents	32.8 (45)	67.2 (33)	100.0 (131)
Overrewarded	33.3 (22)	66.7 (44)	100.0 (66)

2  
X<sup>2</sup> : 6.96  
N.S.

be economically-motivated. The distinction was especially obvious when the low education categories of the two samples were compared. While the young lower educated respondents would still take education for its intellectual benefit and for its economic values, the older generation seemed to have no more incentives for advancement. In terms of the effect of inconsistency on the two age groups, more overrewarded young respondents than the older generation were found participating, selecting academic courses and to be economically-motivated. The lack of work experience, as predicted, did initiate a more threatening experience to the younger generation when overrewarded. Underrewarding, on the other hand, was found to have a similar impact upon both age groups. Accordingly, it is possible to say that neither the ambitious characteristics endowed in the younger generation nor the lack of work experience suffered by them created any specific reaction to underrewarding.

### Hypothesis III

- c) The singles will be more affected by overrewarding but less affected by underrewarding than the married.

The general observation found between status inconsistency and each of the four indicators remained unchanged when controlled by marital status. Level of education was the major determinant in participation plans, a separate independent variable in the choice

of institutions but lost its importance to status inconsistency in the other two indicators. At the same time, choice of courses was the only indicator where the singles differed from the married. It was the same indicator that overrewarding was found to have a stronger impact on the singles than on the married. Consequently, only the findings on the choice of courses are to be presented, as in table 57 and 58.

With the exception of the low consistent category, singles of other status profiles were found to be more interested in academic courses than the married. When the effect of underrewarding was considered in the two tables, it was found to have reduced those who preferred academic courses as predicted. However, a comparison between the underrewarded of the two groups showed a higher proportion of the singles preferring academic courses than the married, a finding which supported the hypothesis proposed. Overrewarding, on the other hand, not only induced an expected increase, but also when the two tables were compared, a slightly higher proportion of the singles was found preferring academic courses as predicted. Furthermore, the original chi square was weakened in both tables which showed that marital status was an important determinant in terms of the choice of courses..

Table 57 STATUS INCONSISTENCY AND COURSES PREFERRED OF THE SINGLES

<u>Status Profiles</u>	<u>Courses Preferred</u>			
	Academic	Interest	Skill	Total
High Consistents	76.0% (79)	20.2% (21)	3.8% (4)	100.0% (104)
Underrewarded	61.1 (11)	16.7 (3)	22.2 (4)	100.0 (18)
Low Consistents	50.8 (30)	25.4 (15)	23.7 (14)	100.0 (59)
Overrewarded	62.7 (42)	29.9 (20)	7.5 (5)	100.0 (67)

$\chi^2$   
 $\chi^2 : 22.38$   
 $p < .002$

Table 58 STATUS INCONSISTENCY AND COURSES PREFERRED OF THE MARRIED

<u>Status Profiles</u>	<u>Courses Preferred</u>			
	Academic	Interest	Skill	Total
High Consistents	61.3% (117)	22.0% (42)	16.8% (32)	100.0% (191)
Underrewarded	45.5 (50)	30.9 (34)	16.8 (26)	100.0 (110)
Low Consistents	54.0 (123)	22.4 (53)	23.6 (56)	100.0 (237)
Overrewarded	56.1 (64)	23.7 (27)	20.2 (23)	100.0 (114)

$\chi^2$   
 $\chi^2 : 3.85$   
 N.S.



In summary, the original concern of this chapter was to examine what effect different demographic variables might have on status inconsistency. A new method which would give large enough cell size for this type of analysis was devised and its credibility was subsequently established in section A. Findings obtained from method 5 supported three out of four predictions and matched with what was previously found. Over-rewarding was found to have induced a larger number of respondents in selecting university, academic courses and being economically-motivated when compared with the low consistent. Underrewarding, on the other hand, showed a lower response to the same indicators. Level of education was also found to be an influential factor in participation plans and institutions preferred. When controlled separately by age, sex and marital status, the chi square of the subtables was found to be smaller than the original tables. Being a male or female and young or old, therefore, differentiated the responses made to status inconsistency. Even though the findings did not turn out in the predicted directions as hypothesized in III(a), certain interesting findings accountable by the assumption of female status being a more submissive one were obtained. Female status seemed to have created another form of status inconsistency for the high con-

sistents. This submissive status however, instead of making underrewarding more acceptable for them, seemed to have aggravated the effect and compelled them to give up the hope for advancement. When the submissive status was combined with overrewarding, education was deemed unnecessary by the majority of this type of females. For the males, with the exception of the high consistents, more of them were found participating, selecting academic courses, preferring institutions of higher learning and economically motivated. They were found to be more ambitious than females.

Age was also found to have an impact on three out of four dependent variables, the exception being the choice of institution. Besides the fact that in general they were more ambitious than the older generation, the lack of work experience did compel a higher proportion of them to participate in adult education, to select academic courses and to be economically-motivated. The same factor did not differentiate the responses to underrewarding in three out of four indicators, however. Neither was marital status found to be an important factor. It was found to have an impact only on the choice of courses.

## CHAPTER VII

### CONCLUSION

#### A. Summary and Discussion

The purpose of this thesis was to examine the effect status inconsistency had on the plans made upon adult education. As the theory of status inconsistency alone was inadequate in making precise predictions, other theories and empirical findings were incorporated to predict the responses made by the various forms of inconsistency in terms of participation plans, the choice of institution, the preference on courses, and motivations. Three major hypotheses were accordingly established and were tested by various methods utilizing a sample previously collected for another purpose.

Two different methods, namely, the objective ranking method and the standard deviation approach were used to differentiate the consistent from the inconsistent. As the classifications obtained from them were almost identical, separate analysis was not pursued. The responses made by these quantitatively defined consistent and inconsistent were then examined by various methods of comparison for testing the hypotheses established. Of all the findings obtained, only those from method 3 and method 5 were found to be appropriate for testing the hypotheses. Without differentiating

the various levels of consistents and the degree of inconsistency, findings obtained from method 1 and method 2 were found to have omitted certain specifications crucial to a study of status inconsistency. In fact, neither method 1 nor method 2 were able to test the predictions proposed by the second hypothesis. Cross-tabulating education and occupation as two variables instead of indexing them was also found to be inappropriate for this study. With these methodological connotations, it is obvious that a full typology should be the appropriate tool to study the phenomenon of status inconsistency.

Pertaining to hypothesis I, findings obtained from method 3 show that even though all types of inconsistent had plans different from their own consistent, the hypothesized tendency for the overrewarded to be more attracted to adult education did not exist for all types of the overrewarded. The tendency seems to be entirely accounted for by the moderately overrewarded low education respondents and the extremely overrewarded occupants. It is only these two overly rewarded types that a higher proportion of them compared to the low consistent were found to be participating in adult education, in selecting institutions of higher learning, in preferring academic courses and in holding a more economically based attitude towards adult education. No such tendency

was found when the moderately overrewarded middle education respondents were compared with the middle consistent. These findings suggest that even though overrewarding is a stressful experience, not all overrewarded types react to the situation uniformly. While the respondents of the two former types attempted to raise their educational level, respondents of the latter type might shift the relative importance of the two dimensions and to consider whatever they had achieved in the work world as a success.

Similarly, with the exception of one underrewarded profile, the data supported the hypothesis predicting that underrewarded inconsistent would be less attracted to adult education than the consistent. As predicted, a lower proportion of the moderately underrewarded middle education group and the extremely underrewarded respondents were found to be interested in participation, in institutions of higher learning, in academic courses and in holding an economically based attitude towards adult education than their respective consistent. For the moderately underrewarded high education respondents, a higher instead of a lower proportion of them were found in all the above indicators when compared to the high consistent. Again, these findings point out that various underrewarded types react to underrewarding in dissimilar manners.

Conceived chances of upward mobility was suggested to

account for the exception.

In short, plans for adult education are associated with status inconsistency regardless of the specific relations of the status variables. Since this thesis has merely assumed the feeling of insecurity and disappointment without directly measuring them, they remain assumptions particularly applicable to the present study. Nevertheless, some insights can be derived. The overrewarded and the underrewarded do have dissimilar plans for adult education than the consistent. They also show that within overrewarding and underrewarding, certain subtypes have a stronger impact than others and not all subtypes react to inconsistency in a similar manner. Status inconsistency as a perspective does differentiate the behavioral and attitudinal difference between categories of people on plans made for adult education.

The second hypothesis was also supported from the findings obtained. In both over and underrewarding, the effect of inconsistency was sharper in the extreme levels than in the moderate levels. It is therefore conclusive to say that the higher the inconsistency, the sharper the strain experienced. Different levels of consistent were also found to have dissimilar plans and a positive relationship was found between the level of consistent with the proportion interested in

participation, in selecting university, in preferring academic courses and in being economically motivated. The high consistents, therefore, can be said to have a higher level of aspiration.

Due to the problem of cell size, method 3 was not applied to test the third hypothesis. A new method was devised. Instead of three ranks, each dimension was divided into two ranks. With a full typology of four types, it gave enough cases for examining the effect of demographic variables. It must be emphasized that the more refined the status profiles are, the more accurate is the result obtained. A sixteen type typology (each dimension has four ranks) will give a more accurate account of status inconsistency than a nine-type does. The only disadvantage being that a greater number of status profiles requires a larger sample of respondents. Reducing the nine type typology to four types is a consequence of the sample size of this study.

The results obtained from this method were found to be similar to those obtained from a nine type; the findings supported hypothesis I in the same manner as the nine type did. In addition, education was also found to be the major determinant in participation plans and a separate determinant in the choice of institutions. Status inconsistency, on the other hand, was found to have partial influence on the choice of institutions.

and had an exclusive impact on courses chosen and motivation. When the original findings were controlled by age, sex and marital status, the original chi square between status inconsistency and the dependent variables were generally weakened - being male or female, young or old was found to have different effects on status inconsistency. The third hypothesis was partially supported therefore. The younger generation was found to be more ambitious than the older generation. The lack of work experience seemed to compel a higher proportion of the younger generation to be participating, to select academic courses and to be economically-motivated. This lack of work experience, however, did not seem to be rationally recognized by the young under-rewarded as one of the reasons why they were being under-rewarded as age did not differentiate responses made to underrewarding. Males of all status profiles, except in the high consistent category, were also found to be more attracted to higher education and be motivated by economic values. The exception suggested that female high consistent are actually undergoing another form of status inconsistency to which they can only compensate through investing more in education. However, when the submissive status is combined with overrewarding, it precipitates the females to defy the value of education and when it is combined with underrewarding, it inhibits



their aspiration to achieve advancement. All these alternative suggestions proposed are tentative and closer investigation of them is not possible under the present study.

In conclusion, occupants of different status profiles have different plans for adult education and the status inconsistency theory gives us a perspective to systematize and analyse them. Even though there are still theoretical and methodological difficulties, this thesis has proven that holding disparate rank patterns affects one's plans for further education and the impact increases with the discrepancy experienced. Different demographic characteristics have also proven to have dissimilar responses. The concept of status inconsistency has, once again, proven to be useful in differentiating behavioral and attitudinal difference of various categories of people.

#### B. Limitations and Suggestions

Even though the design of this thesis aims at avoiding the pitfalls committed by other status inconsistency research, it has its own limitations largely because of the data it used. First of all, as the data included only the education and occupation hierarchies, other dimensions like income and religion which have been frequently used by other researchers were omitted

and should be included in future studies. Secondly, unincluded extraneous variables like the occupation and education level of spouse may have significant impact on the reactions of the inconsistent. Future research, therefore, should have a more extensive list of extraneous variables to guard against these effects. Thirdly, the age classification used in this thesis covers such a wide range that certain specifications within a specific age range would have been missed. More refined age categories should be used in future research. Fourthly, all the dependent variable indicators were constructed upon the intention of the respondents which might be different from their actual behaviors. Even though the data collected contained information about previous participation, the proportion was so small that further division of them into various status profiles would produce insignificant results. Nevertheless, precautions against the difference between intentions and actual behaviors should be noted. Fifthly, due to the limitation of the data, this thesis did not empirically determine the exact nature of the expectations between the two scales existing in the population under study. Accordingly, the status profiles developed are not subjective measures but are objectively imposed by the researcher. To define the consistent and inconsistent

profiles from the viewpoint of the respondents instead of objective rankings is also another way, and may be even better than what has been used, to study the phenomenon of status inconsistency. Finally, there is a theoretical problem which is not only present in this study, but has also been a common error of all status inconsistency research. In this thesis, the kind of strain the overrewarded and the underrewarded experienced was assumed rather than proven or directly measured. The theoretical framework of the research would have been consolidated if the feeling of insecurity and disappointment experienced by the various forms of inconsistencies had been proven; indexed and correlated with the dependent variables. Further studies, therefore, should have the kind of strain experienced by the various profiles empirically examined before correlating them with any dependent variable.

In spite of these faults, this thesis is one of the few that puts the Status Equilibration Hypothesis to empirical test. Plans for adult education are not, of course, the only dependent variable and it is interesting to examine the hypotheses by some other dependent variables, for example, the intensity of the hope for upward mobility either in the educational hierarchy or in the occupational hierarchy or both. Furthermore, this thesis is also one of the few studies of status

inconsistency that makes precise predictions before analysing the data. In addition, the alternative arguments suggested throughout the thesis open the door for more detailed investigation. But the main contribution of this thesis is in the methodological aspect. This study is the only one of its kind that operates on a full typology and makes comparisons between the inconsistent with the appropriate level of consistent. Limitations of various methods have also been demonstrated. Comparatively speaking, a full typology is a more superior tool for examining the phenomenon of status inconsistency than any other approach. A full typology of additional status types would, ideally, give a better measure, but there is a problem in obtaining a sufficient number of cases, especially those of the extreme categories. A four typology has been proven to be quite similar to a more elaborated one and can be used for smaller sample. A full typology should become the standard tool used for future research and the dimension of the typology should depend on the number of respondents.

The test of status inconsistency is far from being perfect in this thesis but to adopt the suggestions proposed by this thesis will make the study of status inconsistency contribute more than it has now to the study of human behavior.

APPENDIX I THE INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

1. Male ☐ Female ☐
2. What is your marital status ?  
single ☐ married ☐ single parent ☐  
separated ☐ divorced ☐ other ☐  
widowed ☐
3. Do you have any children ? How many ?  
none ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐  
5 or more ☐
4. Your age falls in the range of  
under 16 ☐ 16 - 30 ☐ 31 - 45 ☐  
46 - 64 ☐ 65 and over ☐  
Ask question #5 only when the respondent is 65  
or over
5. Have you heard of taking courses in continuing  
education without charge if you are 65 or over ?  
Yes ☐ No ☐
6. How long have you lived in Windsor ?  
under 1 year ☐ 1 - 3 years ☐ 4 - 10 years ☐  
10 years and over ☐
7. Is your residence a  
house ☐ town ☐ apartment ☐ student  
residence ☐ condominium ☐ other ☐

8. Hand the map to the respondent and have them point out the area where they live.

1 \_\_\_\_ 2 \_\_\_\_ 3 \_\_\_\_ 4 \_\_\_\_ 5 \_\_\_\_ 6 \_\_\_\_  
 7 \_\_\_\_ 8 \_\_\_\_ 9 \_\_\_\_ 10 \_\_\_\_ 11 \_\_\_\_  
 12 \_\_\_\_ 13 \_\_\_\_ 14 \_\_\_\_ 15 \_\_\_\_ 16 \_\_\_\_

9. What is your employment status ?

employed full time \_\_\_\_ housework \_\_\_\_  
 employed part time \_\_\_\_ retired \_\_\_\_  
 seeking employment \_\_\_\_ other \_\_\_\_  
 student \_\_\_\_

10. What kind of work do you do ?

professionals(doctors, lawyers) \_\_\_\_  
 managerials(administrators, managers) \_\_\_\_  
 homemaker \_\_\_\_  
 semi-professionals(social workers, teachers) \_\_\_\_  
 clerical(salesman, cashiers, secretaries) \_\_\_\_  
 skilled workers(foreman, operator) \_\_\_\_  
 unskilled workers(labourers, janitors) \_\_\_\_  
 farmer \_\_\_\_  
 other \_\_\_\_

11. What is the highest level of education that you have completed ?

less than grade 8 \_\_\_\_ grade 9 - 11 \_\_\_\_  
 grade 12 - 13 \_\_\_\_ some university or college \_\_\_\_  
 college graduate \_\_\_\_ university graduate \_\_\_\_  
 post-graduate studies \_\_\_\_ others \_\_\_\_

12. Are you aware that the Board of Education and some other organizations are offering a variety of courses that you can take?

Yes \_\_\_ No \_\_\_

13. Did you know that the courses offered are divided into credit courses and general interest courses?

Yes \_\_\_ No \_\_\_

if no from above questions, skip questions 14 and 15

14. Did you take any courses in continuing education during 76/77?

Yes \_\_\_ No \_\_\_

15. Did you take it from the Board of Education? If no, where did you take it from?

Board of Education \_\_\_ University \_\_\_

Parks and Recreation \_\_\_ YM/YWCA \_\_\_

Community College \_\_\_ other (specify) \_\_\_

was it credit \_\_\_ general interest \_\_\_ both \_\_\_

16. Are you going to take courses in continuing education this fall?

Yes \_\_\_ No \_\_\_ Undecided \_\_\_

17. If yes, which organization would you be likely to take a course from?

If no, if you were going to take a course which organization would you take it from?

If undecided, supposing you were to take a course, which organization would you take it from?

Board of Education (credit courses) \_\_\_

Board of Education (general interest program) \_\_\_

both \_\_\_ YM/YWCA \_\_\_ Parks and Recreation \_\_\_

community college \_\_\_ University \_\_\_

others (specify) \_\_\_ have not decided \_\_\_

18. Which time of the day would you be available to take courses ? \_\_\_\_\_

19. Which days ? \_\_\_\_\_

20. If yes, what is your main reason for taking the course ?

If no, why do you think other people would be interested in taking continuing education courses ?

to upgrade qualification \_\_\_\_\_

to work for a diploma \_\_\_\_\_

to learn particular skills \_\_\_\_\_

personal interest \_\_\_\_\_ for a hobby \_\_\_\_\_

other(specify) \_\_\_\_\_ to get out and meet people \_\_\_\_\_

don't know \_\_\_\_\_

21. If yes, why do you think people might not be interested in continuing education courses ?

If no, what is your main reason for not taking courses ?

have young children to care for \_\_\_\_\_

not interested in the offered courses. \_\_\_\_\_

don't feel qualified \_\_\_\_\_ can't afford it \_\_\_\_\_

don't have enough spare time \_\_\_\_\_

because of shift work \_\_\_\_\_ too tired after work \_\_\_\_\_

the courses are too far away \_\_\_\_\_ other(specify) \_\_\_\_\_

not familiar with the program \_\_\_\_\_ don't know \_\_\_\_\_

22. What type of activities typically occupy your evenings in the fall and winter ?

watching T.V. \_\_\_\_\_ social \_\_\_\_\_

physical fitness activities \_\_\_\_\_

spending time with your children \_\_\_\_\_



## 22. cont'd

working around home or car \_\_\_\_  
hobbies \_\_\_\_ church or community work \_\_\_\_  
job related activities(job or school work) \_\_\_\_  
other(specify) \_\_\_\_\_

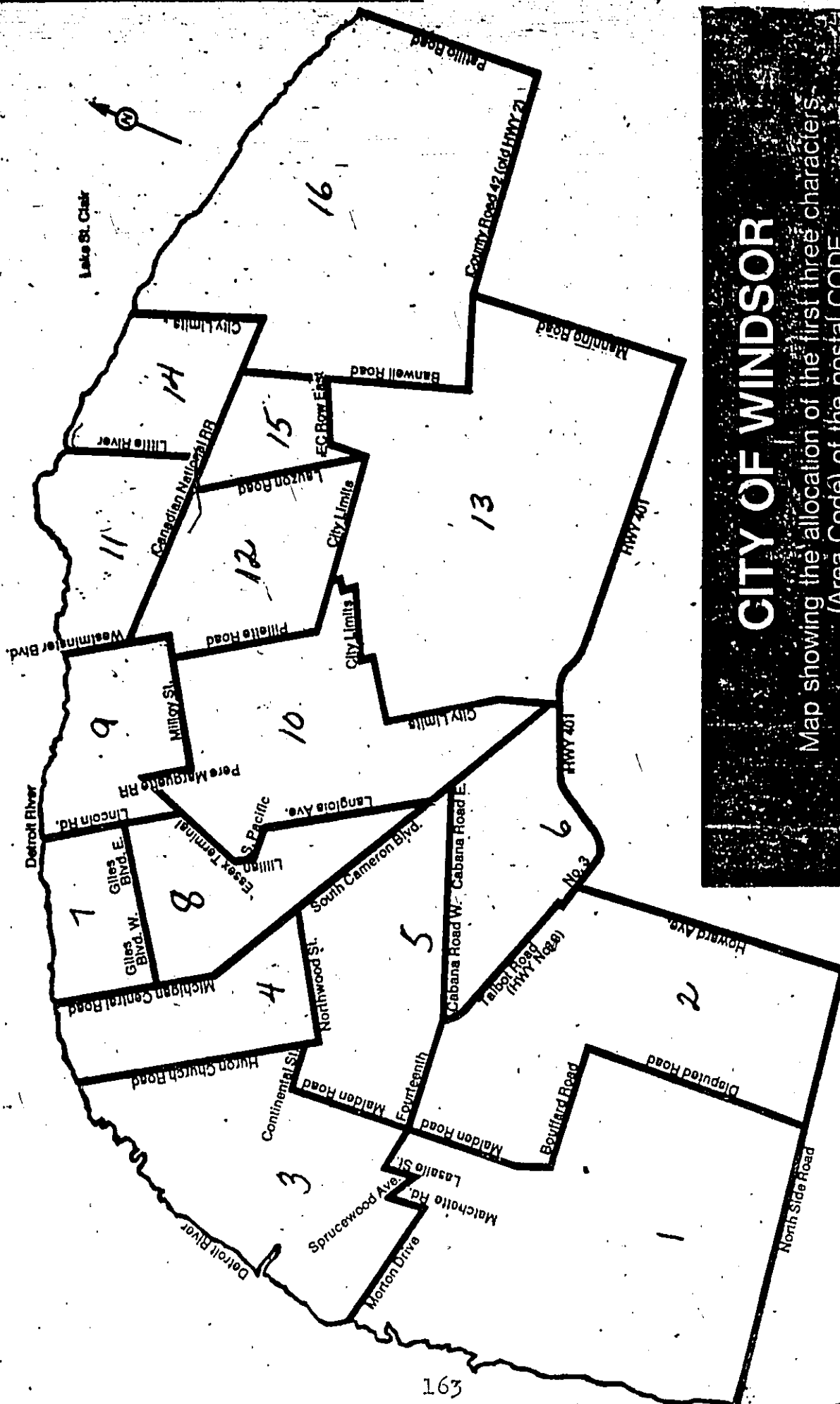
## 23. Choose 5 of the following courses that interest you most

Credit Courses

English \_\_\_\_ French \_\_\_\_ other languages \_\_\_\_  
business \_\_\_\_ mathematics \_\_\_\_ history \_\_\_\_  
geography \_\_\_\_ natural sciences(chemistry) \_\_\_\_  
social sciences(sociology) \_\_\_\_

General Interest Courses

fine art(painting) \_\_\_\_ creative art(photography) \_\_\_\_  
technical(small engines) \_\_\_\_  
recreational(sailing) \_\_\_\_  
business(typing refresher) \_\_\_\_  
home economics(cooking) \_\_\_\_



# CITY OF WINDSOR

Map showing the allocation of the first three characters  
(Area Code) of the postal CODE

# VILLE DE WINDSOR

Carte indiquant comment sont attribués les trois premiers  
caractères (indiquant le régional) du CODE postal

# APPENDIX II -

Table 59 SEX AND PARTICIPATION PLANS

<u>Sex</u>	<u>Participation Plans</u>			<u>Total</u>
	Yes	No	Undecided	
Male	23.6% (163)	56.3% (331)	15.1% (89)	100.0% (583)
Female	29.8% (363)	53.6% (653)	16.6% (202)	100.0 (1218)

<sup>2</sup>  
X : 1.24  
N.S.

Table 60 SEX AND INSTITUTION PREFERRED

<u>Sex</u>	<u>Institutions</u>				<u>Total</u>
	Board of Education	College	Univer- sity	Other Agens.	
Male	18.5% (73)	36.5% (154)	34.8% (147)	10.2% (43)	100.0% (422)
Female	24.6 (227)	33.7 (353)	26.2 (242)	10.5 (97)	100.0 (924)

<sup>2</sup>  
X : 12.63  
p < .006

Table 61 SEX AND COURSES PREFERRED

<u>Sex</u>	<u>Courses Preferred</u>			
	Academic	Interest	Skill	Total
Male	61.4% (293)	20.5% (98)	18.0% (86)	100.0% (477)
Female	59.2 (560)	25.2 (238)	15.6 (148)	100.0 (946)

$\chi^2$   
N.S. : 4.21

Table 62 SEX AND MOTIVATIONS TOWARDS ADULT EDUCATION

<u>Sex</u>	<u>Motivations</u>		
	Economic	Social	Total
Male	53.5% (191)	46.5% (166)	100.0% (357)
Female	46.4 (379)	53.6 (438)	100.0 (817)

$\chi^2$   
N.S. : 4.75  
 $p < .05$

Table 63 AGE AND PARTICIPATION PLANS

<u>Age</u>	<u>Participation Plans</u>			
	Yes	No	Undecided	Total
under 30	35.2% (346)	51.5% (507)	13.3% (131)	100.0% (984)
31 - 65	23.4 (165)	56.3 (387)	20.3 (143)	100.0 (705)
over 65	16.4 (18)	69.1 (75)	14.5 (16)	100.0 (110)

$\chi^2$  : 44.97  
p : .001

Table 64 AGE AND INSTITUTION PREFERRED

<u>Age</u>	<u>Institutions</u>			
	Board of Education	College	University	Other Agens.
under 30	21.0% (169)	33.6% (311)	30.3% (243)	9.6% (77)
31 - 65	25.7 (125)	57.9 (184)	25.9 (126)	10.9 (51)
over 65	20.3 (10)	29.2 (14)	22.9 (11)	27.1 (13)
				Total
				100.0% (805)
				100.0 (486)
				100.0 (48)

$\chi^2$  : 20.43  
p < .003

Table 65 AGE AND COURSES PREFERRED

<u>Age</u>	<u>Courses Preferred</u>			Total
	Academic	Interest	Skill	
under 30	65.5% (513)	21.8% (171)	12.6% (99)	100.0% (783)
31 - 65	54.2 (303)	24.3 (138)	21.5 (122)	100.0 (563)
over 65	44.8 (30)	38.8 (26)	16.4 (11)	100.0 (67)

$\chi^2$   
 $\chi^2 : 33.12$   
 $p < .001$

Table 66 AGE AND MOTIVATIONS TOWARDS ADULT EDUCATION

<u>Age</u>	<u>Motivations</u>		Total
	Economic	Social	
under 30	56.6% (395)	43.4% (303)	100.0% (698)
31 - 65	37.9 (162)	62.1 (265)	100.0 (427)
over 65	19.6 (9)	80.4 (37)	100.0 (46)

$\chi^2$   
 $\chi^2 : 52.77$   
 $p < .001$

Table 67 MARITAL STATUS AND PARTICIPATION PLANS

<u>Marital Status</u>	<u>Participation Plans</u>			Total
	Yes	No	Undecided	
Single	35.8% (250)	50.4% (352)	13.9% (97)	100.0% (699)
Married	25.5 (240)	57.4 (541)	17.1 (161)	100.0 (942)
Other	25.2 (41)	55.2 (90)	19.6 (32)	100.0 (32)

2  
 $\chi^2$  : 23.23  
 $p < .001$

Table 68 MARITAL STATUS AND INSTITUTION PREFERRED

<u>Marital Status</u>	<u>Institution</u>				Total
	Board of Education	College	Univer- sity	Other Agens.	
Single	19.5% (112)	36.2% (208)	33.3% (191)	11.0% (63)	100.0% (574)
Married	25.9 (172)	40.2 (267)	25.6 (170)	8.4 (56)	100.0 (665)
Other	13.9 (20)	34.9 (37)	25.5 (27)	20.8 (22)	100.0 (106)

2  
 $\chi^2$  : 28.05  
 $p < .001$

Table 69 MARITAL STATUS AND COURSES PREFERRED

<u>Marital Status</u>	<u>Courses Preferred</u>			
	Academic	Interest	Skill	Total
Single	67.6% (363)	22.3% (120)	10.1% (54)	100.0% (537)
Married	55.0 (423)	24.2 (186)	20.8 (160)	100.0 (769)
Other	56.5 (65)	26.1 (30)	17.4 (20)	100.0 (115)

$$\chi^2 : 31.63$$

$$p < .001$$

Table 70 MARITAL STATUS AND MOTIVATIONS TOWARDS ADULT EDUCATION

<u>Marital Status</u>	<u>Motivations</u>		
	Economic	Social	Total
Single	60.8% (302)	39.2% (39)	100.0% (497)
Married	36.7 (209)	63.3 (360)	100.0 (569)
Other	53.8 (57)	46.2 (49)	100.0 (106)

$$\chi^2 : 62.66$$

$$p < .001$$



Table 71. A SIXTEEN TYPE TYPOLOGY AND PARTICIPATION PLANS

Status Types	Participation Plans			Total
	Yes	No	Undecided	
High education- High occupation	32.2% (14)	53.7% (37)	19.0% (12)	100.0% (63)
High education- UpperMiddle Occupation	32.2 (42)	53.7 (52)	9.1 (10)	100.0 (110)
High education- Middle occupation	25.0 (10)	57.5 (23)	17.5 (7)	100.0 (40)
High education- Low occupation	42.3 (11)	30.8 (8)	26.9 (7)	100.0 (26)
UpperMiddle education- UpperMiddle occupation	51.1 (24)	36.2 (17)	12.8 (6)	100.0 (47)
UpperMiddle education- High occupation	36.0 (18)	42.0 (21)	22.0 (11)	100.0 (50)
UpperMiddle education- Middle occupation	40.0 (60)	40.7 (61)	19.3 (29)	100.0 (150)
UpperMiddle education- Low occupation	38.1 (32)	42.2 (36)	19.7 (16)	100.0 (84)
Middle education- Middle occupation	24.5 (49)	58.5 (117)	17.0 (34)	100.0 (200)
Middle education- High occupation	13.8 (4)	62.0 (20)	17.2 (5)	100.0 (29)
Middle education- UpperMiddle occupation	0.0 (0)	100.0 (3)	0.0 (0)	100.0 (3)
Middle education- Low education	25.6 (43)	54.2 (21)	20.2 (34)	100.0 (162)
Low education- Low occupation	10.7 (15)	73.6 (103)	15.7 (22)	100.0 (140)
Low education- High occupation	23.1 (3)	53.8 (7)	23.1 (3)	100.0 (13)
Low education- UpperMiddle occupation	25.0 (1)	75.0 (3)	0.0 (0)	100.0 (4)
Low education- Middle occupation	16.5 (16)	60.2 (59)	23.7 (22)	100.0 (47)

$\chi^2 = 99.75$   
p .001

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