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Roles, Functions, and Training in Psychology: A Survey of Psychologists Graduated from Loyola University of Chicago

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ROLES, FUNCTIONS, AND TRAINING IN PSYCHOLOGY: A SURVEY OF PSYCHOLOGISTS GRADUATED FROM LOYOLA UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

by

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VITA

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Considering the financial cost and human effort represented by professional education, there has been a curious lack of concern over product and program evaluation. This seems to be true of most of the major professions, but its absence is the more remarkable in a discipline that prides itself on its expertise in evaluation research.

This thesis was undertaken with the ultimate aim of revising present graduate training and philosophy by focusing on the competencies of multilevel graduates and their eventual impact on society. To this end, a survey was undertaken of the careers of graduates from Loyola University in terms of their career choices and their psychological contribution to society. It is hoped that these data will contribute to a re-examinztion of the implicit values, beliefs, and assumptions underlying taining philosophies, and that this will in turn be reflected in changes in graduate programs.

According to the policy statement of the American Psychological Association (1968), psychology has three major purposes: to increase the body of knowledge in its content area, to communicate this knowledge, and to apply it in a socially useful and responsible manner. Within this threefold mission, however, one encounters marked diversity in the work of people who are called psychologists.

Psychologists engage in research, teaching, psychological services to individuals and groups, consultation, and administration. Individual

psychologists generally devote themselves to more than one of these activities. For example, most research psychologists also teach, many teachers also engage in some applied or service functions, and some practitioners also do research. Psychologists also differ from one another in their type and amount of training, in their areas of subsequent professional specialization, and in their work settings. The settings for their work vary from laboratory to factory, from classroom to hospital ward, from nursery school to university, from school of education to school of medicine, from outpatient clinic to private consulting room, and large governmental or military agency to local community project.

Hospitals, universities, clinics, business and industry, government agencies, the American Psychological Association -- all of these organizations require adequate manpower information on psychologists in order to perform intelligent planning and to operate programs effectively. Planning new programs that contribute to the amelioration of the nation's mental health problems requires a comprehensive effort in developing and expanding service activities, in encouraging appropriate research efforts, and in providing for the training of competent renderers of service as well as research scientists. Such planning requires information about existing numbers, skills, activities, geographical locations, salaries, work settings, age, sex, etc. of psychologists. Based on such information, decisions can be considered as to changes in the pool of manpower necessary for the implementation or improvement of programs. Additionally, justifying the funding of past and future programs may depend in part on assessment of the

contributions of psychologists working in various specialties, and this assessment may depend on the same kind of information.

The current state of unemployment among psychologists also speaks to the need for manpower planning, and for the need to protect past investments in training. Advantageous actions will require information about the numbers of individuals involved in specific kinds of activities, what they know, where they are located, what their income is, what their ages are, and so on. Such information is needed to assess the current status of supply and demand, to estimate the discrepancy between projected supply and projected demand for specific kinds of people, and to identify the points of leverage for converting individuals from one kind of activity to another when the nation's priorities change. Further, such information can be useful in evaluating the magnitude and kind of conversion program necessary to build upon the basic background of individuals when conversion is implied.

Arnhoff (1968) observes that psychology's manpower problems today are only to a small degree problems of inadequate numbers and insufficient output. Psychology's manpower problems are to a large degree those of conceptualization, role, and function, issues which are basic to the primary question of manpower studies and research, "What kind of manpower, for what purpose?"

Kiesler (1976) and Peterson (1976) speak to the profession of psychology's need to describe itself, represent a point of view on funding of research and training, and emphasize its potential. The profession, conceivably through organizations like APA, needs to transmit facts about psychology to federal agencies, other funding bodies, and decision makers so that psychological knowledge and

expertise can play a more plausible role at the national level. Kiesler (1976) states that "psychology cannot be taken seriously nationally without some active effort on our part to communicate to significant others what psychology is all about."

In addition, students contemplating entering careers in psychology need information about what psychologists do, how much they are paid, and directions that the profession is taking. Practicing psychologists, whether academic or applied, also have need of information regarding trends in the profession, in order to make informed plans for their futures and to educate themselves in areas in which their knowledge may be deficient. Directors of psychology graduate programs need feedback on whether what they taught their students has been helpful professionally, and what changes need to be made in graduate programs to make them more congruent with the actual demands placed on psychologists in their professional lives.

For all of these reasons, a study was undertaken of all the graduates of the Department of Psychology at Loyola University of Chicago, for the years 1930 through 1974. Two previous studies of the Loyola graduate population were done by Medina (1958) and Kobler and Doiron (1968). The current study updates knowledge about the Loyola population, suggests trends by making comparisons with the two previous Loyola studies, and may be viewed as an indicator of issues affecting the profession at large. Although several surveys have been done in recent years on demographic characteristics, some recent ones being those done by Boneau & Cuca (1974), Garfield & Kurtz (1976), and Kiesler (1976), none have presented a precise analysis of graduates' evaluations of their training, in addition to studying relationships between degree status, sex, salary, gross income, employment setting, employment

status, area of psychology in which the highest degree was received, major psychological area of work, years of experience, and age.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Psychologists have long recognized the value of surveys for various occupational and professional groups, and in recent years have come to detail studies of their own profession. Starting with 1949 and continuing up to the present, there have been a number of attempts by individuals within the American Psychological Association and other psychologists, outside of the Association, to determine various characteristics of psychologists within a particular geographic area, or for the country as a whole.

This section will examine some of the more relevant studies to give some idea of the samples approached, the methods employed, and the tenor of the findings.

In 1972, the American Psychological Association devoted a special issue of its publication, American Psychologist, to the topic of psychology's manpower: the education and utilization of psychologists (American Psychologist, May 1972). This issue identified several areas where a survey of psychology's manpower is of great practical importance for the profession as a whole, and which emphasize the usefulness of the present study. One area is that of employment opportunities for psychologists. The Occupational Outlook Handbook, 1970-71 (United States Department of Labor, 1970) observed that "employment opportunities for psychologists who have doctor's degrees" will be excellent through the 1970's." The ensuing articles in the May 1972 number of

the American Psychologist, and the experience of many contemporaries, make it clear that this is far from being the case. Currently the supply clearly exceeds the demand in psychology, at least in certain specific career areas that will be detailed later in this report. The point to be made is that in order for psychologists already in the field and for individuals considering entering it, to make responsible career choices, data needs to be made available to determine the supply and market conditions affecting psychology -- what kinds of jobs are available, and what kinds of skills are needed in order to be successful. Should psychology graduate schools build in more explicitly an emphasis on training for college teaching? Should we alter our value structure to accommodate more action-oriented models of research? Some of the best sources of this type of information would appear to be people who are currently in the field. This study attempts to tap this information from Loyola Graduates.

Ginzburg (1972) suggested the following reasons as underlying the current grim employment picture for psychologists and other professional and technical manpower:

(a) a general slowdown in the economy;

(b) a change-over from a defense-dependent economy to a quasi-peacetime economy, which affected primarily the aerospace indsutry;

(c) a reduction in space expenditures;

(d) the tapering off of federal support for basic research and for education, particularly at the graduate level; and

(e) the failure of the colleges and universities to observe the demographic trends, which signalled a reduction in the college-age cohort and the demand for education.

What conclusions can be drawn from consideration of these trends? Boneau (1972) observes that the future of psychology is related to current, as well as past, governmental trends, and it appears from present indications that Congress will be occupied in the near future with legislation concerned with social engineering problems in education, health, correctional systems, welfare, and so on. Psychology is likely to play a significant role; but most of the roles available would seem to require the psychologist to be a problem solver in an applied behavioral science context. One conclusion that may be drawn is that PhD preparation in psychology should be less vigorously specialized, more problem oriented with an emphasis on real-life problems, more research-and-development and program-evaluation oriented, and more amenable to flexible adaptation. It will be instructive to see whether these solutions to the employment problem in psychology emerge empirically from the comments of the Loyola graduates.

Women in Psychology

Astin (1972) discusses the status of women in psychology. Twenty per cent of all women in psychology in 1970 reported that they were seeking employment but had no employment prospects; and whereas 78% of all male doctorates in 1970 reported that they had signed employment contracts, only 65% of all women doctorates had done so. Astin also found that educational institutions have been and continue to be the major employers of doctorates. And whereas industry, government, and non-profit institutions have been attracting similar proportions over time from each year cohort between 1960 and 1970, educational institutions have shown increases over time in the proportion of new doctorates

accepting positions. This trend applies to both men and women in psychology. However, men psychologists increased their representation almost entirely in academic employment, whereas women increased theirs less so in academe and more so in industry, business and government. Astin (1972) states that these results suggest that when the job market starts to close down, women are more likely than are the men to experience difficulty in finding employment; and in addition, a shift occurs in the types of employers with whom they find positions.

A number of sex differences were also observed in past positions held by psychologists. More women (31% versus 19% of the men) have had other professional experience and have taught in two-year institutions (12% versus 4%). In contrast, men have been employed more often in research positions outside of academe (17% versus 10% of the women) and have more often been academic administrators (5% versus 3%).

Astin (1972) notes that much of the differential in academic status and rewards between men and women is a result of nonmerit factors, since the differences are largely unaffected when variables such as degree, year of degree, and number of publications are controlled. The same holds true when the academic salaries earned by men and women psychologists were examined, while controlling separately for degree, rank, and number of articles published. Astin concludes that her investigation of the career status of academic psychologists clearly documents the relatively low status of academic women in psychology in comparison to their male colleagues. The data indicate that even when women hold doctorates, or receive their degrees from top-rated departments, or publish as much as men, they are still paid lower

salaries than the men and receive less recognition in the form of high rank and tenure. Hopefully, findings such as these will provide an incentive for psychologists and institutions to undertake a serious re-examination of their own recruitment, hiring, and promotion practices, with an eye towards examining how they might adversely affect women.

There has been for some years an increasing emphasis on the role of women in the labor market, especially professional women; and there is a strong need for more information on this topic. Campbell and Soliman (1968) reported on the vocational interests of women psychologists given the Strong Vocational Interest Blank (SVIB) in 1942 and again in 1966. The purpose of the retesting was to find out how the interests of the women changed over a quarter of a century, and also to update the SVIB. In addition, a sample of the current APA women members was tested in 1966 to compare their interests to the 1942 sample.

The marital status information provides some interesting figures. Almost half of the re-test sample are still single, and only one-third are now married. Among the 1966 sample, 22% have been divorced and another quarter remain single. While it may not be too informative to speculate on these data, perhaps attention should be drawn to the fact that, whether one looks at the older or younger sample, the chances of a lasting marriage among women APA members are somewhat less than 1 in 2.

Although there is a sizable difference in the years of experience of the two groups, as one might expect, there is none in the way they describe their occupational activities. The majority of both samples

were found in some combination of teaching and research, with "working with clients" a close second. Relatively few reported that administration occupies the major amount of their time. An examination of the SVIB test-retest results from 1942 to 1966 shows so significant changes. When the 1942 sample is compared with the new 1966 sample, there is again much similarity in the general shape of the profiles; but some of the differences are large enough to merit special interpretation. One difference is that the younger women -- the 1966 sample -- show higher intellectual and lower scientific interests. These differences hypothetically might reflect the current shift in psychology towards the clinic and away from the laboratory. Still, the dominant finding is similarity over time; the 1966 psychologists and the 1942 psychologists scored higher on the psychologist scale than on any other.

In summary, Campbell and Soliman (1968) conclude that the interests of women in psychology, as measured by the SVIB, have remained essentially the same over the last 25 years; whether one looks at a longitudinal comparison or a cross-sectional one, the dominant conclusion is that of little change. Psychology as a career continues to attract women who have more intellectual, scientific, and verbal-linguistic interests than does the average woman, and fewer interests in the traditional feminine roles centered in the home or office.

Proportionately more men than women psychologists continue up the ladder of professional advancement. Teghtsoonian (1974) reports that there is a steady decrease in the percentage of women from undergraduate majors (45% female), through graduate students and PhDs, to assistant, associate, and full professors (7% female). One index of commitment

to professional advancement is publication rate. Guyer and Fidel (1973) have indicated that, on the basis of their research, there is little difference in the rate of productivity for men and women psychologists. Teghtsoonian (1974), on the other hand, investigated the relationship between the publication of research in psychological journals, and appointment to journal editorship. Do women psychologists who maintain the same rate of publication as their male colleagues have the same expectation of editorial appointment, and thus by implication the same expectation of reward for outstanding scholarship? The answer is no: women are not selected as often as one would expect from their numbers as authors, even when age and quality of research are controlled for.

The present data suggest nothing about how such bias in the selection of editors might operate. White (1970) discussed some of the difficulties found by women in becoming part of a professional establishment. Perhaps women psychologists are less likely to be suggested or considered by colleagues for the post of editor for some of the reasons outlined by White and by Lewin and Duchan (1971): the reluctance of men to sponsor women professionally, or to engage in informal professional interactions with them; the tendency of men to doubt that women (but not men) can handle professional commitments without neglecting family commitments, or to question whether women (but not men) will be compatible with male colleagues. In any event, similar publication records for men and women have different outcomes, which must be discouraging to women psychologists, and which is counterproductive to the profession as a whole, which by rights should be concerned with maximizing the productivity of all psychologists, women as well as men.

Salaries

Examining job salaries is another way to reach an understanding of current and projected demands for psychologists, and also as a practical guideline for psychologists looking for jobs and employers for psychologists. Richard Freeman (1972) discusses an economic model for forecasting the demand for psychology's manpower. Freeman compared psychology to other disciplines, and cites the relatively large number of women psychologists, and the conspicuously high proportion of PhD's in psychology as opposed to other degrees. He also notes that for psychology, as opposed to other scientific disciplines, there is a relatively great importance of consulting as a work activity and a relative unimportance of basic research and industrial activities. Also noteworthy is the relatively small number of psychologists working in business and the large number who are self-employed and employed by nonprofit organizations. Educational institutions are, however, the principle employer of psychologists, according to the National Scientific Register (Freeman, 1972).

Freeman's (1972) salary analyses span the years from 1948 to 1970, reflecting salaries of a variety of key reference groups. Among the more interesting inferences he makes from these data is the relatively high income of female psychologists, compared to other female scientists or professionals. An analysis of salary patterns indicates that psychology will be in serious trouble in the late 1970's and early 1980's. The continuing growth in the supply of psychologists, accompanied by a "holding pattern" in demand, will presage falling salaries and serious market dislocations. A possible safety valve might be that dramatic

shifts in nonacademic demand could occur, in which case the late 70's and early 80's may not be as bleak as now seems evident. The federal government currently is relatively less important in the demand side of the psychology market than in other science markets.

Analyses of actual salaries received by psychologists show that salaries are leveling off. Altmand and Herron (1972) studied academic salaries in psychology from 1968 through 1972, and concluded that academic salaries are leveling off, and that this is most visible for new PhD's entering the academic marketplace. It appears that those salary increases which do obtain are due more to inflation and the decreased value of the dollar than to actual increases in real value. The implication is that in terms of real spending dollars, a sizable proportion of faculty salaries are getting smaller.

Characteristics of Psychologists in Colleges and Universities

Speisman (1972) discusses the distribution of psychologists within colleges and universities. Speisman's sample shows 56% of psychologists in academic settings, with approximately 43% in universities and 13% in four-year, junior, and community colleges. Thus, there is a gross split of 56% in academic settings and 44% in nonacademic settings for psychologists. Speisman notes that this represents an increase of 13% in academic listings from the 1966 to the 1970 APA Bibliographic Directory. Given the rapid expansion of junior and community colleges, a high proportion of the increase in academic positions may be attributed to this source; but it is also clear that the total number of all academic positions is increased. More psychologists are employed in university departments of psychology (17%) than in any

other category. The categories following psychology departments in descending order are school systems (11.2%); schools or departments of education (10%); independent business and industry (8.5%); hospitals (8%); four-year colleges (7.5%); and medical schools (6.7%). Looking only at those psychologists employed in universities, one finds only 38% employed within psychology departments, with the rest scattered in schools or departments of education, medicine, counseling centers, research centers, business, and elsewhere. This suggests that the new PhD should consider more than the usual identification with a department of psychology, and pay some attention particularly to the nonuniversity academic settings and independent business and industrial settings, which appear to be rapidly employing psychologists. Other institutions that employ large numbers of psychologists include various aspects of the law, probation departments, juvenile courts, independent research centers, state departments of mental health, federal research centers, and the military. An implication of this data for graduate departments of psychology is that training needs to be provided that is broad in substance and that can fit future psychologists to these various categories of employment. Much of graduate education is aimed at training psychologists as though we all ultimately work in departments of psychology in universities, while in fact only 17% of all psychologists are employed in such a setting.

Witkin, Mensh, and Cates (1972) summarize the report of the Committee on Psychology in Medical Schools commissioned by the Education and Training Board of APA in 1966. The report strongly indicates that psychology will continue to grow in medical schools in the years ahead.

Psychologists in medical schools are expressing a strong wish to train their own, as opposed to simply training medical students and other medical school personnel. They also expressed discontent with their subservience to the graduate school psychology department in the training of psychologists. Another sign of the expansion of psychology in medical schools was reports of slow but continued growth of psychology as a discipline, placing it in a better position to exercise the authority it needs to launch programs in its own field. Many psychologists felt that medical schools have unique clinical, biological, and research resources, and unique training models, that can and should be utilized in the training of new psycyologists. One example given was the fact that in medical schools one has access to multidisciplinary programs involving a range of disciplines, and that this type of training is usually not available in graduate departments of psychology, where one usually takes courses only in the psychology department. Programs in the mental health field in which medical school psychologists are often playing a leadership role include community and family psychology, mental retardation, rehabilitation, and comprehensive family care.

Boneau (1968) discusses the manpower involved in the educational system with respect to the teachers of psychology. Psychology has been fortunate in that a majority of its teachers at the college level hold the doctorate. About 60% of the new full-time teachers of psychology over the past 10 years have held the doctorate. In 1968, this represented about 30% of the production of doctorates. Only 5%, however, of the total output of master's degrees have gone into college teaching. All signs seem to suggest that this proportion must and will get higher.

Ray (1972) and Norton (1972) inspected four-year and two-year colleges, respectively, and provide information about demand characteristics, the challenges and frustrations of academic work in nonuniversity milieus, salary data and fringe benefits, course loads, and student populations. This information can be of particular interest to new PhDs, since job opportunities are steadily increasing in these institutions. But also, as more new PhDs obtain faculty positions in these nonuniversity academic settings where teaching and undergraduate student contact are the essential job ingredients, questions must be faced as to the adequacy of the typical graduate school preparation when the issue of teaching and the intricacies of dealing with undergraduates are given only minor emphasis. Curricula will need to be modified to prepare graduate PhDs for work in 2- and 4-year colleges.

The United States Office of Education (1967) reported that in the fall of 1967 there were approximately 4,000 full- and part-time teachers of psychology in the four-year colleges of this country; representing 15% of the members of the American Psychological Association that year and 3% of the total number of full-time teachers in the four-year institutions. The American Association of University Professors' 1971 report (American Association of University Professors, 1971) states that the mean compensation (salary plus benefits) of four-year college faculty members was near $12,700. Thus, it is obvious that a large segment of psychologists in the United States are currently finding employment in the 4-year colleges. The fastest-growing segment of American education is the two-year colleges, whose "diversity of goals, educational programs, and students is part of their definition."

(American Association of University Professors, 1971). In recent years, the public, tax-supported community college has grown at a far faster rate than the private two-year college.

The need for teachers of psychology in two-year colleges is directly a function of their growth rate. The American Association of Junior Colleges (1970) and the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education (1971) indicate phenomenal growth rates since 1960. From 1964 to 1968, the number of institutions increased from 719 to 993, and they continue to be created at a rate of about one a week. In 1972, two-year colleges enrolled about two million students, about 28% of all undergraduate enrollment at that time. A recommendation of the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education (1971) is that by 1980, there be established 175-235 new comprehensive community colleges, 80-105 comprehensive four-year colleges, and no new graduate schools. A National Science Foundation report (1967) documents the fact that the major part of the work week for full-time psychology instructors is spent in classroom duties. Few hours are spent in research or administrative duties.

Salaries and fringe benefits for faculty members of the two-year colleges are competitive with universities, decidedly better than four-year colleges, and have recently increased at a faster rate than either of the other two types of institutions (Steiner, Eymonerie, and Woolf, 1971). Instructors' salary averages run from $8,790 to $13,690; professors' salary averages run from $12,970 to $25,540, in different kinds of two-year colleges.

Psychology teachers at two-year colleges come from a variety of backgrounds, including high school and college faculties and business

(Norton, 1972). They hold degrees in a variety of subject areas, and usually hold at least a master's degree, although a few hold a doctorate. What is needed by these institutions in terms of qualifications for teachers of their psychology programs? Williams and Richman (1971) interviewed these department chairmen, who strongly stated that subject-matter competence plus competence in teaching skills were both important. A recommendation of a teaching apprenticeship for those interested in teaching in two-year colleges is implied. Norton (1972) also notes that other surveys have reported that training in course planning, grading and evaluation, test construction, and supervised teaching are important in the preparation of instructors. The National Faculty Association of Community and Junior Colleges (1968) recommended new degree programs including the doctor of arts in teaching. The rationale is that a person who earns a one-year master's degree is insufficiently prepared for teaching, whereas a person who earns a PhD may be overtrained in terms of the knowledge that he needs to communicate to the two-year college student, while still being undertrained in teaching skills.

The Academic Marketplace

The academic marketplace is another important area of investigation, especially since the majority of psychologists are engaged in academic jobs in some capacity. More than half of all APA members are employed full time in colleges and universities; and nearly half of all new PhDs enter the labor market as members of educational institutions. Rose (1972) studied the supply of and demand for assistant professors in the PhD-granting departments in the United States, and found a disheartening picture: "In 1970 there were 3.0 PhD graduates for each assistant

professorship vacancy," a ratio peaking to 5.4 for 1971. If the number of postdoctoral psychologists is included with the new PhD's, the ratio of potential job seekers to job climbs to 6.0. In addition, the Rose (1972) survey reveals that there are 35% more jobs at public institutions than at private ones. Compuses whose student enrollments are in excess of 5,000 have double the number of openings than those in smaller institutions, and the relatively smaller and newer publicly supported colleges have more openings than the larger, older ones. Rose concludes that the general cutback in hiring would indicate that current psychology graduate students should be provided with a broader, less specialized program of training with considerable emphasis on the development of effective teaching techniques, so that they can be eligible for placement into a wider range of jobs. Rose also suggests that a change in the method of placing new PhDs in academic positions may be required. Personal contacts may no longer work because students will have to be placed in small, less prestigious departments in which professors from leading departments probably have no personal contacts.

On the more encouraging side, Verplanck (1972), a head of a department of psychology and then President of the National Council of Chairmen of Graduate Departments of Psychology, notes that enrollments in psychology programs and interest in psychology continues to rise. For this reason, he is sanguine about the growth of psychology and society's demand for psychologists and psychological services. In addition, the 1972 APA Council of Representatives sanctioned first-class membership in APA for the master's level psychologist, which Verplanck believes will accelerate the greater involvement of master's degree

people in providing psychological services in hospitals, clinics, research agencies, and community agencies. This has tremendous implications for training programs, not to mention teaching and research which may well follow from the greater infusion of master's level psychologists into the marketplace. However, this is occurring at a time when government funding of the social sciences is dropping off, so public resources to help fund this expanding interest in psychology is uncertain. Few state legislatures are currently appropriating funds to keep pace with the demand for new and expanded psychology departments.

Love (1972) discusses what the market is like for a graduate student looking for a job today. Love reviews data which leads him to believe that finding a job in psychology is based on a patronage system, in which the main factor in getting a job is one's major professor calling his students to the attention of colleagues in other universities and colleges. Love states that this system preserves "the definition of psychology as a white, male middle-class research effort whose place within the university and whose purpose is to maintain the political, social, and scientific status quo." (Love, 1972). As support for his contention, Love cites Klugh's (1964) survey, which found that out of 65 respondents who obtained positions above the instructor level in PhD-granting institutions, 53% depended on friends or a major professor to obtain their position, 37% were offered positions without any solicitation, 4% circulated vitae, 3% used regional convention placement, and not one respondent found a position through the APA Employment Bulletin or placement facilities.

Love (1972) makes several suggestions for modifying recruitment

procedures to make them fairer to employer and employee alike. One interesting suggestion is that APA should compile a list of all new PhDs each year that are seeking jobs, by distributing standardized vita forms to all graduate departments in psychology. These vita forms would be returned to APA for compilation and distribution to all graduate and undergraduate institutions, as well as to interested government, business, hospital, and research organizations.

A second interesting suggestion made by Love (1972) is to have APA or some other interested organization design a computerized placement system that would list all available jobs and which prospective candidates for those jobs could subscribe to. Features that could also be built into such a system, to make it even more useful, might be (a) a personnel information system that could yield information on the current status of manpower in psychology, and (b) information on the capacity and output of institutions currently training psychologists. APA, or some other organization, could survey government, business, and private organizations to discover what their needs in the social science area are currently, and what needs might develop in the future. Attention could be paid to discovering what skills such organizations require, in addition to the academically oriented skills now taught. This information would then be transmitted to universities and other training institutions so any necessary adjustments could be made in training programs. Finally, APA could attempt to open new areas of employment by informing organizations of the types of skills psychologists possess, and new ways in which these skills can be used.

Another author who discusses a job placement system is Astin (1972).

Job applicants could specify beforehand some of their requirements for a position: minimum salary, fringe benefits, level and type of appointment; relative emphasis on particular job functions (administration, teaching, research, etc.), geographic preference, size of institution, and so on. The job candidates could also specify the relative weight to be assigned to each requirement. At the same time he specifies his requirements for a job, the applicant would supply appropriate information about himself for scrutiny by potential employers. Employers, for their part, would supply information that is relevant to the criteria specified by applicants for each job listing. In addition, each employer would specify, with appropriate weights, their own screening criteria for prospective applicants.

An essential ingredient of the system would be adequate safeguards to protect the anonymity of both employer and employee. The system would also need to facilitate communication between prospective employer and employee. Computerization would be necessary for efficiency, but nonetheless space could be provided for a certain amount of anecdotal information. A computerized system could also be designed so as to be pedagogical: both prospective employers and employees whose job criteria were unrealistic could be so informed by the system, and could then be encouraged to revise their criteria. If such a system were implemented, it might provide a highly efficient way to match jobs to candidates, and save much money and time on everyone's part.

Supply and Demand: The General Job Market

Placement listings and some significant generalizations therefrom are discussed by Cates and Cummings (1972). They report an abrupt down-

turn in the market for psychologists, again documenting the fact that the supply of psychologists is outpacing society's demand. Degree requirements attached to positions are becoming increasingly stringent. There is a surplus of applicants to positions in academic, clinical-counseling and industrial research areas of psychology, with the shortage of positions being most severe for less-than-doctoral applicants for academic positions. Cates and Cummings (1972) conclude that the increasing enrollments in graduate departments of psychology portend an increasing number of job applicants for the foreseeable future; it will take a dramatic increase in positions to balance demand with supply.

Koleda (1972) discusses several emerging trends that point to the development of new social policies in the years ahead, that should greatly increase the need for psychologists. One social concern is that of the aged. A particular issue with the aged is currently the practice of compulsory retirement, which most probably will be ended shortly. If this practice is ended, then the aged will need to be re-educated during the course of their lifetime in order for them to continue to be useful to their employers. There are tremendous opportunities for psychologists to help re-educate these aged. An issue even broader than re-educating the aged, is re-educating generally the vast numbers of unemployed of all ages. Koleda (1972) reports that it is likely that involuntary unemployment will give way to universal programs of training and education aimed at redirecting the temporarily or chronically unemployed towards occupations that are compatible with his interests and congruent with society's needs. If these trends become reality, "the benefits accruing to psychologists seem limitless." (Koleda, 1972).

Samuel Dubin (1972) conducted studies which showed that knowledge is accumulating so rapidly in the field of psychology, that the average psychologist's knowledge is obsolete between 10 and 12 years after he receives his degree. Barrett, Bass, and Miller (1972) also conclude that the skills required of future professionals in psychology will be very different from those required today, and therefore today's psychologists will require continuous training if they are to survive on the job market. It appears that the typical concept of terminal education -- receiving a degree after a certain number of years of work, signifying that one has completed his education in that field -- will give way to a concept of lifetime education as a requisite ingredient in a professional career.

Dubin (1972) notes that the counseling of adults is a skill that directors of continuing education programs frequently mention, and which is a prime area that psychologists can move into. Counseling for adults can include general life as well as career counseling for persons of all ages. In addition, there is a growing need for retraining and re-educating individuals who want to change occupations in their middle years. This is an increasing occurrence among industrial, civil, and military personnel who retire early with many work years ahead of them, as well as among mature women who want a career after raising their families. Psychologists can assist such persons in making career changes by helping them to define their goals, to ascertain their capabilities, and to explore their motivations as a basis for realistic career decision making. Dunnette and Campbell (1968) observe that teaching interpersonal competence to business managers, professionals,

and other adults can be a major contribution of the psychologist to a person's growth and development via continuing education.

How can graduate training programs be made more relevant to the actual needs extant in the job market? Perloff and Koleda (1971) proposed that graduate training programs be relocated out of the university, on location in industry, government, and the nonuniversity research and service environments where most of the recipients of this training will find their ultimate professional employment.

Webster (1971) pointed out that psychologists are major contributors of research to continuing education. Significant research work is needed in studying mid-career change, changing colleague relations, growing pains for professional organizations and individuals, faculty development in professional schools, mushrooming knowledge, and superspecialization in research. In addition, there is an urgent national need for applied research and evaluation of innovative human service programs. Webster (1971) also identified four major national priorities for continuing education to which psychologists can make significant contributions. These are program planning, leadership development, research development, and high priority items. The high priority items which he mentioned include child development, disadvantaged minorities, urban development, population explosion, alcohol and drug abuse, delinquency, violence, the improved delivery of human services, and the training and integration of new types of workers into the manpower pool and into the human services delivery system. There is a wide range of opportunities for psychologists to work in one of these high-priority areas in continuing education.

Another area in which psychologists are making an increasing contribution is the law. Blair Kolasa (1972) focuses on the role of the psychologist as an expert witness. Testimony is taken on questions of personality and intellectual functioning where the legal definition of insanity or mental retardation is made to determine responsibility for an act. Commitment to mental health centers, the ability to make a valid will, the evaluation of feebleminded witnesses, the behavioral impairments resulting from personal injury, and the proper circumstances under which adoptions should take place are all areas for expert scrutiny. Psychologists in staff positions within the court system itself are also involved in the same diagnostic and evaluative procedures. A psychologist or organization can also enter as a "friend of the court" -- filing an amicus curiae brief -- to provide that court with information needed for meaningful ajudication. Expert testimony can also take place in an administrative agency setting, such as the Social Security Administration. Correctional institutions of all types, as well as probation and parole agencies, need psychologists. Human factors psychologists or systems analysts are active in various governmental agencies determining performance, such as the National Highway Traffic Safety Administration, or the Federal Aviation Agency. In all, there are many new and expanding opportunities for psychologists in the legal system.

What meaning and direction can be derived from all the above-cited articles for the future of American psychology? Although it appears that overall there is a declining demand for psychologists in their traditional roles in universities and four-year colleges, this does not mean that psychologists have no other job possibilities. The above-mentioned articles indicate that there is a real need for psych-

ologists in two-year colleges, continuing education programs, government agencies, business and industry, and the law. Psychologists are also playing increasingly important roles in hospitals and medical schools. Although the typical future psychologist may not be in traditional academia, he will have a place to go.

Stenger (1970) notes that in fact a serious shortage still exists for psychologists who desire to apply their knowledge and skills to the solution of human problems. In the health service settings alone, 750-1,000 vacancies exist. At the current rate of production of new PhDs, particularly in clinical and counseling psychology, the supply will be insufficient for many years to come. The only crisis, according to Stenger, is a "crisis of expectations" on the part of new graduates who envision being inundated with unlimited job offers from the most prestigious employers.

A suggestion that Little (1972) makes is that graduate training programs should provide both more research training and more applied field training. In addition, many of the previously cited articles point to the fact that doctoral students contemplating academic careers be given fairly intensive teacher training. Expansion in available positions is most apt to occur in four-year colleges and community colleges where teaching ability is given greater weight than research skills (Norton, 1972; Ray, 1972). Another point to remember is that if mental health coverage in National Health Insurance is obtained, the demand for the services of clinical and school psychologists will continue to climb. The picture for applied psychologists is generally good.

Enrollment Characteristics of Graduate Students in Psychology

Monitoring American Psychology's manpower has, for years, been a vigorous enterprise of APA, providing numerous statistical and descriptive reports for the membership. The APA's Central Office personnel have commissioned or authored several reports on manpower in psychology, the latest of which appeared in print in 1974, although another was begun as recently as December of 1976. One area of interest has been the enrollment characteristics of graduate students in psychology. El-Khawas and Astin (1972) surveyed graduate departments in psychology and obtained information from 89% of the chairmen. The following statistics on the demographic characteristics of graduate students in psychology are all taken from the El-Khawas and Astin article.

As of October 1970, a total of 23,859 (14,428 men and 9,431 women) students were enrolled for graduate study in psychology in the 296 programs reporting to the APA Educational Affairs Office. The majority (16,540) were enrolled in departments of psychology, although a substantial number were in educational psychology (5,113) or other specialty, separately administered programs (2,206), primarily counseling psychology or child development.

There is great variation in the size of enrollment among the various institutions. Eight programs reported enrollments ranging above 300 to as many as 924 students; 23 programs enrolled 200 or more students, and 83 programs reported enrollments of 100 or more students. In contrast, 46 programs enrolled 20 or fewer students. Most graduate students were enrolled in public institutions with total enrollments of 10,000 or more students. Educational psychology programs were offered

almost exclusively by such institutions.

Some dispersion appears in terms of region: the Northeast, Midwest, and West were each responsible for between a quarter and a third of the students in psychology proper, whereas almost half of all training in educational psychology took place in the Midwest.

Although 177 of the 296 programs (60%) reported having part-time students, the great majority of students were enrolled on a full-time basis; only 24% were taking a part-time course load. The exception to this was educational psychology, where 38% were studying part-time. Women were somewhat more likely than men to be in part-time study (29% versus 20%, respectively).

Most graduate students in psychology are men. Women make up 35% of the graduate students in psychology departments, but constitute half of those enrolled in educational psychology or other specialized programs. In terms of ethnicity, minority students constitute a very small proportion of the graduate population in psychology. The 1,027 black students and 766 students of other backgrounds (mainly Oriental and Spanish-American) constitute 4% and 3%, respectively, of the total 23,859 graduate student population. The proportions were somewhat higher for educational psychology alone or for other specialized programs, but they never surpassed 10%.

Some additional conclusions that can be drawn from El-Khawas and Astin's paper (1972) are that women are disproportionately concentrated at the master's level. Most of the reported part-time enrollment is limited to advanced students working on dissertation research, and only slight opportunity exists for part-time course work as a general mode

of getting through graduate school.

Knox (1970) reviewed graduate student performance within seven psychology departments. He notes that the length of time required to obtain a PhD in psychology has been the concern of many. From his own survey of the American Psychological Association's 1964 Directory, he found that the median PhD graduated between ages 25-29 prior to 1950, but between ages 30-34 following 1950. Knox then looked at some of the characteristics that have relevance to whether a person does or does not complete the PhD. He found that married students are completing the PhD more frequently or remaining as students; they are withdrawing less than single students. Of the seven universities he surveyed, 45% had withdrawn from graduate school, about half of those prior to receiving the master's degree. If the universities that Knox sampled are in any way representative of all universities, the profession of psychology has a serious problem. Significantly more males than females were found to have completed a PhD, but no significant relationship was found to exist between sex and time required to complete the degree. Interestingly, married versus single bore no significant relationship with time to completion of the PhD.

"The Student Forum," a department of the journal of Professional Psychology, undertook a survey of the student affiliate population of Division 12 of the American Psychological Association (clinical psychology), as reported by Gardner (1969). Questionnaires were sent across the country to 322 students; 100 responses, or 33%, were returned. Students were asked to rank order their interests as well as the interests of their faculty for five areas. Psychotherapy was endorsed

by 52% of the students as their main interest; 21% endorsed community psychology as their first interest. These areas were followed by research, teaching, and psychodiagnosis. Psychodiagnosis was endorsed as a first choice by only 7% of the students and ranked last in 36% of the records. The rank order of students' perception of faculty interests was: research, teaching, psychotherapy, community psychology, and psychodiagnosis. The major areas of concern to students were the relevance of clinical training and the role of clinical psychologists. Other areas of concern were student power, student-faculty relationships, and ways of assessing students.

Roles, Competencies and Interests of Psychologists

Manning and Cates (1972) studied the relationships between the psychologist's reported competence or interests, and his commitment to an actual engagement in activities bearing on public policy and social problems. This resulted in the factorial extraction of 31 specialty factors, one such being, for example, cognition, showing significant loadings on such specific areas as cognitive functions, visual processes, language theory, and cognitive development. Then, Manning and Cates probed for relationships among the aforementioned 31 competency factors and interest or involvement in public policy and social problems. Some of the more significant results that Manning and Cates (1972) found are as follows. Problems relating to children and adolescents seem to be a province of both school psychologists and personality theorists. Problems of crime and delinquency are related to clinical psychologists, at least in part as a result of their testifying as expert witnesses to the courts. Urban problems divide into human and environmental, with

social psychologists consulting on human problems, and method or physiological psychologists consulting on the physical environment. The problems relating to employment generally tended to draw specialists from counseling, measurement, and organizational and personnel psychology. Manpower research and equal employment opportunity were of concern to psychologists using survey research, experimental design, and systems design.

There is great overlap between the problem areas of science and national security, and the factors relating to experimentation, physiological psychology, and experimental learning. The area the authors have labeled federal/science relationships seems to be generally the province of experimental design and systems design. Additionally, physiological and learning psychologists feel competent to consult on the use of federal funds for science. Community, measurement, and organizational and personnel psychologists have an interest in government procedures for research. Organizational and personnel psychologists consult on most problems related to national security, while method and physiological psychologists consult on space and astronautics and military preparedness.

In focusing on the factors, it can be seen that specialties ranged from competency to consult on many problems to competency to consult on very few. Specialties which Manning and Cates (1972) found applicable to many problems are organizational and personnel psychology, systems design, community psychology, and general counseling. These data can help determine in which specialties public agencies might seek those psychologists concerned with working on a particular agency's type of problems. Another use for these data is to help counsel psychologists interested in changing jobs or careers into the social problem/public

policy arena. These data could help psychologists determine more objectively where their skills would seem to be the most commensurate with the heterogeneity of social problems, or, conversely, what skills they might have to acquire, judged from patterns derived from this normative study, in order to pursue a particular social problem area.

Growing Areas of Interest in Psychology

McKinney (1976), in assessing the growth and development of psychology by comparing publications and reports of experiments in the 1927 Psychological Abstracts with those in the 1974 volume, found that quantitative growth has been prodigious in that period of time, while qualitative growth has not been so impressive. The twenties was a seminal decade, because many current concepts imported from Europe began then to affect American thought. Since then, American psychologists have refined the methodology related to these concepts. Grand theory began to wane in the late 1920's and miniature theory to develop. Interest in certain topics, particularly conscious states and self, has survived, as well as interest in abnormal, personality, social, learning, animal and physiological psychology.

There has been a rapid growth of interest in the field of behavior therapy. Benassi and Lanson (1972) have shown graphically the exponential growth of behavior modification courses. The rapid increase in books devoted exclusively to this subject has been documented by Ernst (1971). Bergin (1971) has also shown the dramatic increase in behavior therapy outcome studies published in the Journal of Abnormal Psychology and the Journal of Consulting Psychology between 1959 and 1969.

Hoon and Lindsley (1974) made comparisons between the number of publications generated annually in the area of behavior therapy versus

more traditional kinds of therapy, as an index of the growth and interest in this area relative to other therapeutic approaches. They found that within the last decade, the growth rates of publication activity within psychoanalysis and psychology appear to have been exponential, but not as dramatic as publication within behavior therapy. The growth rate of publication activity in behavior therapy since 1960 has been so dramatic that in 1972 the number of annual publications indexed under behavior therapy surpassed the number of publications indexed under psychoanalysis. However, it is interesting to note that during the last decade the publication activity rate within psychoanalysis has been equal to or slightly greater than that within psychology. Thus, on the basis of publication activity, there does not seem to be a noticeable decline of interest in psychoanalysis. On the other hand, publication activity within client-centered therapy showed initially exponential growth between 1944 and 1955, but since that time has been highly variable and has failed to maintain a rate of growth comparable to behavior therapy, psychoanalysis, and psychology.

Hoon and Lindsley (1974) have also compared publication activity within group therapeutic approaches. They found that experiential-group approaches have become very popular among psychologists who publish and have been growing at an exponential rate since 1965, though slightly less dramatically than behavior therapy at comparable points in time. Publications on psychodrama paralleled the general growth in group therapy until 1946, but since that time has shown fluctuations and has not kept pace with other therapeutic approaches, with the exception of client-centered therapy. Both client-centered therapy and psychodrama appear to be receiving proportionately less and less attention from psychologists

who publish.

Ernst (1971) expressed the view that there was an emphasis on training in the use of projective techniques at the expense of training in the use of behavioral modification techniques in current clinical programs at that time. Thelen, Varble, and Johnson (1968) reported the results of a survey of clinical faculty in which they found that only 12% could confidently assert that the value of projective testing was supported by research, yet the majority (71%) felt that the Rorschach and Thematic Apperception Test should be required in the course work of clinical students. If publication activity is an index of the relative emphasis of an area of clinical work among psychologists who publish, then Hoon and Lindsley's (1974) study would suggest that clinical training programs either de-emphasize training in projective testing, or at least encourage students to more critically research and examine the efficacy of these techniques. They also indicate that since 1954 publication activity in projective testing has peaked and is beginning to decline. There appears to be a trend suggesting that projective testing is attracting less and less attention from psychologists who publish. In Thelen, Varble, and Johnson's (1968) survey of clinical faculty, they also found that projective tests are seen as declining in importance. Clinical faculty feel that knowledge and skill in the use of projectives is not as important as they used to be, that there is a decline in the value given to projective tests among clinical faculty, and that in the future the value of projectives will decline in relation to the present. This finding is most evident among the younger clinical faculty members, suggesting that attitudes toward projective techniques are currently in a state of flux in their development from generation to generation.

Lubin et al. (1971) report on a national survey of psychological test usage conducted in the fall of 1969. Included in the sample were state institutions for the mentally ill and for the retarded, community health centers, counseling agencies, and VA neuropsychiatric field stations from all states. The response rate was 47%.

The highest ranked instruments, as determined by the total number of agencies mentioning the test, were the WAIS, Rorschach, Bender-Gestalt, TAT, Draw-A-Person, MMPI, WISC, Stanford-Binet, Sentence Completion Test (all kinds), and the House-Tree-Person. The rank order of instruments in terms of frequency of usage (the number of agencies that mentioned a specific frequency of usage multiplied by the numberical rating for that category of usage) is as follows: Bender-Gestalt, WAIS, Rorschach, Draw-A-Person, MMPI, WISC, TAT, Sentence Completion Test, House-Tree-Person, and Stanford-Binet.

Test usage by different components of this sample indicate that counseling centers differ most from the other components of the sample, in that no projective tests are listed among the most frequently used instruments in counseling centers.

Lubin et al. (1971) note that current clinical faculty believe that the use and importance of nonprojective assessment methods is increasing. Overall emphasis on diagnostic training is decreasing and there seems to be less course work either required or offered in projective methods. However, directors of clinical psychology internship centers continue to place a high value on diagnosis and on the usefulness of projective techniques; and the APA Employment Bulletin continues to reflect the expectation of clinical agencies that employees provide evaluative services.

More recently, Brown and McGuire (1976) conducted a nationwide survey of psychological test usage in mental health facilities. Intellectual assessment devices accounted for three of the top ten rankings (WISC, rank of 1; WAIS, rank of 3; Stanford-Binet, rank of 10). Three projective drawing instruments used for both intellectual and personality assessment purposes were in the top 10 rankings (Bender-Gestalt, rank of 2; Goodenough Draw-A-Person, rank of 8; House-Tree-Person, rank of 9. Other more strictly personality-assessment-oriented projective devices accounted for three of the four remaining rankings of the ten most frequently used instruments (Rorschach, rank of 5; Thematic Apperception Test, rank of 6; Sentence Completion tests, rank of 7). Finally, one objectively scored personality assessment instrument was included in the top 10 ranked devices, the MMPI (rank of 4).

Brown and McGuire indicate that there has been little overall change in the popularity of tests from 1971 to 1974. The use of both projective and nonprojective tests appear to be increasing at approximately the same rate, according to this study; however, the MMPI does appear to be increasing in overall frequency of usage, and is the single most frequently used personality assessment device with adults.

McKeachie (1976) documents an increasing dominance of cognitive approaches to the study of psychological issues, so that the various subspecialties of psychology are offering concepts for "understanding the whole person as a cognitive, conative, affective, biological and social individual." McKeachie notes that psychologists are coming to share a view of human nature that, in contrast with the earlier stimulus-response views, is more compatible with the views of Jefferson and other founding fathers, who saw man as primarily self-determined, rather

than the vector product of forces impinging on him from without.

Subdoctoral Education in Psychology

Cates and Dawson (1971) discuss the relationship of the characteristics of the master's level psychologist and the institution he graduates from, to the MA's postgraduation plans. They found that for each doctorate granted in psychology, there are approximately three master's degree recipients. Over 50% of the masters from master's-level departments and slightly less than 30% of the masters from doctoral departments planned to enter full-time employment in 1969 and 1970; the percentage planning to combine employment and education increased between 1969 and 1970, and the percentage planning full-time education decreased. Women from either type of department were less likely to continue their education. For both sexes, those over 30 were less likely to continue their education than those under 30; for men, the lowest rate of continuance was found for married who were over 30, and for women, the single over 30. The mean age for men was 27.4, and for women, 29.7; 67% of the men and 46% of the women were married.

Cates and Dawson (1971) also found that the starting salaries for master's recipients in 1970 were slightly over $9,500. Sixty-five percent of the degree recipients who planned full-time employment said that their training in psychology was directly related to their employment. Cates and Dawson concluded that the master's degree appears to be a critical juncture in graduate education. Many terminate their education at this point, and it seems probable that if financial support for graduate education is further reduced, the numbers will increase. On the positive side, it appears that the majority find employment that uses their previous education, and that they plan to continue their

education on an informal basis.

Arnhoff and Jenkins (1969) discuss the issues of the desirability, extent, and form of less than doctoral training in psychology. There has been a preoccupation with doctoral-level education and training, and a corresponding lack of articulation of bachelor and master-level programs within psychology's total educational purview. In contrast, there has been a steady growth in the production of people with BA's and MA's in psychology, and an upsurge of programs to train for psychological service at a less than doctoral level. The reality of the marketplace is that there is a prevalence of nondoctoral personnel. Arnhoff and Jenkins (1969) report that approximately half of the psychologists working in mental health establishments had less than the doctoral degree; and the majority of terminal MA's in psychology do wind up working as psychologists. Data from the 1966 National Science Foundation survey (Boneau, 1966) provide a systematic picture of the areas of psychology in which people with and without a master's degree work. The largest group of psychologists are in clinical or counseling and guidance, with approximately 47% of all MAs and all PhDs in these two fields. The remaining subdoctoral people cluster in the areas of school, educational, and industrial and personnel psychology. Of particular note is the area of school psychology in which over 76% of the psychologists have less than a doctoral degree. The more traditionally academic areas of experimental, social, and personality have proportionately more PhDs.

Examination of the settings in which psychologists work reveals comparable findings. Slightly over half of the PhDs are in colleges, universities, or medical schools, but only 16% of psychologists in such institutions are trained at the subdoctoral level. The MAs and the BAs

are largely employed by the secondary schools and school systems (74.8% MA), state and local government (51.6% MA), or other nonprofit organizations, or by business and industry (45.1% MA). These data support Albee's (1968) observation that the education, guidance, counseling, etc. of our children is primarily in the hands of people trained at the bachelor's level, and any psychological services provided them tends to be by MAs.

It would seem that much of the actual service and applied work in psychology is done by people without the doctoral degree, and there is little likelihood that this will change. As long as psychology continues to provide graduate training and awards graduate degrees at less than the doctoral level, it must give more thorough and systematic consideration to the training and employment of such people as part of the formal, recognized profession of psychology.

Clinical Psychology

Hersch (1969) traces the historical development of clinical psychology as a profession, observing that the role of the clinical psychologist, since the profession's inception, has been generally changing from one of providing clinical services for individuals to one of engaging in programs for social action. Shortly after World War II, clinical psychologists in the United States established for themselves a fairly clear set of roles as diagnosticians, therapists, and researchers in mental hospitals and clinics. In the next twenty years, there were dramatic expansions in the professional roles that clinical psychologists came to play. Gradually, the domain of this involvement grew to include mental health consultation, community mental health, community psychology, planned social change, and social action.

What is the position of clinical psychology in the United States now? Hersch (1969) identifies several trends. The first is a growing thrust towards establishing clinical psychology as an independent profession, freed from the constraints of both medicine and academic psychology. A sign of this trend is the establishment of mental health centers runs exclusively by psychologists. Another sign of this trend is the growing number of training programs that are geared to teaching students to become professional practitioners, rather than researchers and academics. These training programs, such as the one at the University of Illinois, offer a Doctor of Psychology degree rather than the PhD.

Another trend is psychologists directing their efforts towards previously neglected disadvantaged populations, such as the poor, the meagerly educated, and the mentally retarded. Respecting the limitations of available manpower, clinical psychologists have been extending their effectiveness by offering briefer forms of therapy, by working indirectly as mental health consultants, and by training mental health aides. They have also been manning new service delivery systems, such as walk-in clinics, the emergency service, and day-care centers. A related trend is the development of the comprehensive community mental health center, which offers services not only to the individual patient but to the community as a whole, such as planned community change in such areas as antipoverty programs and citizen committees on delinquency. Another area that psychologists have recently moved into is that of political lobbyist, promoting new legislation in areas touching on the welfare of the community. The role of the clinical psychologist in this setting extends into the domain of social intervention. The area of community

psychology has emerged as a new subspecialization in psychology, whose purpose is to train professionals who can work towards social change by fostering and supporting the efforts of local populations to determine their own destinies. Hersch (1969) identifies the core element of the above-mentioned trends as a thrust to bring about major and basic changes in the society through social and political action.

Knott (1969) discusses the manpower problem in relation to the current nature of graduate training in clinical psychology. He observes that there are thousands of individuals practically functioning as psychologists with only master's or even bachelor's degrees, and yet their training is woefully inadequate for the job functions that they are performing. Yet, there is ample documentation that subdoctoral persons can function in at least some of the roles of the clinical psychologist. For example, nurses (Ayllon and Michael, 1959), teachers (Harris, Wolf and Baer, 1964), parents (Russo, 1964), undergraduates (Davison, 1965), and housewives (Rioch, Elkes, Flint, Usdansky, Newman, and Silber, 1963) have been taught in short periods of time to be relatively efficient with certain forms of psychotherapy. Knott (1969) concludes that given the reality of the manpower problem, a solution is to develop specialist-oriented master's and bachelor's programs.

Thelen and Ewing wrote a series of papers investigating the roles, functions, and training procedures in clinical psychology. They sent a questionnaire (Thelen and Ewing, 1970) to 239 academic clinical psychologists in APA-approved clinical training programs to obtain their attitudes towards a number of issues in clinical psychology. Seventy-five per cent returned the questionnaire. A PhD degree, granted within a psychology department, with equal emphasis on scientific and applied

training, was endorsed by 94% of the respondents; and 86% of the respondents endorsed the training of MA and MS clinicians. Other doctoral programs for training clinicians, including PsyD degrees, did not receive strong endorsement. Various activity areas of clinical psychologists were rated by the respondents from six reference points ranging from adequacy of present training to training emphasis expected in seven years. Therapy and research were rated high by most of the respondents for all reference points. Many of the respondents believe that consulting and teaching should be emphasized more and that their clinical training program does not adequately train in these areas. The emphasis on diagnosis is expected to decline in training and in future usefulness. The respondents believed that the APA should have and has strongly supported research, but that it should support other interest areas more than it has. Last, the survey indicated that theory, research, and applied aspects of clinical psychology should be and will become more attuned to social problems and applicable toward the resolution of such problems.

Next, Ewing and Thelen (1970) investigated demographic variables associated with differing attitudes among academic clinical psychologists on roles, functions, and training in clinical psychology.

Ewing and Thelen, using a questionnaire developed by Thelen and Ewing (1970) examined the relationships between the attitudes of academic clinicians and a number of demographic variables. The questionnaire was sent to the same academic clinical psychologists mentioned earlier. Sixty-three per cent of the respondents were members of a state psychological association. State psychological association members, as opposed to nonmembers, more frequently supported the applica-

tion of clinical knowledge and skills to the resolution of contemporary social problems.

Age and academic rank were highly correlated. More full professors as opposed to less highly ranked faculty indicated that clinical theory and skills are socially relevant; and full professors were more supportive of a clinical training model which gives primary emphasis to scientific and secondary emphasis to applied training.

Some interesting trends were reported, when the data on location of training and the data on employment were compared. Clinicians who were both trained and employed in the South endorsed training in consulting. Eastern-employed clinicians were least positive towards the social relevance of clinical and personality theory and research, while Eastern-trained clinicians appeared consistently most positive towards the social relevance of applied clinical skills. "Academic clinicians, employed on both coasts were more apt to be questioning and/or rejecting of diagnostic activities, than were their Midwestern and Southern colleagues." (Ewing and Thelen, 1970). Ewing and Thelen conclude that

> . . . the continuing controversies over APA representation and clinical training models would appear to be nationally endemic; whereas the actual clinical training experiences provided and emphasized, the perception of clinical social relevance, and the degree of support for social action or problem solving seem more clearly to reflect the influence of regional or environmental conditions, at least insofar as the present data for academic clinicians are concerned.

Finally, Thelen and Ewing (1973) duplicated the procedure of their 1970 study on academic clinical psychologists, but this time with nonacademic applied clinicians. The response rate was 78%. In general, the data concerning clinical training programs and degrees demonstrate a consistent tendency for greater support of scientific training emphasis among academic clinicians and greater support for a

professional or applied training emphasis among nonacademic clinicians. However, both groups are more highly supportive of a program giving equal emphasis to scientific and applied training than any other type of program. Also, the PhD degree was consistently favored over a professional degree (PsyD) by a majority of both groups. Training in an interdisciplinary department is seen as desirable if the degree awarded is the PhD.

Applied psychologists enjoy therapy more than any other activity and few believe it is sufficiently emphasized or given adequate attention in current training. Most of the applied respondents indicated support for training in research, but they themselves do not find research activities to their liking. More of the applied respondents reported liking teaching (66%) than diagnosis (55%). Training in teaching was endorsed as useful to the clinician of the future by as many (about half) of the applied respondents as was diagnostic training. Thelen and Ewing note that when this information is considered in light of clinicians' substantial endorsement of consulting and therapy activities, one wonders about the implications for continued training of clinicians in agencies where the psychologist's primary role may be seen by other professionals as predominantly diagnostic. The support for both teaching interests and interdisciplinary training manifested by the applied respondents could reflect a desire to implement changes in training activities, or to secure greater access to personal participation in teaching activities. These findings suggest that the usual academic association of teaching with research and not with applied interests is not in accordance with the desires of a significant number of applied clinicians.

Strupp (1976) decries the trend towards anti-intellectualism, antiscientism, and antiprofessionalism in the profession of psychology, with a concomitant deterioration in the quality of clinical psychology training. In this trend, exemplified by the human potential movement, the intellect is indicted as the primary source of evil and dehumanization as well as the spoiler of pleasure in human relatedness. Strupp notes the fallacy that intellect and emotion are irreconcilably antithetical, stressing that both are needed in cooperation for an individual to be fully functioning:

> Reason, rationality, and the intellect, despite its vulnerabilities, were our best hopes for creating order both within our own souls, mediating between the blind instinctual strivings and the demands of the outer world, and for regulating our relations with our peers. For Freud, psychotherapy was a set of instrumental operations to bring human irrationality under control, to abolish or mitigate intrapsychic conflicts, to pave the way for the person's ability to achieve greater happiness and fulfillment by increasing the ability to love and to work, as he put it in a famous epigram (Strupp, 1976).

Strupp concludes that if clinical psychology is to maintain respect as a profession, it must reassert standards of training and quality of service.

Shakow (1976) suggests principles of teaching and training for the implementation of an integrated scientist-professional training program. He specifies these principles as ". . . (a) real-life settings to complement the more didactically presented aspects of the program; (b) establishment of general attitudes [fundamental to which is self-knowledge, achieved through self-evaluation under guidance]; (c) group participation in learning; (d) individualized techniques in learning; (e) unremitting environmental pressures; and finally, and perhaps most important, (f) appropriate role models."

Shakow (1976) also proposes that the university and the field-center training activities be as completely integrated as possible. He suggests as axiomatic that ". . . the greater the degree of integration between theory and practice, and between university and field center, the more effective the program." Substantially, Shakow would include three kinds of training: in personality principles, in real-life situations, and in real clinical situations. In the methodological area, he would include two kinds of training: in observations and in specific research methodology. Shakow also stresses the importance of associating the dissertation with practical problems in the field, to make the connection between theory and research both concrete and exciting to the student. Finally, Shakow believes that only a scientist-professional program providing a broad, general kind of professional psychological education can give a sound base for future specialization. Shakow (1976) also believes that psychology must ask itself several questions to evaluate the adequacy of its programs in clinical psychology: (1) How broadly conceived are these programs; (2) How well are the programs organized to achieve the double goal of developing persons to practice a profession objectively and/or a science humanistically; and (3) How well do they develop self-teachers, who will continually educate themselves throughout their lifetime.

Psychologists as Health-Service Providers

Lubin and Lubin (1972) report on the patterns of psychological services in the United States between 1959 and 1969, as gleaned from a survey on psychological test usage they performed in 1971. Sixty-two per cent of the sample reported that they were doing less psychological testing than five years ago. The percentage of time spent in testing for the period 1959 to 1969 is as follows. In 1959 the average was 44% (Sundberg, 1960); by 1969 it had decreased to 28% (range is from 20% in VA installations to 40% in mental retardation centers. Sundberg (1960) reports that the average number of patients seen for psychological testing in 1958 was 389 per psychological agency; in 1969 this number was 491. The average number of staff clinical psychologists, however, has not increased over the 10-year period: 3.30 in 1959 and 3.24 in 1969. Thus it appears that although less time is spent in testing, more patients are seen for testing, which would seem to imply less time per patient.

The overall percentage of tested cases who are children or adolescents was 49% in 1959 and 43% in 1969. In both 1959 and 1969, VA installations indicated the lowest percentage (less than 1%) and outpatient clinics the highest percentage (78% in 1959 and 65% in 1969).

For the total sample, 83% of the referral questions are accounted for by the following categories: questions of organicity, intellectual evaluation, evaluation of personality and emotional controls, and diagnosis. These functions are very similar to those reported by Sundberg in 1960:

> There were little mention of etiology, evaluation of change, management decisions, interpersonal relations (especially marital) and personal assets. Present practice in testing is centered on individuals (rather than concerned with interactions and situations also), concerned with present status (rather than with processes, causes, etiology, or with change over time), tenuously related to actual practical decisions and outcomes, and more concerned with what's wrong with the individual (his negatives) than with his assets or strengths.

In 1960 outpatient services, including counseling centers, employed a smaller proportion of PhD-level psychologists, but the discrepancy is not so great today (1969). In 1969, mental retardation centers have fewer PhD level psychologists and VA installations have the largest number.

VA installations (46%) and counseling centers (41%) are more likely to administer a routine battery of tests. About 1/3 of state hospitals, mental retardation centers, and outpatient clinics report using a routine battery. In 1959 VA installations also had the highest percentage of administration of routine test batteries, but counseling centers had the lowest.

Schofield (1969) discusses the specifics of how psychologists contribute to the delivery of health services, including theoretical and research efforts having implications for the promotion and maintenance of health. Schofield found that, insofar as publication is concerned, psychologists have three major foci: psychotherapy, schizophrenia, and mental retardation. There is now new stimulus to a broader role for psychology as one of the health sciences in the enlarged programs for research and service sponsored by such agencies as the National Institute for Mental Health, the National Institute for Child Health and Human Development, and the Social and Rehabilitation Services.

Of the 19,027 respondents in the Psychology Section of the 1966 National Register of Scientific and Technical Personnel, over half professed their greatest competence in specialties having to do with direct provision of clinical services (Boneau, 1968). However, of the total sample of psychologists, only one-fourth are primarily engaged in direct service activities as clinicians or counselors.

It is of interest to examine the Boulder model concept of the psychologist as a scientist-practitioner to see to what extent it corresponds to the reality of practice. Boneau (1968) found that only 6% of his sample of clinical and counseling psychologists indicate research as a primary activity. Fifty percent of psychologists with "clinical" skills are engaged in teaching, administration, or other nonservice and nonresearch activities. That less than 1 out of 10 clinically oriented psychologists has a primary investment in research has serious implications for the improvement of psychological practices and for increments to the scientific foundation of the profession.

Diagnosis and treatment are the most prominent service functions for psychologists. Sundberg (1961) and Sarason and Ganzer (1968) have pointed out that there exists a real need within the profession for more valid, reliable diagnostic instruments and professionally standardized patterns of procedure for individual assessment problems. Schofield (1969) notes that this need for more accurate diagnostic procedures should be observed and acted upon by researchers and in the professional training programs.

Schofield (1969) observes that a number of trends are converging at this time that make it desirable for psychologists to examine their

current activities and programs, and in particular the patterns for graduate education in psychology with a special view to the varying demands for psychological services. These trends include the increasing influence of scientific advances on health care, the changing composition of the population especially with regard to age, the increasing demand by individuals for more and better health care, the decreasing role of independent non-institutionalized private practice in the provision of health care, the need for increasing numbers of health personnel, and the expanding interest of government in the efficient and economical supply of health services. Psychology must acknowledge the existence of these demands, examine them, and decide whether or not it wants to act on them.

Dorken and Whiting (1974) document the nature, distribution and size of the group of psychologists who provide direct health services. Surveying the 1972 membership of the American Psychological Association, they found that although only 6% were primarily employed in independent or group practice, 28% performed counseling or psychotherapy on a fee-for-service basis in some setting, and nearly half of those performing fee-for-service therapy were primarily employed in educational settings. Given the well-publicized, current nationwide cutbacks in training and research funds, it is possible that psychologists may become progressively more involved in fee-for-service practice in the future. In addition, according to the 1972 survey, 63% of the APA membership are involved in the direct provision of human services, whether or not on a fee-for-service basis, and most of these psychologists are employed in an educational setting where their clinical services are a part of, but not the

primary part of, their job functions.

When only those psychologists who work in hospitals, clinics, and private, individual, or group practice are examined, 30% of this population are engaged primarily in individual or group practice, 38% are hospital-based, and 32% are clinic-based (Dorken and Whiting, 1974). Another interesting finding is that the percentage of professional time spent in service provision varies inversely with the general size of the employment setting, whether a hospital or other primary health setting, or a university. Moreover, while only 7% of the APA members were in private practice as their primary employment setting, they delivered 19% of all services by members and no less than 30% of all health services by psychologists in the hospital-clinic-practice triad. It appears that productivity and efficiency are maximal in relatively small service delivery units. Psychologists who are part of large organizations have decreased service time.

Seventy-five percent of the respondents to the Dorken and Whiting (1974) survey were full-time salaried personnel having no fee-for-service practice. Of the part-time fee-for-service practitioners, 57% were primarily employed in educational settings and one-quarter were employed in universities. About 30% of psychologists employed in each of the three settings of hospitals, universities, and clinics are engaged in some "extra" fee practice health services.

In terms of the client population seen, most psychologists see adults, about half see children, but only a quarter have any service contact with the aged. The field of aging accounts for only 1% of all clients seen. Dorken and Whiting's (1974) group saw an average of

35 clients weekly, 80% seeing between 20 and 50 clients. The full-time fee-for-service practitioner sees patients who can be classified in the following diagnostic categories: 65% have a behavior disorder or neurosis, 14% a character disorder, and the remaining 21% are about evenly distributed among the categories of addiction, psychoses, mental retardation, and neurological impairment.

For the full-time practitioner, the work week averaged 39.5 paid hours and 3.4 donated hours. Direct clinical service was the major activity, accounting for 81% of the time. About one-third were not engaged in consultation, while only 6% and 14%, respectively, devoted more than an hour a week to research or administration. The median reported gross professional income was $37,500, with one-fourth of the respondents having incomes under $30,000, and one-fourth, incomes of $50,000 or higher. While part-time practice income ranged widely from $80 to $50,000 annually, the interquartile range (mid-50%) was $1,250 or $7,500, with the median income from part-time practice being $3,000. A fee income of $8,000 or more was significantly more often attained at universities and by those with a doctorate.

Dorken and Whiting (1974) comment that the increasing recognition of professional psychologists as independent health practitioners is being achieved in part by negotiation, in part through statutory change, and in part through the judicial process. But they believe that in terms of health care delivery organizations, from the standpoint of practitioner satisfaction, quality control, system relevance and effectiveness, and consumer benefit, the corporate model under professional rather than government control, and with subcontracting for specialized services,

will prove best both in terms of cost effectiveness and flexible delivery of quality services. It is a conviction shared by this writer.

Psychologists have become increasingly concerned with the adequacy of their efforts to meet current health care needs (Rizzo, 1974). Brumback (1974), in an introduction to the published report on a symposium, "Toward a Psychology More Responsive to the Nation's Health Care Crisis," notes that psychologists can be contributors to health care, not only by virtue of the provision of direct clinical services, but also through evaluation of the entire health delivery system and consultation with hospital administrators, doctors, and nurses. Other writers who address this issue include Schofield (1976) and Wiggins (1976).

One way psychologists can contribute to the improvement of the nation's health care resources is through developing programs to measure the quality of physician, nursing, and health team performance (Taylor, 1974). Once criteria that predict effective performance are identified, they can be applied to the selection and training of future doctors, nurses and other health professionals. Taylor's study found, for example, that premedical and medical school grades have little or no relation to the career performance of physicians, while carefully constructed biographical inventory scores are the best predictors.

Fenderson (1974) discusses the development of a protocol for assessing job satisfaction and the clinical and financial impact of physicians assistants, extended nursing roles, and other new paramedical and medical personnel. Research into the ways these new types of health care personnel can be best utilized is needed. It is also important to know how well paramedical personnel will be accepted by physicians and patients alike.

Goodwin and Tu (1975) discuss the pressing need for social research in public policy formation, that addresses such questions as whether various sectors of the public accept the social security system, and why lower income people prefer sales taxes to income taxes even though the former are regressive. They suggest that internship programs for social psychology graduate students might be formed, that would expose students to governmental agencies that carry out or need public policy research. The interning of psychologists under appropriate sponsorship might provide a core of young scientists who could begin a new tradition of policy-relevant research.

More recently, the APA Task Force on Health Research (1976) surveyed and analyzed the extent and nature of contributions by psychologists to research on behavioral factors in physical illness and health maintenance. Funding is available, and more research is needed into psychological factors determining health and illness. Some areas of current interest are psychological factors affecting the development and treatment of cancer; the evaluation of health care and health education programs; the processes of successful rehabilitation; and attitudes related to health and health care.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

Despite all of the research on various demographic characteristics of psychologists thus far reported, there have been few systematic studies of the characteristics of psychologists done by individuals or single departments of psychology on small samples such as all graduates of a single university. Paul Quinnett (1971) of Washington State University did design a questionnaire study similar to the current study reported in this paper. Quinnett's questionnaire rated the adequacy of a number of training variables, such as experience opportunities, course content, research availability, and supervision.

Design of the questionnaire used in this 1975 survey on Loyola graduates was begun by the author in mid-1974. The final questionnaire version was devised and sent out after a critical review by the Director of the clinical psychology graduate program, Dr. Frank Kobler. Design objectives for the questionnaire included the utility of the data for demographic studies and statistical tabulations of data about psychologists and the profession; and representations of the qualifications and interests of psychologists, such that file searches could be made for those having specified characteristics.

Some standard biographical information was requested. Particular attention was given to representation of employment status, employment settings, and the nature of actual work activities. Other topics emphasized are authorship, and current graduate or post-doctoral study

programs. Questions that identify age, sex, legal status and religious affiliation are also asked. These will enable the compilation of statistical data to determine trends and to evaluate progress toward increasing opportunities for all psychologists.

Statistical processing will facilitate analysis of the many facets of psychologists' specialties, activities, training, employment settings, and the state of the profession. The data also allow analyses of occupational flexibility and geographic mobility, and thus will illuminate the processes by which the supply of educated workers adjust to changing demands.

A good deal of dispersion was expected in the graduates' current locations, since forty-five years had passed since the awarding of the first degrees. Some information was known about the graduates up to 1968 because of two previous studies done at Loyola (Medina, 1958; Kobler and Doiron, 1968). However, the information areas to be covered were so extensive that they could not be answered by any inspection of school records or data on hand. Therefore, a questionnaire was mailed to all the past graduates who could be located, as being the most efficient way of collecting the desired information.

The names of all the past graduates were collected from records kept in the Psychology Department Office. Addresses were obtained by following up information from the Alumni Office's Alumni Master File Roster Report, and old addresses taken from the Psychology Department files. Various faculty members and students were able to provide some addresses, and sometimes people from the early days of the department who were successfully traced were able to provide clues to the

whereabouts of their contemporaries. In the case of nuns and priests, calling the motherhouse or director of the particular order usually resulted in a correct address; the offices of the Archdiocese of Chicago were also helpful in this regard. Directories of the American Psychological Association, the Illinois Psychological Association, and similar organizations proved to be very helpful. By consulting these various sources, it was possible to get more or less current mailing addresses. At least one tentative address per graduate was obtained. Appendix I lists the names and current addresses of all degree recipients, as well as the dates their degrees were conferred.

After considerable revision, the questionnaire was first sent out in June of 1974. In its final construction, the questionnaire consisted of an introductory cover letter and twenty-one open-ended questions, mimeographed on five standard-sized pages, with Loyola University letterhead on the first page. The areas covered included age, religious status, location, and degrees acquired in all areas. Questions were asked on current and past positions, position title, agency worked for, the number of years in the position; the salary received, the hours worked per week, and the major psychological area of work. Other topics inquired about were membership affiliations in professional and scientific societies; licensing or certification; activities engaged in, in a typical work week; and psychological procedures that are employed. In terms of research, questions were asked about the publication of the thesis or dissertation; the area that the thesis or dissertation could be categorized in; other published or unpublished research; papers presented before professional groups; research grants or fellowships received; and the

desirability of having all graduate students obtain teaching and administrative experience.

The final section of the questionnaire asked the respondent to evaluate the program at Loyola. Item 18 asked the graduate what experiences provided to him at Loyola were helpful; Item 19 asked what was done that was of little or no help. Item 20 asked the respondent to indicate what changes in the training program at Loyola would bring it in line with his present professional and work needs. Item 21 asked for an overall rating of the graduate's training at Loyola. The purpose of the open-ended questions was to allow the respondent to clarify and develop his comments and judgments, as well as to include additional factors which he considered pertinent.

Two follow-up letters were sent to encourage return of the forms, which were signed by the director of the clinical training program, and some of which carried personal notes written by him to the recalcitrant respondents. The first follow-up letter was mailed in August 1974, and the second was mailed in October 1974. The completed forms were received, tabulated, and analyzed with regard to quantitative and qualitative features by the author. Specimens of the initial letter and the first and second follow-up letters are contained in Appendix II.

CHAPTER IV

PERSONAL AND PROFESSIONAL CHARACTERISTICS

From 1930, the year of the first Master of Arts degree (MA), through the year 1974, a total of 483 MA's have been conferred on graduate students in the Department of Psychology of Loyola University. From 1945, the year of the first Doctor of Philosophy degree (PhD), through the year 1974, 243 doctorates in psychology have been awarded. One hundred and forty-eight of the 243 PhD recipients also earned their MA degrees at Loyola University, meaning that a total of 578 individuals have earned the 726 advanced degrees.

Replies were received from 335 (58%) of the graduates. Information which could be incorporated into this report was received from all 335 of the respondents, but because of the open-ended nature of the questionnaire, different numbers of graduates responded to each of the variables that were established, which will be pointed out as it arises in reporting the results of this study.

In the most recent national survey performed by the American Psychological Association, Boneau and Cuca (1974) reported that the APA mailed an extensive questionnaire to its total membership (35,361) and to another 26,556 nonmembers. The final return included responses from 27,371 members (77%), and 7,990 nonmember respondents who were eligible for membership in the APA (out of a total of 10,785 nonmember responses). This is a total response rate of 62%, which compares favorably with the response rate for the Loyola survey.

The original Loyola study done by Medina (1958) reported a return rate of 83%; the study done by Kobler and Doiron (1968) had a return rate of 63%.

Of the 243 graduates not responding to the present study, 21 are known to have died. The principal explanation for the bulk of the 222 non-returns appeared to be that of inadequate or inaccurate addresses for the graduates from the earlier years. Men and women who left religious orders and who subsequently could not be traced, and women who changed their names by marriage accounted for a significant proportion of the non-returns. Although the author did have an address, however old, for every graduate and made every effort to re-locate graduates whose questionnaires were returned to Loyola University by the post-office, many graduates ultimately could not be located, as judged by repeated returns of questionnaires by the post-office. Of course, some of the non-return graduates received their questionnaires but did not respond to them. Some graduates who did not respond to the first questionnaire did respond to one of the two follow-up questionnaires. Aside from the probability that the earliest graduates stood less chance of receiving the questionnaires because of inaccurate addresses, there was no readily apparent systematic bias governing the return or non-return of the forms.

A greater percentage (82.3%) of the PhD recipients responded than the MA recipients (66.3%). This return rate is similar to that reported by Kobler and Doiron (1968) who had 83% of the PhD recipients respond, as compared to 47% of the MA recipients. The greater return rate on the part of the PhD graduates seems due to the greater recency of PhD awards

(the department has awarded the degree since 1945) as well as a greater amount of personal and professional involvement in the department on the part of the PhD graduates.

Overall, 42% of all graduates from the department of psychology at Loyola hold the doctorate, and 58% have the master's degree as their highest degree. Of the respondents, 59% possess the doctorate. This is in contrast to the 1972 APA study (Boneau & Cuca, 1974), in which 69% of the respondents in their sample held the doctorate.

Table 1 shows the distribution of MA and PhD degrees awarded for the 45-year period under consideration, for all Loyola graduates in the Department of Psychology. The peak year for MA's was 1973, when 40 degrees were awarded, and the peak for PhD's was 1974 when 21 degrees were awarded. For the sixteen-year period from 1930 through 1944 there were 20 MA's and no PhD's. For subsequent 10-year periods up to 1974, awarding of degrees was as follows: 1945 through 1954: 86 MA's and 16 PhD's; 1955 through 1964: 104 MA's and 72 PhD's; 1965 through 1974: 273 MA's and 155 PhD's. This exponential increase from ten-year period to ten-year period reflects the tremendous increase in psychology graduates which developed on a national scale with the great utilization of psychologists by the Veterans Administration after World War II.

Thus, from 1929 through 1944, there was an average of 1.25 MA's per year and no PhD's; for 1945 through 1954 there was an average of 8.6 MA's and 1.6 PhD's per year; for 1955 through 1964, 10.4 MA's and 7.2 PhD's; and for 1965 through 1974, 27.3 MA's and 15.5 PhD's per year.

McKenney (1976) also notes that the absolute number of psychologists nationwide has also undergone a dramatic increase since the twenties. APA membership has increased from less than 1,000 in 1925 to over

Table 1

Advanced Degrees Awarded from 1930 to 1974

in the Department of Psychology, Loyola University

Year	MA			PhD			All Degrees		
	Frequency	Percent of all MA's	Cumulative Percent	Frequency	Percent of all PhD's	Cumulative Percent	Frequency	Total Percent	Cumulative Percent
1930	1	0.2	0.2	0	0.0	0.0	1	0.1	0.1
1931	1	0.2	0.4	0	0.0	0.0	1	0.1	0.2
1932	4	0.8	1.2	0	0.0	0.0	4	0.5	0.8
1933	3	0.6	1.9	0	0.0	0.0	3	0.4	1.2
1934	0	0.0	1.9	0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0	1.2
1935	0	0.0	1.9	0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0	1.2
1936	0	0.0	1.9	0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0	1.2
1937	1	0.2	2.1	0	0.0	0.0	1	0.1	1.4
1938	1	0.2	2.3	0	0.0	0.0	1	0.1	1.5
1939	1	0.2	2.5	0	0.0	0.0	1	0.1	1.6
1940	1	0.2	2.7	0	0.0	0.0	1	0.1	1.8

Table 1 (Continued)

Advanced Degrees Awarded from 1930 to 1974

in the Department of Psychology, Loyola University

Year	MA			PhD			All Degrees		
	Frequency	Percent of all MA's	Cumulative Percent	Frequency	Percent of all PhD's	Cumulative Percent	Frequency	Total Percent	Cumulative Percent
1941	1	0.2	2.9	0	0.0	0.0	1	0.1	1.9
1942	3	0.6	3.5	0	0.0	0.0	3	0.4	2.3
1943	1	0.2	3.7	0	0.0	0.0	1	0.1	2.5
1944	2	0.4	4.1	0	0.0	0.0	2	0.2	2.8
1945	3	0.6	4.8	1	0.4	0.4	4	0.5	3.3
1946	3	0.6	5.4	0	0.0	0.4	3	0.4	3.7
1947	0	0.0	5.4	1	0.4	0.8	1	0.1	3.9
1948	1	0.2	5.6	0	0.0	0.8	1	0.1	4.0
1949	11	2.3	7.9	1	0.4	1.2	12	1.6	5.6
1950	8	1.7	9.5	1	0.4	1.6	9	1.2	6.9
1951	7	1.4	10.9	1	0.4	2.1	8	1.1	8.0

Table 1 (Continued)

Advanced Degrees Awarded from 1930 to 1974

in the Department of Psychology, Loyola University

Year	MA			PhD			All Degrees		
	Frequency	Percent of all MA's	Cumulative Percent	Frequency	Percent of all PhD's	Cumulative Percent	Frequency	Total Percent	Cumulative Percent
1952	22	4.6	15.5	2	0.8	2.8	24	3.3	11.3
1953	15	3.1	18.6	6	2.5	5.3	21	2.9	14.2
1954	16	3.3	21.9	3	1.2	6.6	19	2.6	16.8
1955	5	1.0	22.9	1	0.4	7.0	6	0.8	17.6
1956	10	2.1	25.1	6	2.5	9.5	16	2.2	19.8
1957	8	1.7	26.7	6	2.5	11.9	14	1.9	21.8
1958	12	2.5	29.2	5	2.1	14.0	17	2.3	24.1
1959	11	2.3	31.5	11	4.5	18.5	22	3.0	27.1
1960	11	2.3	33.7	5	2.1	20.6	16	2.2	29.3
1961	14	2.9	36.6	6	2.5	23.0	20	2.8	32.1
1962	11	2.3	38.9	10	4.1	27.2	21	2.9	35.0

Table 1 (Continued)

Advanced Degrees Awarded from 1930 to 1974

in the Department of Psychology, Loyola University

Year	MA			PhD			All Degrees		
	Frequency	Percent of all MA's	Cumulative Percent	Frequency	Percent of all PhD's	Cumulative Percent	Frequency	Total Percent	Cumulative Percent
1963	10	2.1	41.0	11	4.5	31.7	21	2.9	37.9
1964	12	2.5	43.5	11	4.5	36.2	23	3.2	41.0
1965	30	6.2	49.7	9	3.7	39.9	39	5.4	46.4
1966	20	4.1	53.8	9	3.7	43.6	29	3.9	50.4
1967	30	6.2	60.0	21	8.6	52.3	51	7.0	57.4
1968	25	5.2	65.2	18	7.4	59.7	43	5.9	63.4
1969	16	3.3	68.5	17	7.0	66.7	33	4.5	67.9
1970	15	3.1	71.6	19	7.8	74.5	34	4.7	72.6
1971	22	4.6	76.2	13	5.3	79.8	35	4.8	77.4
1972	38	7.9	84.1	12	4.9	84.8	50	6.9	84.3
1973	40	8.3	92.3	16	6.6	91.4	56	7.7	92.0

Table 1 (Continued)

Advanced Degrees Awarded from 1930 to 1974

in the Department of Psychology, Loyola University

Year	MA			PhD			All Degrees		
	Frequency	Percent of all MA's	Cumulative Percent	Frequency	Percent of all PhD's	Cumulative Percent	Frequency	Total Percent	Cumulative Percent
1974	37	7.7	100.0	21	8.6	100.0	58	7.9	100.0
Total	483		100.0	243		100.0	726		100.0

40,000 today; the number of titles of publications has increased from approximately 100,000 in 1925 to over 500,000 in 1975. Master's and doctoral degrees were given by slightly more than 100 departments in 1950 to over 300 in 1975.

Table 2 shows the distribution of MA and PhD degrees awarded for the 45-year period 1930 through 1974, whether from Loyola University of Chicago or from another university, for only the 335 respondents to this study who earned a total of 520 degrees. Three hundred and twenty MA's were awarded to the respondents, and 200 PhD's were awarded.

Sex Ratio

The sex ratio of graduate degree recipients in the Department of Psychology at Loyola University has changed markedly during different spans of time. Table 3 shows the year that advanced degrees were received, broken down by sex, for all graduates in the Department of Psychology at Loyola University. From 1930 to 1936 all the graduates were women who received Master's degrees. Gradually, more men entered the department until in 1951 there was a complete reversal, with 7 men having been awarded advanced degrees and only one woman. Medina (1958) reported that up until 1954, 56% of the Loyola graduates had been men. This increasing percentage of male over female graduates continued to hold true at the time of the Kobler and Doiron study (1968) when they reported that 66% of the 343 graduates were men.

For the forty-five year period 1930 through 1974, which the present study takes us to, men have received 73% (527) of all degrees and women have received 27% (199). When comparing the current proportion of men to women receiving advanced degrees to those of previous studies, the trend is for an increasingly greater proportion of men to receive

Table 2

For Respondents Only

Advanced Degrees Awarded from 1930 to 1975

in the Department of Psychology, Loyola University, and at other universities

Year	MA			PhD			All Degrees		
	Frequency	Adjusted Percent	Cumulative Percent	Frequency	Adjusted Percent	Cumulative Percent	Frequency	Adjusted Percent	Cumulative Percent
1930	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
1931	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1932	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0
1933	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
1934	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
1935	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
1936	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
1937	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1
1938	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1
1939	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1

Table 2

For Respondents Only

Advanced Degrees Awarded from 1930 to 1975

in the Department of Psychology, Loyola University, and at other universities

Year	MA			PhD			All Degrees		
	Frequency	Adjusted Percent	Cumulative Percent	Frequency	Adjusted Percent	Cumulative Percent	Frequency	Adjusted Percent	Cumulative Percent
1940	2	1	2	0	0	0	2	0	1
1941	1	0	2	0	0	0	1	0	1
1942	2	1	3	0	0	0	2	0	2
1943	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	2
1944	1	0	3	0	0	0	1	0	2
1945	4	1	4	2	1	1	6	1	3
1946	1	0	5	0	0	1	1	0	3
1947	2	1	5	1	0	1	3	1	4
1948	1	0	6	0	0	1	1	0	4
1949	6	2	7	1	0	2	7	1	5
1950	6	2	9	0	0	2	6	1	7

Table 2

For Respondents Only

Advanced Degrees Awarded from 1930 to 1975

in the Department of Psychology, Loyola University, and at other universities

Year	MA			PhD			All Degrees		
	Frequency	Adjusted Percent	Cumulative Percent	Frequency	Adjusted Percent	Cumulative Percent	Frequency	Adjusted Percent	Cumulative Percent
1951	6	2	11	0	0	2	6	1	8
1952	11	3	15	2	1	3	13	3	10
1953	8	2	17	5	2	5	13	3	13
1954	10	3	20	1	0	6	11	2	15
1955	6	2	22	3	1	7	9	2	17
1956	7	2	24	5	2	10	12	2	19
1957	5	2	26	4	2	12	9	2	21
1958	10	3	29	5	2	14	15	3	23
1959	9	3	32	8	4	18	17	3	27
1960	4	1	33	1	0	19	5	1	28
1961	12	4	37	8	4	23	20	4	32

Table 2

For Respondents Only

Advanced Degrees Awarded from 1930 to 1975

in the Department of Psychology, Loyola University, and at other universities

Year	MA			PhD			All Degrees		
	Frequency	Adjusted Percent	Cumulative Percent	Frequency	Adjusted Percent	Cumulative Percent	Frequency	Adjusted Percent	Cumulative Percent
1962	8	2	39	4	2	25	12	2	34
1963	11	3	43	9	4	29	20	4	38
1964	11	3	46	8	4	33	19	4	41
1965	19	6	52	6	3	36	25	5	46
1966	14	4	57	6	3	39	20	4	50
1967	19	6	63	18	9	48	37	7	57
1968	21	7	69	13	6	55	34	7	64
1969	11	3	72	12	6	61	23	4	68
1970	12	4	76	20	10	71	32	6	74
1971	12	4	80	10	5	76	22	4	78
1972	19	6	86	13	6	82	32	6	85

Table 2

For Respondents Only

Advanced Degrees Awarded from 1930 to 1975

in the Department of Psychology, Loyola University, and at other universities

Year	MA			PhD			All Degrees		
	Frequency	Adjusted Percent	Cumulative Percent	Frequency	Adjusted Percent	Cumulative Percent	Frequency	Adjusted Percent	Cumulative Percent
1973	22	7	93	14	7	89	36	7	92
1974	23	7	100	16	8	97	39	8	99
1975	-	-	-	5	2	100	5	1	100
Total	320		100	200		100	520		100

N.B.: Adjusted Percent refers to the frequency of a particular year divided by the total number of cases. The Adjusted Percent is rounded off to the nearest whole percent.

Table 3

Year Advanced Degrees Were Received, by Sex,

for All Graduates in the Department of Psychology, Loyola University

Year	Master's Degrees				Doctor's Degrees			
	Males		Females		Males		Females	
	Frequency	Total Percent	Frequency	Total Percent	Frequency	Total Percent	Frequency	Total Percent
1930	0	0.0	1	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0
1931	0	0.0	1	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0
1932	0	0.0	4	0.8	0	0.0	0	0.0
1933	0	0.0	3	0.6	0	0.0	0	0.0
1934	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
1935	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
1936	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
1937	1	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
1938	0	0.0	1	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0
1939	1	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
1940	1	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
1941	0	0.0	1	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0
1942	1	0.2	2	0.4	0	0.0	0	0.0
1943	0	0.0	1	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0
1944	1	0.2	1	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0
1945	1	0.2	2	0.4	1	0.4	0	0.0
1946	0	0.0	3	0.6	0	0.0	0	0.0
1947	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.4

Table 3

Year Advanced Degrees Were Received, by Sex,

for All Graduates in the Department of Psychology, Loyola University

Year	Master's Degrees				Doctor's Degrees			
	Males		Females		Males		Females	
	Frequency	Total Percent	Frequency	Total Percent	Frequency	Total Percent	Frequency	Total Percent
1948	0	0.0	1	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0
1949	5	1.0	6	1.2	1	0.4	0	0.0
1950	4	0.8	4	0.8	0	0.0	1	0.4
1951	6	1.2	1	0.2	1	0.4	0	0.0
1952	13	2.6	9	1.9	2	0.8	0	0.0
1953	13	2.6	2	0.4	4	1.6	2	0.8
1954	9	1.9	7	1.4	3	1.2	0	0.0
1955	2	0.4	3	0.6	0	0.0	1	0.4
1956	9	1.9	1	0.2	4	1.6	2	0.8
1957	5	1.0	3	0.6	6	2.5	0	0.0
1958	11	2.3	1	0.2	5	2.1	0	0.0
1959	8	1.7	3	0.6	9	3.7	2	0.8
1960	7	1.4	4	0.8	5	2.1	0	0.0
1961	9	1.9	5	1.0	6	2.5	0	0.0
1962	6	1.2	5	1.0	9	3.7	1	0.4
1963	8	1.7	2	0.4	10	4.1	1	0.4
1964	9	1.9	3	0.6	9	3.7	2	0.8
1965	23	4.8	7	1.4	5	2.1	4	1.6

Table 3

Year Advanced Degrees Were Received, by Sex,

for All Graduates in the Department of Psychology, Loyola University

Year	Master's Degrees				Doctor's Degrees			
	Males		Females		Males		Females	
	Frequency	Total Percent	Frequency	Total Percent	Frequency	Total Percent	Frequency	Total Percent
1966	12	2.5	8	1.7	6	2.5	3	1.2
1967	20	4.1	10	2.1	20	8.2	1	0.4
1968	23	4.8	2	0.4	11	4.5	7	2.8
1969	14	2.9	2	0.4	12	4.9	5	2.1
1970	13	2.7	2	0.4	16	6.6	3	1.2
1971	16	3.3	6	1.2	10	4.1	3	1.2
1972	29	6.0	9	1.9	10	4.1	2	0.8
1973	29	6.0	11	2.3	12	4.9	4	1.6
1974	30	6.2	7	1.4	11	4.5	10	4.1
Total	339	70.2	144	29.8	188	77.4	55	22.6

advanced degrees. Up to the present time, men have received 70.2% (339) of all the MA's awarded, and women have received 22.6% (55). The overall proportion of women to men, however, in contrast to earlier years of the department, remains about the same as that reported by other studies.

According to the 1972 APA survey reported by Boneau and Cuca (1974), seventy-five percent of the sample is male. This is almost identical to the proportion of advanced degrees that the men in the Loyola sample have earned.

Religious Status

An important aspect of the Loyola population is the high proportion of members of religious orders, both men and women, to the rest of the graduates. Respondents who are clergymen or members of religious orders, whether Roman Catholic or of another faith, will be subsequently referred to as religious. Unfortunately, accurate data is not available for the proportion of religious to lay graduates for the total population, since through examination of the returns many respondents who were religious have subsequently left their order. Consequently, statements about religious versus lay status based on such status at the time of graduation would now be erroneous.

However, information is available for religious versus lay status of the 335 respondents. Table 4 shows the year that the master's degree was received, by sex, for religious and lay graduates. Of the 335 respondents, 103 (30.7%) are members of religious orders or are clergymen, while 232 (69.3%) are not clergy. The proportion of religious respondents in this current study is similar to the total proportion of religious graduates reported by Medina in 1958 (26%) and by Kobler and Doiron in 1968 (25%). Examination of Tables 4 and 5 shows that

Table 4

For Respondents Only

Year Master's Degree Was Received, by Sex, for Religious and Lay Graduates in the Department of Psychology, Loyola University

Year	Count Row Percent Column Percent Total Percent	Religious			Lay		
		Male	Female	Row Total	Male	Female	Row Total
1930		0 0.0 0.0 0.0	1 100.0 1.4 1.0	1 1.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0
1931		0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0
1932		0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	1 100.0 1.8 0.5	1 0.5
1933		0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0
1934		0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0
1935		0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0
1936		0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0

Table 4 (Continued)

For Respondents Only

Year Master's Degree Was Received, by Sex, for Religious and Lay Graduates in the Department of Psychology, Loyola University

Year	Count Row Percent Column Percent Total Percent	Religious			Lay		
		Male	Female	Row Total	Male	Female	Row Total
1937		1 100.0 1.4 1.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	1 1.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0
1938		0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	1 100.0 1.8 0.5	1 0.5
1939		0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0
1940		2 100.0 2.7 2.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	2 2.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0
1941		0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0	1 100.0 0.6 0.5	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	1 0.5
1942		0 0.0 0.0 0.0	1 100.0 3.6 1.0	1 1.0	1 100.0 0.6 0.5	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	1 0.5
1943		0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0
1944		0 0.0 0.0 0.0	1 100.0 3.6 1.0	1 1.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0

Table 4 (Continued)

For Respondents Only

Year Master's Degree Was Received, by Sex, for Religious and Lay Graduates in the Department of Psychology, Loyola University

Year	Count Row Percent Column Percent Total Percent	Religious			Lay		
		Male	Female	Row Total	Male	Female	Row Total
1945		2 66.7 2.7 2.0	1 33.3 3.6 1.0	3 3.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	1 100.0 1.8 0.5	1 0.5
1946		0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0	1 100.0 0.6 0.5	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	1 0.5
1947		2 100.0 2.7 2.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	2 2.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0
1948		0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0	1 100.0 0.6 0.5	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	1 0.5
1949		1 50.0 1.4 1.0	1 50.0 3.6 1.0	2 2.0	3 75.0 1.9 1.4	1 25.0 1.8 0.5	4 1.8
1950		0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0	2 33.3 1.2 0.9	4 66.7 7.0 1.8	6 2.7
1951		2 100.0 2.7 2.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	2 2.0	3 75.0 1.9 1.4	1 25.0 1.8 0.5	4 1.8
1952		0 0.0 0.0 0.0	3 100.0 10.7 3.0	3 3.0	8 100.0 4.9 3.7	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	8 3.7

Table 4 (Continued)

For Respondents Only

Year Master's Degree Was Received, by Sex, for Religious and Lay Graduates in the Department of Psychology, Loyola University

Year	Count Row Percent Column Percent Total Percent	Religious			Lay		
		Male	Female	Row Total	Male	Female	Row Total
1953		0 0.0 0.0 0.0	1 100.0 3.6 1.0	1 1.0	7 100.0 4.3 3.2	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	7 3.2
1954		1 100.0 1.4 1.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	1 1.0	7 77.8 4.3 3.2	2 22.2 3.5 0.9	9 4.1
1955		0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0	5 83.3 3.1 2.3	1 16.7 1.8 0.5	6 2.7
1956		1 100.0 1.4 1.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	1 1.0	5 83.3 3.1 2.3	1 16.7 1.8 0.5	6 2.7
1957		0 0.0 0.0 0.0	1 100.0 3.6 1.0	1 1.0	3 75.0 1.9 1.4	1 25.0 1.8 0.5	4 1.8
1958		4 100.0 5.5 4.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	4 4.0	6 100.0 3.7 2.7	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	6 2.7
1959		1 50.0 1.4 1.0	1 50.0 3.6 1.0	2 2.0	5 71.4 3.1 2.3	2 28.6 3.5 0.9	7 3.2
1960		0 0.0 0.0 0.0	1 100.0 0.0 0.0	1 1.0	2 66.7 1.2 0.9	1 33.3 1.8 0.5	3 1.4

Table 4 (Continued)

For Respondents Only

Year Master's Degree Was Received, by Sex, for Religious and Lay Graduates in the Department of Psychology, Loyola University

Year	Count Row Percent Column Percent Total Percent	Religious			Lay		
		Male	Female	Row Total	Male	Female	Row Total
1961		4 80.0 5.5 4.0	1 20.0 3.6 1.0	5 5.0	5 71.4 3.1 2.3	2 28.6 3.5 0.9	7 3.2
1962		1 100.0 1.4 1.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	1 1.0	2 28.6 1.2 0.9	5 71.4 8.8 2.3	7 3.2
1963		1 100.0 1.4 1.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	1 1.0	9 90.0 5.6 4.1	1 10.0 1.8 0.5	10 4.6
1964		0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0	6 54.5 3.7 2.7	5 45.5 8.8 2.3	11 5.0
1965		5 83.3 6.8 5.0	1 16.7 3.6 1.0	6 5.9	11 84.6 6.8 5.0	2 15.4 3.5 0.9	13 5.9
1966		1 50.0 1.4 1.0	1 50.0 3.6 1.0	2 2.0	9 75.0 5.6 4.1	3 25.0 5.3 1.4	12 5.5
1967		3 75.0 4.1 3.0	1 25.0 3.6 1.0	4 4.0	8 53.3 4.9 3.7	7 46.7 12.3 3.2	15 6.8
1968		6 100.0 8.2 5.9	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	6 5.9	14 93.3 8.6 6.4	1 6.7 1.8 0.5	15 6.8

Table 4 (Continued)

For Respondents Only

Year Master's Degree Was Received, by Sex, for Religious and Lay Graduates in the Department of Psychology, Loyola University

Year	Count Row Percent Column Percent Total Percent	Religious			Lay		
		Male	Female	Row Total	Male	Female	Row Total
1969		4 100.0 5.5 4.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	4 4.0	5 71.4 3.1 2.3	2 28.6 3.5 0.9	7 3.2
1970		1 100.0 1.4 1.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	1 1.0	9 81.8 5.6 4.1	2 18.2 3.5 0.9	11 5.0
1971		7 70.0 9.6 6.9	3 30.0 10.7 3.0	10 9.9	2 100.0 1.2 0.9	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	2 0.9
1972		4 57.1 5.5 4.0	3 42.9 10.7 3.0	7 6.9	10 83.3 6.2 4.6	2 16.7 3.5 0.9	12 5.5
1973		7 77.8 9.6 6.9	2 22.2 7.1 2.0	9 8.9	6 46.2 3.7 2.7	7 53.8 12.3 3.2	13 5.9
1974		11 68.8 15.1 10.9	5 31.3 17.9 5.0	16 15.8	6 85.7 3.7 2.7	1 14.3 1.8 0.5	7 3.2
Column Total		73 72.3	28 27.7	101 100.0	162 74.0	57 26.0	219 100.0

Table 5

For Respondents Only

Year Doctorate Was Received, by Sex, for Religious and Lay Graduates

in the Department of Psychology, Loyola University

Year	Count Row Percent Column Percent Total Percent	Religious			Lay		
		Male	Female	Row Total	Male	Female	Row Total
1945		1 100.0 3.3 2.6	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	1 2.6	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	1 100.0 3.1 0.6	1 0.6
1947		0 0.0 0.0 0.0	1 100.0 11.1 2.6	1 2.6	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0
1949		1 100.0 3.3 2.6	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	1 2.6	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0
1952		1 100.0 3.3 2.6	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	1 2.6	1 100.0 0.8 0.6	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	1 0.6
1953		2 66.7 6.7 5.1	1 33.3 11.1 2.6	3 7.7	1 50.0 0.8 0.6	1 50.0 3.1 0.6	2 1.2
1954		0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0	1 100.0 0.8 0.6	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	1 0.6
1955		0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0	2 66.7 1.6 1.2	1 33.3 3.1 0.6	3 1.9

Table 5 (Continued)

For Respondents Only

Year Doctorate Was Received, by Sex, for Religious and Lay Graduates

in the Department of Psychology, Loyola University

Year	Count Row Percent Column Percent Total Percent	Religious			Lay		
		Male	Female	Row Total	Male	Female	Row Total
1956		0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0	5 100.0 3.9 3.1	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	5 3.1
1957		0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0	4 100.0 3.1 2.5	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	4 2.5
1958		0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0	5 100.0 3.9 3.1	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	5 3.1
1959		0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0	6 75.0 4.7 3.7	2 25.0 6.3 1.2	8 5.0
1960		0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0	1 100.0 0.8 0.6	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	1 0.6
1961		0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0	7 87.5 5.4 4.3	1 12.5 3.1 0.6	8 5.0
1962		3 100.0 10.0 7.7	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	3 7.7	1 100.0 0.8 0.6	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	1 0.6

Table 5 (Continued)

For Respondents Only

Year Doctorate Was Received, by Sex, for Religious and Lay Graduates in the Department of Psychology, Loyola University

Year	Count Row Percent Column Percent Total Percent	Religious			Lay		
		Male	Female	Row Total	Male	Female	Row Total
1963		3 75.0 10.0 7.7	1 25.0 11.1 2.6	4 10.3	5 100.0 3.9 3.1	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	5 3.1
1964		0 0.0 0.0 0.0	1 100.0 11.1 2.6	1 2.6	6 85.7 4.7 3.7	1 14.3 3.1 0.6	7 4.3
1965		0 0.0 0.0 0.0	1 100.0 11.1 2.6	1 2.6	4 80.0 3.1 2.5	1 20.0 3.1 0.6	5 3.1
1966		1 50.0 3.3 2.6	1 50.0 11.1 2.6	2 5.1	4 100.0 3.1 2.5	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	4 2.5
1967		3 100.0 10.0 7.7	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	3 7.7	14 93.3 10.9 8.7	1 6.7 3.1 0.6	15 9.3
1968		1 100.0 3.3 2.6	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	1 2.6	8 66.7 6.2 5.0	4 33.3 12.5 2.5	12 7.5
1969		2 100.0 6.7 5.1	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	2 5.1	6 60.0 4.7 3.7	4 40.0 12.5 2.5	10 6.2
1970		1 50.0 3.3 2.6	1 50.0 11.1 2.6	2 5.1	18 100.0 14.0 11.2	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	18 11.2

Table 5 (Continued)

For Respondents Only

Year Doctorate Was Received, by Sex, for Religious and Lay Graduates

in the Department of Psychology, Loyola University

Year	Count Row Percent Column Percent Total Percent	Religious			Lay		
		Male	Female	Row Total	Male	Female	Row Total
1971		3 100.0 10.0 7.7	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	3 7.7	5 71.4 3.9 3.1	2 28.6 6.3 1.2	7 4.3
1972		2 100.0 6.7 5.1	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	2 5.1	8 72.7 6.2 5.0	3 27.3 9.4 1.9	11 6.8
1973		2 100.0 6.7 5.1	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	2 5.1	9 75.0 7.0 5.6	3 25.0 9.4 1.9	12 7.5
1974		4 66.7 13.3 10.2	2 33.3 22.2 5.1	6 15.4	8 53.3 6.2 5.0	7 46.6 21.9 4.3	15 9.3
Column Total		30 76.9	9 23.1	39 100.0	129 80.1	32 19.9	161 100.0

almost one-third of all master's degrees (32%) and nearly a quarter of all doctorates (20%) have been awarded to clergy.

Since 248 (74%) of the 335 respondents were men, the present study is representative on the sex-dimension of the total number of Loyola graduates. The respondents to this study are also representative of the total population of Department of Psychology graduates on the dimension of the proportion of men to women MA's versus PhD's. Seventy-three percent of the MA respondents were male, while 70.2% of the total number of MA's awarded have gone to men. Conversely, 26.6% of the MA respondents were female, in contrast to women receiving 29.8% of the total number of MA's. Likewise, 79.5% of the PhD respondents were male, in contrast to men receiving 77.4% of all PhD's awarded. Women respondents comprise 20.5% of the PhD respondents, while women received 22.6% of the total number of PhD's.

Women religious account for 9% of all MA's and male religious account for 23% of all MA's. On the other hand, women religious account for only 5% of all doctorates among the respondents, and male religious account for 15% of all the doctorates among the respondents. For any ten year period that can be examined, clergy receive between 25% and 30% of all graduate degrees at Loyola.

Summary Tables

Tables 6, 7, and 8 are summary tables for the respondents to this study. Table 6 gives a breakdown by sex for the 335 respondents who have received advanced degrees in the Department of Psychology, Loyola University. Table 7 shows the religious status of all of the advanced degree recipients who responded to this study. Most of the subsequent analyses are categorized in terms of whether the respondent received only his master's degree from Loyola, only his doctorate, or both the

Table 6

Sex of Advanced Degree Recipients in Psychology

at Loyola University

Sex	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (Percent)
Male	248	74.0
Female	87	26.0
Total	335	100.0

Table 7

Religious Status of Advanced Degree Recipients in Psychology at Loyola University

Religious Status	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (Percent)
Religious	103	30.7
Lay	232	69.3
Total	335	100.0

Table 8

Number of Respondents Who Received the MA Only, PhD Only, and both MA and PhD from the Department of Psychology, Loyola University

Degree Status	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (Percent)
MA only from Loyola	158	47.2
PhD only from Loyola	60	17.9
MA and PhD from Loyola	117	34.9
Total	335	100.0

master's and doctorate in psychology from Loyola. Table 8 shows the number of respondents who received the MA only, PhD only, or both the MA and PhD in psychology from Loyola.

Age

Information was available on the current age of 319 of the 335 respondents. The mean age for these 319 respondents was 42.06 years, with a range from 25 to 74 years of age. The median age is 41.05 years.

Age at Time of Degree Award

The mean age for acquiring the MA at Loyola is 31.12 years. The median is 29 years, and the mode is 25 years. Three respondents received their MA's while only 22 years old, while one respondent received his MA at age 61. Comparing this data to that obtained by Medina in 1958 and Kobler and Doiron in 1968, graduates overall are receiving their MA's at slightly younger ages. Table 9 shows the distribution of ages at the time of acquiring the master's degree at Loyola, for those respondents who received the MA only, the PhD only, and both the MA and PhD in the Department of Psychology.

For the PhD's, the mean age was 33.63 years; the median age 32 years; and the mode was 29 years. The range extended from 25 years old, when four respondents received their PhD's either at Loyola or another university, to 54 years, when one woman received her PhD. Again, there is a decline when comparing this data with that obtained by Medina (1958), who found that in 1958 the median age for obtaining the PhD was 36.5 years; and Kobler and Doiron, who in 1968 found the median age for obtaining the PhD to be 33.5 years. Table 10 shows the distribution of ages at the time of acquiring the PhD for those respondents who received

Table 9

Age at Time of Acquiring Master's Degree,

for Respondents Who Received the MA Only, PhD Only, and both MA and PhD

in the Department of Psychology, Loyola University

Age in Years	MA only	PhD only	Both MA and PhD	Total
22	3	0	0	3
23	4	4	7	15
24	4	6	6	16
25	17	7	20	44
26	7	7	12	26
27	9	3	13	25
28	6	2	7	15
29	7	6	9	22
30	5	4	7	16
31	7	1	5	13
32	9	2	3	14
33	4	2	3	9
34	2	0	0	2
35	10	2	3	15
36	4	0	2	6
37	7	0	4	11
38	3	0	3	6
39	5	1	0	6
40	3	1	0	4

Table 9 (Continued)

Age at Time of Acquiring Master's Degree,

for Respondents Who Received the MA Only, PhD Only, and both MA and PhD

in the Department of Psychology, Loyola University

Age in Years	MA only	PhD only	Both MA and PhD	Total
41	2	0	2	4
42	2	0	1	3
43	1	0	0	1
44	5	1	1	7
45	3	0	0	3
46	6	0	0	6
47	3	0	0	3
48	0	1	0	1
49	2	0	1	3
50	1	0	0	1
51	1	0	0	1
52	1	0	0	1
59	1	0	0	1
60	1	0	0	1
61	1	0	0	1
Total	146	50	109	305

Missing Data = 30

Table 10

Age At Which PhD Was Earned, for Graduates Who Received the MA Only, PhD Only, and MA & PhD in the Department of Psychology, Loyola University

Age at PhD	Count Row Percent Column Percent Total Percent	MA only from Loyola	PhD only from Loyola	MA & PhD from Loyola	Row Total
25		1 25.0 4.2 0.5	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	3 75.0 2.7 1.5	4 2.1
26		1 10.0 4.2 0.5	1 10.0 1.7 0.5	8 80.0 7.2 4.1	10 5.2
27		0 0.0 0.0 0.0	3 27.3 5.1 1.5	8 72.7 7.2 4.1	11 5.7
28		1 5.6 4.2 0.5	4 22.2 6.8 2.1	13 72.2 11.7 6.7	18 9.3
29		1 4.8 4.2 0.5	5 23.8 8.5 2.6	15 71.4 13.5 7.7	21 10.8
30		1 9.1 4.2 0.5	5 45.5 8.5 2.6	5 45.5 4.5 2.6	11 5.7
31		0 0.0 0.0 0.0	5 29.4 8.5 2.6	12 70.6 10.8 6.2	17 8.8
32		2 12.5 8.3 1.0	5 31.3 8.5 2.6	9 56.3 8.1 4.6	16 8.2

Table 10 (Continued)

Age At Which PhD Was Earned, for Graduates Who Received the MA Only, PhD Only, and MA & PhD in the Department of Psychology, Loyola University

Age at PhD	Count Row Percent Column Percent Total Percent	MA only from Loyola	PhD only from Loyola	MA & PhD from Loyola	Total
33		0 0.0 0.0 0.0	2 33.3 3.4 1.0	4 66.7 3.6 2.1	6 3.1
34		1 11.1 4.2 0.5	2 22.2 3.4 1.0	6 66.7 5.4 3.1	9 4.6
35		1 20.0 4.2 0.5	1 20.0 1.7 0.5	3 60.0 2.7 1.5	5 2.6
36		3 42.9 12.5 1.5	2 28.6 3.4 1.0	2 28.6 1.8 1.0	7 3.6
37		4 40.0 16.7 2.1	3 30.0 5.1 1.5	3 30.0 2.7 1.5	10 5.2
38		1 20.0 4.2 0.5	3 60.0 5.1 1.5	1 20.0 0.9 0.5	5 2.6
39		0 0.0 0.0 0.0	4 50.0 6.8 2.1	4 50.0 3.6 2.1	8 4.1
40		1 16.7 4.2 0.5	3 50.0 5.1 1.5	2 33.3 1.8 1.0	6 3.1

Table 10 (Continued)

Age At Which PhD Was Earned, for Graduates Who Received the MA Only, PhD Only, and MA & PhD in the Department of Psychology, Loyola University

Age at PhD	Count Row Percent Column Percent Total Percent	MA only from Loyola	PhD only from Loyola	MA & PhD from Loyola	Total
41		0 0.0 0.0 0.0	1 25.0 1.7 0.5	3 75.0 2.7 1.5	4 2.1
42		1 10.0 4.2 0.5	4 40.0 6.8 2.1	5 50.0 4.5 2.6	10 5.2
43		0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	1 100.0 0.9 0.5	1 0.5
44		0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	1 100.0 0.9 0.5	1 0.5
45		1 33.3 4.2 0.5	2 66.7 3.4 1.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	3 1.5
46		0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	1 100.0 0.9 0.5	1 0.5
47		1 25.0 4.2 0.5	3 75.0 5.1 1.5	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	4 2.1
48		0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	1 100.0 0.9 0.5	1 0.5

Table 10 (Continued)

Age At Which PhD Was Earned, for Graduates Who Received the MA Only, PhD Only, and MA & PhD in the Department of Psychology, Loyola University

Age at PhD	Count Row Percent Column Percent Total Percent	MA only from Loyola	PhD only from Loyola	MA & PhD from Loyola	Total
49		2 100.0 8.3 1.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	2 1.0
51		0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	1 100.0 0.9 0.5	1 0.5
52		1 100.0 4.2 0.5	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	1 0.5
54		0 0.0 0.0 0.0	1 100.0 1.7 0.5	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	1 0.5
Column Total		24 12.4	59 30.4	111 57.2	194 100.0

Missing Data = 6

the MA only, the PhD only, and both the MA and the PhD in the Department of Psychology.

Interesting differences are found among the respondents to the present study when comparing those respondents who earned the MA only from Loyola, to those who later went on to also earn the PhD. The average age for receiving the MA degree among those respondents for whom that is the highest degree earned at Loyola, was 33.73 years. For those respondents who later earned the PhD, however, the average age upon receipt of the MA was 28.82 years. This data is very similar to that found by Kobler and Doiron (1968), who in 1968 found that the average age for the terminal MA at Loyola was 33.2 years, but for respondents who later earned the PhD, the average age when receiving the MA was 29.7 years. They suggest that those students who enter graduate school at a younger age tend to continue their education towards the PhD. This trend continues to be true in 1974.

A striking difference in ages at the time of acquiring the master's degree continues to be found for lay graduates versus religious graduates. The average age for the MA among religious respondents is 36.27 years. This is in contrast to the average age for acquiring the MA among lay graduates, which is 28.82 years. Kobler and Doiron (1968) speculated that this is due to the long periods of training which religious typically undergo before beginning graduate school, or alternatively to the fact that many religious begin graduate school after working in other positions. A similar difference exists in the average age at which religious receive their PhD's, as compared to the average age at which lay graduates received the PhD. The average age for the religious

graduate to receive the PhD is 29.40 years, while the average age for the lay graduate to receive the PhD is 32.29 years.

When comparing the average ages at which males and females, both religious and lay, receive the MA and PhD, the breakdown is as follows: male religious MA average age = 36.0; female religious MA average age = 36.96; male lay MA average age = 28.59; female lay MA average age = 29.54 years. For respondents receiving the doctorate: male religious PhD average age = 39.86; female religious PhD average age = 37.75; male lay PhD average age = 32.32; female lay PhD average age = 32.17. Table 11 shows the distribution of ages at the time of acquiring the master's degree, by sex, for religious and lay graduates in the Department of Psychology at Loyola. Table 12 similarly shows the distribution of ages at the time of acquiring the doctorate, by sex, for religious and lay graduates.

Table 13 shows the age at the time of acquiring the bachelor's degree for religious and lay graduates who received advanced degrees in the Department of Psychology at Loyola. It may be seen that, as in the case of master's degrees and doctorates, religious graduates receive their bachelor's degrees later than lay graduates on the average.

Table 14 shows the time elapsed between earning the BA and PhD degrees for Loyola graduates in the Department of Psychology who earned both degrees; and Table 15 shows the time elapsed between earning the MA and PhD degrees for Loyola graduates in the Department of Psychology who earned both degrees. Data was available for 187 respondents regarding the time elapsed between earning the BA and PhD degrees. The median time elapsed between earning the BA and PhD degrees was

Table 11

Age at Time of Acquiring Master's Degree

by Sex, for Religious and Lay Graduates

in the Department of Psychology, Loyola University

Age in Years	Religious			Lay		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
22	0	0	0	2	1	3
23	2	0	2	7	6	13
24	1	0	1	8	7	15
25	2	0	2	35	7	42
26	3	0	3	19	4	23
27	3	0	3	18	4	22
28	1	2	3	11	1	12
29	1	3	4	15	3	18
30	2	1	3	11	2	13
31	5	0	5	5	3	8
32	7	2	9	2	3	5
33	2	2	4	4	1	5
34	0	1	1	0	1	1
35	6	2	8	6	1	7
36	2	1	3	3	0	3
37	6	1	7	3	1	4
38	3	1	4	2	0	2
39	3	2	5	0	1	1

Table 11 (Continued)

Age at Time of Acquiring Master's Degree

by Sex, for Religious and Lay Graduates

in the Department of Psychology, Loyola University

Age in Years	Religious			Lay		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
40	0	1	1	2	1	3
41	4	0	4	0	0	0
42	2	1	3	0	0	0
43	1	0	1	0	0	0
44	3	1	4	3	0	3
45	1	1	2	0	1	1
46	3	1	4	2	0	2
47	1	1	2	0	1	1
48	0	0	0	0	1	1
49	1	1	2	0	1	1
50	0	0	0	0	1	1
51	1	0	1	0	0	0
52	0	1	1	0	0	0
59	1	0	1	0	0	0
60	1	0	1	0	0	0
61	0	0	0	1	0	1
Total	68	26	94	159	52	211

Missing Data = 30

Table 12

Age at Time of Acquiring Doctor's Degree

by Sex, for Religious and Lay Graduates

in the Department of Psychology, Loyola University

Age in Years	Religious			Lay		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
25	0	0	0	2	2	4
26	0	0	0	7	3	10
27	1	0	1	6	4	10
28	0	0	0	16	2	18
29	0	0	0	17	3	20
30	0	0	0	9	2	11
31	1	1	2	12	3	15
32	1	1	2	14	0	14
33	0	1	1	4	1	5
34	3	0	3	6	0	6
35	0	0	0	5	0	5
36	1	1	2	3	2	5
37	3	0	3	6	1	7
38	1	0	1	4	0	4
39	3	0	3	3	2	5
40	2	1	3	2	1	3
41	2	1	3	1	0	1

Table 12 (Continued)

Age at Time of Acquiring Doctor's Degree

by Sex, for Religious and Lay Graduates

in the Department of Psychology, Loyola University

Age in Years	Religious			Lay		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
42	4	1	5	4	1	5
43	1	0	1	0	0	0
44	0	0	0	1	0	1
45	1	0	1	1	1	2
46	0	0	0	1	0	1
47	1	1	2	2	0	2
48	1	0	1	0	0	0
49	2	0	2	0	0	0
50	0	0	0	0	0	0
51	1	0	1	0	0	0
52	0	0	0	1	0	1
53	0	0	0	0	0	0
54	0	0	0	0	1	1
Total	29	8	37	127	29	156

Missing Data = 7

Table 13

Age At Time of Acquiring Bachelor's Degree
for Religious and Lay Graduates Who Received Advanced Degrees
in the Department of Psychology, Loyola University

Age in Years	Religious	Lay	Total
16	0	1	1
17	0	1	1
19	2	0	2
20	0	5	5
21	9	25	34
22	17	94	111
23	18	22	40
24	9	11	20
25	8	7	15
26	3	8	11
27	4	8	12
28	1	5	6
29	3	3	6
30	0	2	2
32	2	1	3
33	1	2	3
34	1	1	2
38	1	0	1
39	3	0	3
41	0	1	1
42	0	1	1
Total	82	198	280

Missing Data = 55

Table 14

Time Elapsed Between Earning the BA and PhD Degrees

For Loyola Graduates in the Department of Psychology

Who Earned Both Degrees

Time Between BA & PhD (Years)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (Percent)*
3	3	2.0
4	8	4.0
5	16	9.0
6	27	14.0
7	17	9.0
8	17	9.0
9	20	11.0
10	12	6.0
11	10	5.0
12	5	3.0
13	3	2.0
14	11	6.0
15	8	4.0
16	6	3.0
17	7	4.0
18	2	1.0
19	5	3.0
20	2	1.0
21	1	1.0
22	1	1.0
23	2	1.0
24	1	1.0
25	0	0.0
26	0	0.0
27	1	1.0
28	1	1.0
29	0	0.0
30	1	1.0

Median 8.775

Valid Cases 187 Missing Cases 0

* Relative Frequency (Percent) is rounded off to the nearest whole percent.

Table 15

Time Elapsed Between Earning the MA and PhD Degrees,

For Loyola Graduates in the Department of Psychology

Who Earned Both Degrees

Time Between MA & PhD (Years)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (Percent)*
1	16	9.0
2	32	17.0
3	32	17.0
4	33	18.0
5	17	9.0
6	9	5.0
7	9	5.0
8	9	5.0
9	7	4.0
10	4	2.0
11	4	2.0
12	4	2.0
14	2	1.0
15	1	1.0
16	2	1.0
17	1	1.0
21	1	1.0
22	1	1.0

Mean	4.957	Std Err.	0.277	Median.	3.864
Mode	4.000	Std Dev.	3.752	Variance.	14.075
Kurtosis	3.963	Skewness	1.814	Range	21.000
Minimum.	1.000	Maximum.	22.000		

Valid Cases 184 Missing Data 4

* Relative Frequency (Percent) is rounded off to the nearest whole percent.

8.775 years, with a range of from 3 to 30 years. Table 15 shows the time elapsed between earning the MA and PhD degrees, for Loyola graduates in the Department of Psychology who earned both the MA and PhD in psychology at any university. For the 184 respondents who supplied usable data, a median time of 3.86 years elapsed between earning the MA and PhD degrees, with a range of from 1 to 22 years. These results are very similar to the results of the original study of Loyola graduates conducted by Medina (1958), who found that in 1958 a median time period of four years between MA and PhD had elapsed. Apparently, people still take as long between degrees now as then.

Geographic Location at Time of Survey

Graduates from the Department of Psychology live in 33 states; and 21 graduates live in several foreign countries. Twenty-one percent of all respondents live in the metropolitan Chicago area alone, and 49% live in Illinois. Another 18% live in the Midwest. Table 16 shows a distribution of the geographic location of the most recent employment of Loyola graduates at the time of the survey, up until 1975, for the 335 respondents.

Undergraduate Origins of Advanced Degree Recipients

The typical Loyola psychology graduate came to Loyola from an undergraduate university in the Midwest, usually in the Chicago area. Of the 313 respondents for whom information is available, 71 (23%) attended Loyola University as undergraduates. Thirty-two percent came from undergraduate colleges or universities in the Chicago area, and 46% came from Illinois. Other colleges that could be identified as Roman Catholic were the source of undergraduate training for 217 (70%)

Table 16

Geographic Location of Most Recent Employment of Loyola Graduates at Time of Survey (1975)

Location	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (Percent)*
Chicago	69	21.0
Illinois, other than Chicago	94	28.0
Alaska	1	0.0
Arizona	2	1.0
Arkansas	1	0.0
California	22	7.0
Colorado	2	1.0
Connecticut	1	0.0
District of Columbia	2	1.0
Florida	5	1.0
Indiana	5	1.0
Iowa	2	1.0
Kansas	3	1.0
Kentucky	5	1.0
Louisiana	3	1.0
Maine	1	0.0
Maryland	3	1.0
Massachusetts	6	2.0
Michigan	10	3.0
Minnesota	11	3.0
Missouri	7	2.0
Nebraska	1	0.0
New Mexico	1	0.0
New York	10	3.0
North Carolina	1	0.0
Ohio	8	2.0
Oklahoma	1	0.0
Oregon	3	1.0
Pennsylvania	4	1.0
Rhode Island	2	1.0

Table 16 (Continued)

Geographic Location of Most Recent Employment of Loyola Graduates at Time of Survey (1975)

Location	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (Percent)*
Texas	3	1.0
Virginia	1	0.0
Washington State	7	2.0
Wisconsin	15	4.0
Countries outside of U.S.	21	6.0
Missing Data	2	1.0
Total	335	100.0

* Relative Frequency (Percent) is rounded off to the nearest whole percent.

of the respondents. Table 17 indicates the geographic location of the undergraduate colleges of advanced degree recipients in the Department of Psychology, Loyola University. Table 18 shows the actual undergraduate colleges attended by advanced degree recipients of Loyola University. Again, the current data is comparable to the results reported by Medina in 1958 and by Kobler and Doiron in 1968. Medina (1958) found that Loyola University accounted for a third of the undergraduate degrees, and Kobler and Doiron (1968) found that 28% of their respondents attended Loyola University as undergraduates. Kobler and Doiron also found that other Roman Catholic colleges provided undergraduate training for 49% of the respondents, in contrast to the figure from the current study of 70%.

Students come to the graduate program in psychology at Loyola from a wide assortment of undergraduate majors, ranging from Arts to Zoology. Table 19 indicates the distribution of undergraduate majors of advanced degree recipients at Loyola University. The largest group of students, 87 (40%) of the 217 respondents on whom this information is available, received their undergraduate degrees in psychology, but 45 (21%) received their undergraduate degrees in philosophy, the next largest group. The large number of undergraduate philosophy majors may in part be attributable to the large proportion of clergy in the graduate psychology population at Loyola.

Thirteen respondents received two undergraduate degrees before coming to Loyola, and two respondents received three undergraduate degrees!

Table 17

Geographic Location of Undergraduate Colleges

of Advanced Degree Recipients

in the Department of Psychology, Loyola University

Location	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (Percent)*
Loyola University	71	21.0
Chicago, other than Loyola. . .	30	9.0
Illinois, other than Chicago. .	44	13.0
Alabama	2	1.0
California.	9	3.0
Colorado.	2	1.0
Connecticut	1	0.0
Delaware.	1	0.0
District of Columbia.	3	1.0
Georgia	2	1.0
Indiana	10	3.0
Iowa.	9	3.0
Kansas.	2	1.0
Kentucky.	2	1.0
Louisiana	1	0.0
Maryland.	2	1.0
Massachusetts	6	2.0
Michigan.	9	3.0
Minnesota	17	5.0
Mississippi	1	0.0
Missouri.	9	3.0
Montana	1	0.0
New York.	8	2.0
Ohio.	22	7.0
Oklahoma.	1	0.0
Oregon.	1	0.0
Pennsylvania.	5	1.0
Texas	2	1.0
Washington State.	5	1.0
Wisconsin	17	5.0
Countries outside of U.S. . . .	18	5.0
Missing Data.	22	7.0
Total	335	100.0

* Relative Frequency (Percent) is rounded off to the nearest whole percent .

Table 18

Undergraduate Origins of Advanced Degree Recipients of Loyola University

Institutions	Baccalaureate Recipients
Alverno	1
Barat College	1
Beloit College	1
Bombay University (India)	1
Borromeo Seminary College, Ohio	1
Boston College	4
Briar Cliff College, Iowa	1
Calvin College (Michigan)	2
Cardinal Stritch (St. Clair's College) (Wisconsin)	1
Catholic University of America	3
Chicago Teachers College	1
Claretville College (California)	1
Clarke College	1
College Jean-de-Brebeuf (Montreal, Canada)	1
College of St. Catherine	1
College of St. Teresa	1
College of St. Thomas	7
Concordia Senior College (Indiana)	2
Dayton University	2
Denison University	1
De Paul University	7
Divine Word College (Iowa)	1
Divine Word Seminary (New York)	1
Divine Word Seminary (Techny, Illinois)	1
Duquesne College	1
Edgecliff College	1
Elmhurst College	1
Emory University	1
Fordham University	1
Gonzaga University (Spokane, Washington)	3
Indiana University	1
Instituto Libre de Filosofia	2
Jesuit School of Theology	1
John Carroll University	3
Kent State University	1
Kerala University (India)	1
Knox College (Galesburg, Illinois)	1
Lafayette College	1
Lake Forest College	3
Landivar University (Guatemala)	1
Lewis University (Illinois)	1
Loras College	3

Table 18 (Continued)

Undergraduate Origins of Advanced Degree Recipients of Loyola University

Institutions	Baccalaureate Recipients
Loyola University of Chicago	69
Loyola University, Los Angeles	1
Loyola University, New Orleans	1
Manhattanville College	2
Marillac College (St. Louis, Missouri)	2
Marist College (New York)	1
Marquette University	8
Mary Manse College (Ohio)	1
Maryknoll College (Manila, Phillipines)	1
Marylhurst College (Oregon)	1
Michigan State University	2
Montana State University	1
Mount Mary College	2
Mundelein	5
Nazareth College	1
Newton College (Boston)	1
North Central College	2
Northern Baptist Theological Seminary	2
Northwestern	7
Notre Dame	3
Oblate College of the Southwest (Texas)	1
Ohio State University	2
Oklahoma City University	2
Osaka Women's Medical College (Taiwan)	1
Our Lady of Snows Scholasticate (Missouri)	1
Papal Adhaneum Poona (India)	1
Pontifical College Josephinum (Ohio)	2
Quincy College	1
Roosevelt University	5
Sacred Heart College (Kansas)	1
St. Ambrose (Iowa)	1
St. Benedict's College (Kentucky)	1
St. Bonaventure	2
St. Charles Seminary	1
St. Francis Seminary (Wisconsin)	1
St. Francis Xavier (Spain)	1
St. John's University (Minnesota)	1
St. Joseph Major Seminary (Louisiana)	1
St. Joseph College (Indiana)	1
St. Joseph's College (Pennsylvania)	1
St. Louis University	8

Table 18 (Continued)

Undergraduate Origins of Advanced Degree Recipients of Loyola University

Institutions	Baccalaureate Recipients
St. Mary's College (Indiana)	2
St. Mary's College (Minnesota)	3
St. Mary's College of California	3
St. Mary of the Lake	22
St. Mary's Seminary (Texas)	1
St. Meinrad College (Indiana)	1
St. Norbert College	1
St. Patrick Seminary (Kiltegan Island, Ireland)	1
St. Paul Seminary	3
St. Xavier	3
Seattle University	2
Southern Illinois University	1
Spring Hill College	1
Stanford	1
State Gimnasium (Hungary)	1
State University College (Oswego, New York)	1
Thomas More College (Kentucky)	2
University of Ceylon, Peradeniya	1
University of Chicago	3
University of Colorado	1
University of Delaware	1
University of Denver	1
University of Detroit	4
University of Dubuque	1
University of Illinois	4
University of Iowa	1
Universidad Javeriana (Columbia)	1
University of Louvain (Belgium)	1
University of Madras (India)	1
University of Minnesota	1
University of Missouri	1
University of Montreal	1
University of Scranton	2
University of Windsor (Canada)	2
University of Wisconsin	1
Viterbo College (Wisconsin)	1
Wartburg College	1

Table 18 (Continued)

Undergraduate Origins of Advanced Degree Recipients of Loyola University

Institutions	Baccalaureate Recipients
Washington University	1
Wesleyan University	1
Woodstock College (Maryland)	2
Xavier University (Ohio)	7
None	1
Total	311

Table 19

Undergraduate Majors of Advanced Degree Recipients of Loyola University

Undergraduate Majors	N
Arts	4
Biology	4
Business Administration	2
Chemistry	4
Christian Culture	1
Classics	3
Commerce	1
Divinity	1
Education	6
Elementary Education	2
English	9
German	1
Government	1
History	2
Home Economics	1
Humanistic Studies	2
Language Education	1
Latin	1
Literature	4
Mathematics	3
Medical Record Science	1
Music	1
Natural Sciences	1
Nursing	4
Philosophy	45
Pre-Medicine	1
Psychology	87
Psychology/Biology	1
Psychology/Mathematics	1
Psychology/Philosophy	3
Religion	1
Science	1
Social Science	5
Sociology	3
Theology	6
Zoology	3
Total	217

Undergraduate Origins and Geographic Mobility

Kobler and Doiron (1968) found that 55% of Loyola graduates live in Chicago or its suburbs, and another 16% remain in the Midwest, whereas the current study shows 21% of all graduates live in Chicago, 49% live in Illinois, and another 18% remain in the Midwest. Apparently, Loyola graduates today, as in 1958 and 1968, tend to remain in Chicago and the Midwest. This may be attributable to the fact that the graduates remain largely Chicago-area people to begin with, as they have been since the inception of the department, and can be assumed to have both personal and professional ties in this area. Kobler and Doiron (1968) note a study by Barker (1966) who described psychologists' affinity for urban areas and areas where personal income per capita is relatively high. Chicago is both an urban area and has a high per capita income. However, recent PhDs are accepting more jobs outside the Midwest, as they were in 1968, which is congruent with Kobler and Doiron's (1968) citation of Anderson's (1965) observation that the Midwest is falling behind other areas of the country in terms of the growth index for psychologists.

In the 1972 national APA survey, Boneau and Cuca (1974) found that 27% of the membership of the American Psychological Association is located in the two states of New York and California, states that comprise about 19% of the total population of the United States in 1972. Of course, the geographic distribution of the Loyola graduates is different, since Loyola is a midwestern university and most students who originally come to it are from the Midwest.

Academic Status and Graduate Background

The question as to whether the graduate was now pursuing a degree

was answered in the affirmative by 31 (9%) of the respondents. Fourteen of those individuals now pursuing a degree are MA recipients who are now pursuing their PhD in psychology at Loyola. Ten of the respondents are pursuing a PhD in psychology at another university. Other degrees that are being worked for are a PhD in American Studies at the University of New Mexico; a law degree at Notre Dame Law School; certification as a psychoanalyst at the Detroit Psychoanalytic Institute; a M.S. in Early Childhood Education; a doctorate of Theology; and a master's in Public Health at the Academy of Health Sciences, U.S. Army. One individual is pursuing three graduate degrees simultaneously: an M.S. in Speech Pathology and Audiology; a PhD in Mental Retardation; and an EdD in Guidance.

One hundred and twenty-five respondents are taking or have taken graduate master's level coursework at universities other than Loyola, and 35 respondents are taking or have taken graduate doctoral-level course work at universities other than Loyola. This means that 37% of all respondents have had master's level training at some other institution, and 10% of all respondents have had doctoral level training at other institutions. Again, a similarity exists with the data reported by Medina in 1958 who at that time reported a third of all respondents had graduate training at other universities. For the 37% who had undertaken master's level work elsewhere, as reported for this current survey, 49 different universities were mentioned; and for the 10% who have taken doctoral course work elsewhere, 27 different universities were mentioned. Graduate course work at universities other than Loyola tends to be predominantly in psychology, philosophy, and theology, but respondents have taken graduate work in areas as far afield from psych-

ology as Physical Chemistry, Classical Languages, Law, Medicine, and American Studies. One MA in psychology went on to earn his Juris Doctor, and another went on to earn an M.D. in Internal Medicine. Twenty-two people have taken graduate course work at two different universities in addition to their studies at Loyola; one person has taken courses at three universities other than Loyola; one person has taken course work at four other universities; and one has taken course work at five other universities. Table 20 gives a listing and distribution of institutions other than Loyola where respondents are taking or have taken graduate M.A. training; and Table 21 shows a listing and distribution of institutions other than Loyola where respondents are taking or have taken graduate PhD training.

Area of Psychology in Which Advanced Degrees Were Received

Tables 22 and 23 show the areas in which the master's degree and doctorate were received, respectively, for advanced degree recipients in the Department of Psychology at Loyola. Of the 317 master's level respondents for whom this information was available, the largest proportion, 58.4% (185) received their MA in clinical psychology, and the next largest group, 17.7% (56) received their MA in counseling psychology. Table 22 reflects master's degrees received both at Loyola and other graduate schools. Of the 192 doctoral level respondents for whom this information was available, 68.8% (132) received their PhD in clinical psychology, but the next largest group, 19.3% (37), in contrast to the MA recipients, received their doctorates in experimental psychology. Of course, this is what might be expected since Loyola gives MA's in counseling psychology, but not the doctorate. As is true for

Table 20

Listing and Distribution of Institutions Other Than Loyola Where Graduates Are Taking or Have Taken Graduate M.A. Training

Institutions	Majors	N
Acquinas Institute	M.A., 1	1
Atena de Manila University	Education, 1	1
Boston College	Philosophy, 1; Theology, 1	2
Brooklyn College	Speech Pathology & Audiology, 1	1
Catholic University	Education, 1; Library Science, 2	3
Chicago State College	Guidance & Counseling, 1	1
Chicago Teachers College		1
Columbia University, Teachers College	Counseling, 1	1
Concordia Seminary (Mo.)	Theology, 1; Divinity, 1	2
Dayton University	Clinical Psychology, 1	1
De Paul University	Psychology, 5; Education, 1; Rehabilitation, 1	7
Fordham University	Psychology, 4; Physical Chemistry, 1	5
Georgetown University	Theology, 1	1
Gonzaga University	Philosophy, 2	2
Gregorian University (Rome)	S.T.L., 1; S.T.B., 1; Canon Law, 1	3
Indiana University	Education, 1; Educational Psychology, 1	2
Iowa State University		1
Jesuit School of Theology	Theology, 1	1

Table 20 (Continued)

Listing and Distribution of Institutions Other Than Loyola Where Graduates Are Taking or Have Taken Graduate M.A. Training

Institutions	Majors	N
John Carroll University	English, 1	1
Kent State University	School Psychology, 1	1
Loyola University, Chicago	Latin, 1; HSIR, 2; English, 2; Philosophy, 4; Education, 6; Religious Education, 2	16
Marquette University	Biology, 1; General Theology, 2; Psychology, 2; Education, 1	6
New Mexico State University	Psychology, 1	1
Northwestern University	Chemistry, 1; Speech Pathology, 1	2
Notre Dame	Theology, 1; Chemistry, 1	2
Ohio State University	Personnel Psychology, 1; Classical Languages, 1	2
Purdue University	Clinical Psychology, 1	1
Roosevelt University	Clinical Psychology, 1	1
St. Louis University	History, 1; Philosophy, 1; Latin, 1; Psychology, 2	5
St. Mary of the Lake	Theology, 16	16
St. Paul Seminary	Church History, 1	1
San Jose State College	Psychology, 1	1
Southern Illinois University	Psychology, 1	1
Universidad Javeriana	Philosophy, 1	1
University of Chicago	Religion, 1; Humanistic Studies, 1; English, 1; Psychology, 1	4

Table 20 (Continued)

Listing and Distribution of Institutions Other Than Loyola Where Graduates Are Taking or Have Taken Graduate M.A. Training

Institutions	Majors	N
University of Delaware	Psychology, 1	1
University of Denver	Psychology, 1; Arts and Sciences, 1	2
University of Detroit	Psychology, 4	4
University of Louvain	Theology, 1	1
University of Michigan	Education, 1	1
University of Minnesota	Psychology, 1	1
University of Oklahoma	Psychology, 2	2
University of Ottawa		1
University of Southern California	Education, 1	1
University of Toronto		1
West Baden College (Loyola University)	Theology, 4; Philosophy, 2	6
Western Michigan University	Psychology, 1	1
William & Mary College	Psychology, 1	1
Woodstock College	Philosophy, 2; Theology, 1; English, 1	4
Total		125

Table 21

Listing and Distribution of Institutions Other Than Loyola Where Graduates Are Taking or Have Taken Graduate Ph.D. Training

Institutions	Majors	N
Arizona State University	Clinical Psychology, 1	1
California School of Professional Psychology	Psychology, 1	1
Studies under C. G. Jung, Zurich (1960-1962)		1
Case Western Reserve	English, 1	1
Columbia University	Guidance, 1	1
Howard University	Psychology, 1	1
Illinois Institute of Technology	Psychology, 1	1
Loyola University of Chicago	Juris Doctor, 1; Philosophy, 1; Educational Administration and Guidance, 1	3
Loyola Stritch School of Medicine	M.D., Internal Medicine, 1	1
Northwestern University		2
Ottawa University	Clinical Psychology, 2	2
Pontifical Gregorian University	Philosophy, 2	2
Petrus Pazmany University (Hungary)		1
Purdue University	Counseling & Clinical Psychology, 1	1
University of California, Berkeley	Management Psychology, 1	1
University of Chicago	Psychology, 2	2

Table 21 (Continued)

Listing and Distribution of Institutions Other Than Loyola Where Graduates Are Taking or Have Taken Graduate Ph.D. Training

Institutions	Majors	N
University of Florida	Psychology, 1	1
University of Minnesota	Psychology, 1	1
University of New Mexico	American Studies, 1	1
University of North Carolina	Physiological Psychology, 1	1
University of Oklahoma	Clinical Psychology, 1	1
University of Oregon	Counseling Psychology, 1	1
University of Pennsylvania	Education, 1	1
University of Portland	Education, 1	1
University of Southern California	Psychology, 3	3
University of Wisconsin		1
Yeshiva University	Mental Retardation, 1	1
Total		35

Table 22

Area in Which Master's Degree Was Received, for Advanced Degree Recipients in the Department of Psychology, Loyola University

Area of Psychology	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (Percent)
Clinical	185	55.2
Counseling	56	16.7
Experimental	30	9.0
General	10	3.0
Industrial	3	0.9
Industrial-Social	4	1.2
Measurement	4	1.2
Physiological	1	0.3
School	1	0.3
Social	18	5.4
Social-Industrial	5	1.5
Not Relevant (no degree)	16	4.8
Missing Data	2	0.6
Total	335	100.0

Table 23

Area in Which Doctorate Was Received, for Advanced Degree Recipients in the Department of Psychology, Loyola University

Area of Psychology	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (Percent)
Clinical	132	39.4
Counseling	2	0.6
Developmental	1	0.3
Experimental	37	11.0
Experimental-Personality	1	0.3
General	1	0.3
Industrial	1	0.3
Industrial-Social	2	0.6
Interdisciplinary	1	0.3
Measurement	3	0.9
Physiological	1	0.3
Social	7	2.1
Social-Industrial	3	0.9
Not Relevant (no degree)	142	42.4
Missing Data	1	0.3
Total	335	100.0

Table 22, Table 23 reflects doctoral degrees received both at Loyola and other graduate schools.

Boneau and Cuca (1974) supply information from the 1972 APA survey about the subfields in psychology that the respondents are identified with. Of those reporting a subfield, the largest number are in clinical: 33%. The cluster of human services fields, clinical, community, counseling, and school, comprise 56% of the total sample.

In 1968, the American Psychological Association (1968) published a policy statement which gave the general demographic characteristics of psychology as a profession. This survey resulted, among other information, in breakdowns in terms of subfields of specialization. The breakdown of subfields of psychology is as follows: clinical, 36%; experimental, 12%; counseling and guidance, 11%; educational, 9%; industrial and personnel, 8%; school, 6%; social, 5%; developmental, 3%; personality, 3%; psychometrics, 2%; engineering, 2%; and general or other, 3%. The Loyola sample appears to be comparable to both the samples reported by Boneau and Cuca (1974), and the American Psychological Association (1968).

Tables 24 and 25, respectively, contain information about areas in which the master's degree was received for religious and lay graduates in the Department of Psychology at Loyola, and also display data for males and females separately. Overall, for both religious and lay graduates, men receive about 75% of all degrees in each specialty area of study. This is consistent with the fact that men have received 73% of all advanced degrees awarded at Loyola, and women have received 27% of all advanced degrees. No bias towards males versus females or religious versus lay graduates exists in terms of the specialty area in

Table 24

Area in Which Master's Degree Was Received, by Sex,

for Religious Graduates in the Department of Psychology, Loyola University

Area of Psychology	Count Row Percent Column Percent Total Percent	Male	Female	Row Total
Clinical		26 78.8 34.7 25.2	7 21.2 25.0 6.8	33 32.0
Counseling		31 68.9 41.3 30.1	14 31.1 50.0 13.6	45 43.7
Experimental		5 55.6 6.7 4.9	4 44.4 14.3 3.9	9 8.7
General		2 100.0 2.7 1.9	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	2 1.9
Measurement		1 100.0 1.3 1.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	1 1.0
Social		3 75.0 4.0 2.9	1 25.0 3.6 1.0	4 3.9
Not Relevant (no degree)		7 77.8 9.3 6.8	2 22.2 7.1 1.9	9 8.7
Total		75 72.8	28 27.2	103 100.0

Table 25

Area in Which Master's Degree Was Received, by Sex,

for Lay Graduates in the Department of Psychology, Loyola University

Area of Psychology	Count Row Percent Column Percent Total Percent	Male	Female	Row Total
Clinical		113 74.3 65.3 48.7	39 25.7 66.1 16.8	152 65.5
Counseling		9 81.8 5.2 3.9	2 18.2 3.4 0.9	11 4.7
Experimental		18 85.7 10.4 7.8	3 14.3 5.1 1.3	21 9.1
General		6 75.0 3.5 2.6	2 25.0 3.4 0.9	8 3.4
Industrial		2 66.7 1.2 0.9	1 33.3 1.7 0.4	3 1.3
Industrial-Social		3 75.0 1.7 1.3	1 25.0 1.7 0.4	4 1.7
Measurement		2 66.7 1.2 0.9	1 33.3 1.7 0.4	3 1.3

Table 25 (Continued)

Area in Which Master's Degree Was Received, by Sex,

for Lay Graduates in the Department of Psychology, Loyola University

Area of Psychology	Count Row Percent Column Percent Total Percent	Male	Female	Row Total
Physiological		1 100.0 0.6 0.4	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	1 0.4
School		1 100.0 0.6 0.4	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	1 0.4
Social		8 57.1 4.6 3.4	6 42.9 10.2 2.6	14 6.0
Social-Industrial		4 80.0 2.3 1.7	1 20.0 1.7 0.4	5 2.2
Missing Data		2 100.0 1.2 0.9	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	2 0.9
Not Relevant (no degree)		4 57.1 2.3 1.7	3 42.9 5.1 1.3	7 3.0
Total		173 74.6	59 25.4	232 100.0

which the degree was granted; the proportion of each subgroup who receive specialty degrees is congruent with the proportion that subgroup represents of the entire master's-degree population at Loyola.

Looking at data for men and women, both religious and lay, who have received the doctorate in psychology, we find that male lay graduates who are awarded the PhD in clinical psychology are overrepresented in this specialty area, with respect to their proportion of the total PhD graduate population. Although men have received 77.4% of all PhD's awarded and women have received 22.6% at Loyola, male lay respondents have received 84.3% of all clinical PhD's and female lay respondents received only 15.7% of all clinical PhD's. Doctorates earned in other areas of psychology besides clinical are roughly representative of the total proportion of female and male religious and lay graduates in the total graduate population. Table 26 shows the areas in which the doctorate was received, by sex, for religious graduates in the Department of Psychology at Loyola. Table 27 shows the areas in which the doctorate was received, by sex, for lay graduates in the Department of Psychology at Loyola.

Professional Affiliations

Loyola graduates belong to a total of 194 different professional organizations. The American Psychological Association claims the largest number of members with 198 of the 335 respondents (59%) being a member at some level. The organization claiming the next largest number of respondents as members is the Illinois Psychological Association, with 76 members (22.7%), followed by the Midwestern Psychological Association, 40 members (11.9%); the American Association for the Advancement of Science, 19 members (5.7%), the Association of Humanistic Psychologists,

Table 26

Area in Which Doctorate Was Received, by Sex,

for Religious Graduates in the Department of Psychology, Loyola University

Area of Psychology	Count Row Percent Column Percent Total Percent	Male	Female	Row Total
Clinical		18 75.0 24.0 17.5	6 25.0 21.4 5.8	24 23.3
Experimental		7 70.0 9.3 6.8	3 30.0 10.7 2.9	10 9.7
Measurement		1 100.0 1.3 1.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	1 1.0
Social		2 100.0 2.7 1.9	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	2 1.9
Not Relevant (no degree)		47 71.2 62.7 45.6	19 28.8 67.9 18.4	66 64.1
Total		75 72.8	28 27.2	103 100.0

Table 27

Area in Which Doctorate Was Received, by Sex,

for Lay Graduates in the Department of Psychology, Loyola University

Area of Psychology	Count Row Percent Column Percent Total Percent	Male	Female	Row Total
Clinical		91 84.3 52.6 39.2	17 15.7 28.8 7.3	108 46.6
Counseling		2 100.0 1.2 0.9	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	2 0.9
Developmental		0 0.0 0.0 0.0	1 100.0 1.7 0.4	1 0.4
Experimental		21 77.8 12.1 9.1	6 22.2 10.2 2.6	27 11.6
Experimental-Personality		0 0.0 0.0 0.0	1 100.0 1.7 0.4	1 0.4
General		0 0.0 0.0 0.0	1 100.0 1.7 0.4	1 0.4
Industrial		1 100.0 0.6 0.4	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	1 0.4

Table 27 (Continued)

Area in Which Doctorate Was Received, by Sex

for Lay Graduates in the Department of Psychology, Loyola University

Area of Psychology	Count Row Percent Column Percent Total Percent	Male	Female	Row Total
Industrial-Social		1 50.0 0.6 0.4	1 50.0 1.7 0.4	2 0.9
Interdisciplinary		0 0.0 0.0 0.0	1 100.0 1.7 0.4	1 0.4
Measurement		1 50.0 0.6 0.4	1 50.0 1.7 0.4	2 0.9
Physiological		1 100.0 0.6 0.4	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	1 0.4
Social		4 80.0 2.3 1.7	1 20.0 1.7 0.4	5 2.2
Social-Industrial		2 66.7 1.2 0.9	1 33.3 1.7 0.4	3 1.3
Missing Data		1 100.0 0.6 0.4	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	1 0.4
Not Relevant (no degree)		48 63.2 27.7 20.7	28 36.8 47.5 12.1	76 32.8

Table 27 (Continued)

Area in Which Doctorate Was Received, by Sex,

for Lay Graduates in the Department of Psychology, Loyola University

Area of Psychology	Count Row Percent Column Percent Total Percent	Male	Female	Row Total
Total		173 74.6	59 25.4	232 100.0

14 members (4.2%); and Psychologists Interested in Religious Issues, 10 members (3.0%). These most heavily joined societies reflect the concentration of Loyola graduates in the Midwest, particularly Chicago and Illinois. Only 43 of the 335 respondents (12.8%), reported that they belonged to no organizations, but 38 (11.3%) of the respondents did not answer this question, for a hypothetical total of 24.1% of all respondents belonging to no professional organizations whatever. Thirteen of the respondents who now hold the doctorate, whether from Loyola or another university, said they belong to no professional organization, and 30 respondents who currently hold only the master's degree said they belong to no professional organizations. Table 28 shows the professional affiliations of graduate degree recipients from Loyola University, both for those who currently hold the MA only, for those who hold the PhD, and for all graduates.

The mean number of professional organizations that MA only respondents belong to is 1.45; while the mean number of organizations PhD respondents belong is is 2.87. Overall, the Loyola graduate belongs to 2.36 professional organizations. The number of organizations and societies joined varies from none to as many as twelve. The greatest number of organizations belonged to by an MA respondent was 7, while the greatest number of organizations belonged to by a PhD respondent was 12.

A very wide variety of interests is exemplified by the many organizations, reflecting the specialized activities of psychologists within their profession, as well as an interest in fields outside the strictly psychological domain. Some of the specialized groups that Loyola graduates belong to are the American Association of Dental Schools, the

Table 28

Professional Affiliations of Graduate Degree Recipients, Loyola University

Professional affiliations	Number of MA members	Number of PhD members	Total number of members
American Psychological Association, unspecified membership . . .	33	158	191
American Psychological Association, associate.	3	0	3
American Psychological Association, full	0	2	2
American Psychological Association, fellow	0	2	2
American Board of Professional Psychologists	0	4	4
None	30	13	43
Not answered	32	6	38
Academy of Management.	0	1	1
Academy of Religion and Medicine	1	0	1
Academy of Religion and Mental Health.	0	3	3
Acoustical Society of America.	0	1	1
Aichi Prefectural Association of English Teachers.	1	0	1
American Academy of Psychoanalysis	0	1	1
American Academy of Psychotherapy.	0	6	6
American Association for the Advancement of Science.	1	18	19
American Association for Automotive Medicine	0	1	1
American Association of Correctional Psychologists	1	0	1
American Association of Dental Schools	0	1	1
American Association of Marriage and Family Counselors	1	1	2
American Association of Medical Colleges	0	2	2
American Association of State Psychology Boards.	0	1	1
American Association of Suicidology.	0	2	2
American Association of University Professors.	1	8	9

Table 28 (Continued)

Professional Affiliations of Graduate Degree Recipients, Loyola University

Professional affiliations	Number of MA members	Number of PhD members	Total number of members
American Association of University Women	0	2	2
American Baptist Minister's Council	1	0	1
American Bar Association	0	1	1
American College of Dentists	0	1	1
American Corrections Association	2	0	2
American Educational Research Association	1	3	4
American Federation of Teachers	0	1	1
American Group Psychotherapy Association	0	2	2
American Marketing Association	1	1	2
American Medical Association	1	1	2
American Orthopsychiatric Association	1	0	1
American Personnel and Guidance Association	2	7	9
American Psychology-Law Society	0	2	2
American Public Health Association	0	1	1
American Society of Clinical Hypnosis	1	2	3
American Society of Indexers	1	0	1
American Society of Personnel Administration	1	0	1
American Speech and Hearing Association	0	1	1
American Statistical Association	1	2	3
American Women in Psychology	0	1	1
Arizona Psychological Association	0	1	1
Arkansas Psychological Association	0	1	1
Association for the Advancement of Behavior Therapies	0	2	2
Association of Aviation Psychologists	0	1	1
Association of Black Psychologists	0	1	1
Association of Correctional Research and Statistics	1	0	1

Table 28 (Continued)

Professional Affiliations of Graduate Degree Recipients, Loyola University

Professional affiliations	Number of MA members	Number of PhD members	Total number of members
Association of Humanistic Psychologists	6	8	14
Association of Pediatric Psychology	0	1	1
Association for Precision Teaching	0	1	1
Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development	1	0	1
Behavior Therapy and Research Society	0	1	1
Biometric Society	0	1	1
British Psychological Society	0	1	1
Broward County Psychological Association	0	1	1
California Association of Marriage and Family Counselors	1	0	1
California Medical Association	1	0	1
California Psychological Association	0	3	3
Canon Law Society	2	0	2
Catholic Charities of the United States	1	0	1
Catholic Psychological Association	1	0	1
Central Minnesota Psychological Association	0	1	1
Chicago Bar Association	0	2	2
Chicago Psychological Club	1	2	3
Chicago Society of School Psychologists	1	0	1
The Chinese Psychological Association	0	1	1
Cincinnati Psychological Association	0	1	1
Cleveland Psychological Association	0	1	1
Clinical-Child Psychological Society	0	1	1
CMI Psychology Club	0	1	1
Colegio de Humanistas (Guatemala)	1	0	1

Table 28 (Continued)

Professional Affiliations of Graduate Degree Recipients, Loyola University

Professional affiliations	Number of MA members	Number of PhD members	Total number of members
Colorado Psychological Association	0	2	2
Consejo Nacional Para La Ensenanza De La Psicologia	0	1	1
Council for the Advancement of Psychological Professions and Sciences	1	2	3
Council for Exceptional Children	0	2	2
Counseling Center Directors Conference	0	1	1
Dade County Psychological Association	0	1	1
Delta Kappa Gamma	1	0	1
District of Columbia Psychological Association	0	3	3
Eastern Psychological Association	0	5	5
Federacion Columbiana De Psicologia	0	1	1
Florida Psychological Association	0	1	1
Gestalt Institute of Cleveland	0	1	1
Governmental Research Association	0	1	1
Human Factors Society	0	2	2
Illinois Academy of Criminology	0	1	1
Illinois Association of Mental Health Clinic Administrators	0	1	1
Illinois Bar Association	0	1	1
Illinois Group Psychotherapy Association	0	1	1
Illinois Maternal and Child Health Association	0	1	1

Table 28 (Continued)

Professional Affiliations of Graduate Degree Recipients, Loyola University

Professional affiliations	Number of MA members	Number of PhD members	Total number of members
Illinois Psychological Association	14	62	76
Illinois School Psychologists	1	0	1
Illinois Youth Commission	0	1	1
Indiana Psychological Association	1	2	3
Industrial Psychology Association of Chicago	0	1	1
Institute for Applied Behavioral Science	0	1	1
Institute of Religion and Health	0	3	3
Inter-council on Alcoholism and Addiction	1	0	1
International Council of Psychologists	0	1	1
International Group Psychotherapy Society	0	4	4
International Neuropsychology Society	0	1	1
International Society for Clinical and Experimental Hypnosis	0	1	1
International Society of Jungian Analysts	0	1	1
International Society for the Study of Behavioral Development	0	1	1
International Union	0	1	1
Iowa Psychological Association	0	1	1
Japan Association of College English Teachers	1	0	1
Jung Institute, Los Angeles	1	0	1
Kansas Psychological Association	0	1	1
Los Angeles County Medical Association	1	0	1
Lubbock Association of Psychologists	0	1	1
Macomb County Special Education Directors Association	1	0	1

Table 28 (Continued)

Professional Affiliations of Graduate Degree Recipients, Loyola University

Professional affiliations	Number of MA members	Number of PhD members	Total number of members
Maine Psychological Association	0	1	1
Maricopa County Association of Clinical Psychologists	0	1	1
Maryland Library Association	1	0	1
Maryland Psychological Association	0	2	2
Massachusetts Psychological Association	0	2	2
Michigan Association of School Administrators	1	0	1
Michigan Bar Association	0	1	1
Michigan Psychological Association	1	2	3
Michigan Society of School Psychologists	1	0	1
Michigan Special Education Directors Association	1	0	1
Midwest Reading Conference	1	0	1
Midwestern Psychological Association	6	34	40
Military Chaplains Association	0	1	1
Milwaukee County Psychological Association	0	3	3
Minnesota Psychological Association	0	2	2
Missouri Psychological Association	1	3	4
National Association of Catholic Chaplains	3	1	4
National Association of School Psychologists	3	2	5
National Association of Social Workers	3	0	3
National Bilingual Association of Psychologists	1	0	1
National Catholic Education Association	2	1	3
National Council on Measurements in Education	1	2	3
National Jesuit Honorary Society	1	0	1
National Rehabilitation Association	0	1	1
National Research Association	1	0	1

Table 28 (Continued)

Professional Affiliations of Graduate Degree Recipients, Loyola University

Professional affiliations	Number of MA members	Number of PhD members	Total number of members
National Society for the Study of Education	1	0	1
National Training Laboratories	0	1	1
National Vocational Guidance Association	1	0	1
New York Academy of Sciences	0	2	2
North American Association of Alcoholism Programs	0	1	1
Northeastern Psychological Association	0	1	1
Ohio Psychological Association	0	3	3
Oklahoma Psychological Association	0	1	1
Ontario Psychological Association	1	1	2
Optical Society of America	2	0	2
Orange County Psychological Association	0	1	1
Oregon Psychological Association	0	1	1
Pacific Area Psychologists Association	1	0	1
Pacific Psychological Association	0	1	1
Pennsylvania Psychological Association	0	1	1
Philosophical Transactional Analysis Association	1	0	1
Piaget Society	0	1	1
Portland Psychological Association	0	1	1
Psychologists Interested in the Development of Psychotherapy	0	1	1
Psychologists Interested in Religious Issues	1	9	10
Psychometric Society	0	4	4
Psi Chi	0	2	2
Puget Sound Psychological Association	0	1	1

Table 28 (Continued)

Professional Affiliations of Graduate Degree Recipients, Loyola University

Professional affiliations	Number of MA members	Number of PhD members	Total number of members
Rhode Island Psychological Association.	0	1	1
Rocky Mountain Psychological Association.	0	3	3
San Francisco Municipal Psychological Association	0	1	1
Sedg. County Mental Health Association.	1	0	1
Sigma Xi.	2	7	9
Sociedad Mexicana De Psicologia	0	1	1
Sociedad Colombiana De Psiquiatria.	0	1	1
Society for Epidemiologic Research.	0	1	1
Society for Neuroscience.	0	2	2
Society for Pediatric Psychology.	0	1	1
Society for Personality Assessment.	0	1	1
Society for Research in Child Development	0	3	3
Society for Research in Psychotherapy	0	1	1
Society for the Scientific Study of Religion.	0	1	1
Society of Biological Psychiatry.	0	1	1
Society of Engineering Psychologists.	0	1	1
Society of Humanistic Psychology.	1	0	1
Society of Psychologists Studying Social Issues	0	2	2
Southeast Michigan Human Factors Society.	0	1	1
Southeastern Psychological Association.	0	2	2
Southwestern Psychological Association.	1	5	6
State Association of Psychologists and Psychological Associations (Ohio).	0	1	1
Student Personnel Association of California	0	1	1
System Safety Society	0	1	1

Table 28 (Continued)

Professional Affiliations of Graduate Degree Recipients, Loyola University

Professional affiliations	Number of MA members	Number of PhD members	Total number of members
Teaching of English to Speakers of Other Languages.	1	0	1
Ventura Psychological Association	0	1	1
Virginia Psychological Association.	0	1	1
Washington State Examining Board in Psychology.	0	1	1
Washington State Psychological Association.	0	5	5
Western Psychological Association	1	5	6
Wichita Psychological Association	1	1	2
Wisconsin Academy of Arts, Sciences, and Letters.	0	1	1
Wisconsin Association of Community Human Services Programs. . .	0	1	1
Wisconsin Association of German Teachers.	1	0	1
Wisconsin Personnel and Guidance Association.	0	1	1
Wisconsin Psychological Association	0	6	6
Wisconsin School Psychological Association.	1	0	1

Note.--Other organizations were mentioned, in which only the initials of the organization were given. Those organizations that were identified only by their initials were omitted.

The number of members was determined from the 335 returns. Some respondents belong to more than one organization.

American Association of Medical Colleges, American Bar Association, American Marketing Association, and the Canon Law Society. When comparing the organizations that Loyola psychologists currently belong to, with the organizations graduates belonged to in 1958 as reported by Medina (1958), there is a much wider representation in organizations both within and outside of the immediate field of psychology. In 1958, no Loyola graduates belonged to the American Orthopsychiatric Association, The American Statistical Association, and Sigma Xi, all prestige groups outside of the immediate field of psychology. Today, Loyola grads are members of all of those organizations. A major change in the opposite direction exists in the number of graduates belonging to Psi Chi, the national honorary society in psychology. In 1958 (Medina, 1958) Psi Chi was the organization that the largest number of graduates belonged to (38.5%), with American Psychological Association membership running second (37.5%). Currently, 59% of the respondents belong to the American Psychological Association, with Psi Chi claims less than 1% of all graduates as members.

Forty-three percent of all graduates are <u>not</u> members of the American Psychological Association, the governing organization in the field, although most respondents would be eligible for Associate status at least. Analyzing further, only 26.6% of the MA only respondents belong to APA, whereas 81% of the PhD respondents are APA members. Currently, Loyola has four Diplomates of the American Board of Professional Psychologists.

For the year 1972, Boneau and Cuca (1974) estimated that the total population in the United States of doctorate psychologists was in the

range of 31,000 to 32,000, and estimated that about 90% are members of APA. Virtually 100% of the clinical psychologists are members but only 75% of the experimental psychologists are members. The number of individuals whose highest degree was the master's was estimated to be about 36,000, and about one-fourth of these are members of the American Psychological Association.

Licensing and Certification

Table 29 shows the licensing and certification of advanced degree recipients from Loyola, broken down by male versus female, and religious versus lay, for respondents with an MA only, a PhD only, and an MA plus PhD from Loyola. Of the 303 respondents who answered the question as to whether they were licensed or certified as psychologists, only 48% answered in the affirmative. Perhaps even more surprisingly, only 64.7% of all PhD psychologists who answered this question were licensed or certified. Since licensing and certification are principally useful for psychologists who intend to go into private practice, it is instructive to examine these figures in relation to the total number of clinical psychology respondents from Loyola, who would be the group most likely to engage in private practice. Of the total number of PhD recipients, 68.7% received their doctorate in clinical psychology. Thus, the majority of the group that would be interested in licensing does seem to have their license to practice psychology.

From the 1972 APA survey (Dorken and Whiting, 1974) it is known that 50.6% of member respondents are licensed or certified. By projection, Dorken and Whiting assume that there are now about 22,500 licensed or certified psychologists in the country. Also, psychologists are distri-

Table 29

Licensing and Certification of Advanced Degree Recipients in the Department of Psychology, Loyola University

Licensing or Certification	Male						Female					
	Religious			Lay			Religious			Lay		
	MA only	PHD only	MA & PhD	MA only	PhD only	MA & PhD	MA only	PhD only	MA & PhD	MA only	PhD only	MA & PhD
Licensed	6	7	6	18	26	53	2	3	1	12	4	8
No License	37	5	7	34	6	24	14	0	3	13	6	8
No Response	7	0	0	7	1	4	3	1	1	5	1	2

buted throughout the United States in approximately the same way that the total population of consumers of psychological services are distributed. There appears to be no geographic maldistribution.

Looking at Table 29 further, very few women are licensed, with respect to the total proportion of Loyola graduates that women represent. Only 34% of all the women respondents were licensed, representing only 9.9% of the total number of respondents who answered this question, while women represent about a quarter of all Loyola graduates. In contrast, 51% of all the male respondents were licensed, representing 38.3% of the total number of respondents who answered this question. One might speculate that fewer women than men Loyola graduates are interested in setting up independent practices as psychologists.

Thesis and Dissertation Research

The major research conducted by a Loyola psychology graduate student is still the thesis and/or dissertation; for 70% of the respondents, the thesis or dissertation is the only research conducted, as judged by reported published research.

Two hundred and sixty-four theses were written by the 320 respondents who received their MA's from Loyola in the psychology department. The remaining 56 respondents who did not write a thesis received their MA's in the Counseling Psychology program, where a thesis is not required. Two hundred dissertations were written by the respondents who received doctoral degrees. Of these 464 theses and dissertations submitted for advanced degrees in psychology at Loyola University over the past forty-five years 84, or 18.1%, have been published. Forty-six of the 264 theses, or 17.4%, were published; and 38 of the 200 disserta-

tions, or 19%, were published. Five theses and six dissertations were in the process of preparation for publication according to their authors' reports, at the time of the collection of data for this study.

Table 30 shows the 50 journals and books that the theses reported above were published in; Table 31 shows the 45 journals and books that the dissertations were published in. A few of the theses and dissertations were published in more than one journal or book.

Nineteen respondents presented their thesis before a professional group or society; and 17 respondents have presented their dissertations before a professional group or society. Of the theses that have been presented before a professional group, six were before the Midwestern Psychological Association; five were before the American Psychological Association; and one each were presented before the New Mexico Psychological Association; the Exceptional Child Association; the Optical Society; the Rocky Mountain Psychological Association; the Chicago Association for Exceptional Children; the Acoustical Society of America; the American Psychiatric Association; and the Florida Psychological Association. Of the dissertations that have been presented before a professional group, four were before the Midwestern Psychological Association; three were before the American Psychological Association; and one each was before the Eastern Psychological Association; the Illinois Psychological Association; the Phillipines Psychological Association; the Virginia Psychological Association; a workshop in Special Education; the California Psychological Association; the Exceptional Child Association; the Chicago Association for Exceptional Children; the California Association of School Psychologists and Psychometrists; and the Association for

Table 30

Journals in Which M.A. Theses Were Published

Journal	Number of Theses Published
American Journal of Psychology	1
Behavior Research Methods and Instrumentation	1
The Catholic Guidance Journal	1
Cerebral Palsy Review	1
Chicago Studies	1
Developmental Psychology	1
Exceptional Child	1
Family Dynamics (Book)	1
Foundation of Creative Life (Book)	1
Journal of Applied Psychology	1
Journal of Behavioral Analysis	1
Journal of Clinical Psychology	1
Journal of Consulting Psychology	1
Journal of Educational Psychology	2
Journal of Exceptional Children	1
Journal of Experimental Psychology	1
Journal of General Psychology	1
Journal of Medical Education	1
Journal of Nervous and Mental Diseases	1
Journal of the Optical Society of America	1
Journal of Pastoral Care	1
Journal of Pastoral Psychology	1
Journal of Personality and Social Psychology	5
Journal of Projective Techniques	3
Journal of Religious Education	1
Journal of Religious Instruction	1
Journal of Social Psychology	1
Loyola Psychometric Laboratory	1
Newsletter for Research in Psychology	1
Perception and Psychophysics	1
Perceptual and Motor Skills	2
Personnel and Guidance Journal	2
PIRI Newsletter	1
Proceedings of the American Psychological Assn.	2
The Psychological Record	1
Psychological Reports	2
Psychology in the Schools	2
Psychonomic Science	1
Total	50

Table 31

Journals in Which Doctoral Dissertations Were Published

Journal	Number of Dissertations Published
Abstracts of the Midwestern Psychological Association Convention	1
ACTA Psychologica Taiwanica	1
Administrative Science Quarterly	1
Archives of General Psychiatry	1
The Black Politician	1
Dissertation Abstracts	3
Encounter: Group Processes for Interpersonal Growth (Book)	1
Exceptional Child	1
Journal of Abnormal Psychology	1
Journal of Clinical Psychology	4
Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology	2
Journal of Educational Psychology	2
Journal of Experimental Psychology	2
Journal of Genetic Psychology	1
Journal of Gerontology	1
Journal of Life-Threatening Behavior	1
Journal of Projective Techniques	1
Journal of Religion and Health	1
Loyola Psychometric Laboratory Publication	2
Newsletter for Research in Psychology	1
Organizational Behavior and Human Performance	1
Perceptual and Motor Skills	1
Piaget and the Helping Professions	1
Proceedings, American Psychological Association	1
Proceedings, California Psychological Association	1
Psychological Reports	4
Psychology in the Schools	1
Psychopharmacologia	1
Psychophysiology	1
Quarterly Journal of Studies in Alcohol	1
The Rorschach Clinician: A New Direction in Research and Its Application (Book)	1
Social Psychology Magazine	1
Vision Research	1
Total	45

Research in Visual Organization.

An analysis was made of the areas in which the thesis and dissertation research was done. The various research projects were assigned to special areas either through the classification offered by the respondent himself, or by considering the main emphasis of the study itself as determining under which heading it would best fit. The classification "Experimental" was used to designate the subject area covering the topics of learning, sensation, and psychophysics pertaining to both humans and animals. All of the studies, of course, are experimental in the sense of applying scientific methodology to the data collected.

The following examples serve to illustrate the general nature of the classificatory scheme. Titles used are samples of theses and dissertations that were submitted for graduate degrees at Loyola.

Child/Developmental: "Modeling, Praise and Logical Explanations as Techniques for Influencing Moral Judgments."

Clinical: "Process Analysis of Rorschach Interpretations."

Cognition: "Cognitive Processes in Emotionally Disturbed Boys."

Educational: "The Effect of an Audio-Visual Aid in Reading Remediation for 3rd and 4th Grade Students."

Engineering: "Texture Coding of Control Levers."

Experimental: "The Effects of Three Levels of Stress on the Operant Conditioning of Verbal Behavior."

Industrial: "Work Surface Angle as a Function of Motor Performance."

Personality: "Sexual Behavior and Personality Development Among Seminarians."

Physiological: "The Effects of Dorsal and Ventral Hippocampal Lesions on Alternation and Reversal Behavior in Cats."

Social: "A Fulcrum Model of Attitude (Opinion) Formation and Change."

Tests and Measurements: "A Critique of the Schmidt Religious Essentials Test and Restandardization for Grades 5-8."

Vocational: "Vocational Counseling by Correspondence."

Table 32 shows the classification by subject area of the theses submitted by Loyola graduates; and Table 33 shows the classification by subject area of the dissertations submitted by Loyola graduates. Although 264 theses were submitted by respondents, only 246 were classified due to the lack of availability of thesis titles, or failure of the respondents themselves to classify their theses. Similarly, only 184 of the 200 dissertations were classified.

Analysis of the areas in which thesis and dissertation research was done shows that the clinical, personality, social, and experimental areas account for the bulk of the research done (40.0%, 17.9%, 13.0%, and 10.9% respectively), for both ultimate MA and ultimate PhD recipients. These four areas account for 82% of all theses and dissertations. The remaining areas comprise about one-sixth of the total.

The clinical-personality emphasis reflects the work settings of a very large share of the graduates, as will be shown in Chapter 5. There is a definite tendency for graduates to be employed in areas that correspond to the areas in which they did their major research. Of the 162 respondents who did their major research in the clinical-personality area, as identified by their MA subject area if their highest degree was the MA and by their PhD subject area if their highest degree was the PhD, 94 (58.0%) are employed in the clinical-counseling area, including clinical psychology, counseling psychology, private practice, school psychology, vocational and educational guidance, consulting, and rehabilitation psychology. The next largest emphasis in thesis and disserta-

Table 32

Classification by Subject Area of M.A. Theses

Submitted by Loyola Graduates

Classification of Thesis	Frequency	Percent of all Theses
Child/Developmental	13	5.3
Clinical	105	42.7
Cognition	3	1.2
Community Psychology	1	0.4
Counseling	1	0.4
Educational	5	2.0
Engineering	1	0.4
Experimental	28	11.4
Industrial	6	2.4
Personality	45	18.3
Physiological	5	2.0
Social	28	11.4
Tests and Measurements	3	1.2
Vocational	1	0.4
	246	100.0

Note -- Total N of all theses is 264. N for all theses which were able to be classified is 246.

Table 33

Classification by Subject Area of Doctoral Dissertations

Submitted by Loyola Graduates

Classification of Dissertation	Frequency	Percent of all Dissertations
Child/Developmental	17	9.2
Clinical.	67	36.4
Cognitive	6	3.3
Educational	1	0.5
Engineering Psychology.	1	0.5
Experimental.	19	10.3
Industrial.	3	1.6
Personality	32	17.4
Physiological	8	4.3
Social.	28	15.2
Tests and Measurements.	2	1.1
	184	100.0

Note -- Total N of all dissertations is 200. N for all dissertations which were able to be classified is 184.

tion research, the social and experimental area, shows the same trend for graduates to be employed in the area in which they did their major research. Forty-two (60.9%) of the 69 respondents who did their major research in the experimental and social areas, are employed in academic and research settings. These include teaching, research, industry and business, administration, and neuropsychology.

Examination of Tables 32 and 33 shows by inspection that there is no significant variation in the type of thesis research when the respondents are separated as MA or PhD recipients.

A conclusion that can be drawn from Tables 32 and 33 is that the clinical-personality area holds the major thesis and dissertation attention of graduate students.

Dert and Ormiston (1973) addressed themselves to the question of whether clinical doctoral students are writing dissertations in the area of clinical psychology, as opposed to some other subspecialty in psychology. Data for their study came from a survey of dissertation titles and the major areas of student researchers that appeared in five weekly issues of Behavior Today, from June 28 to July 26, 1971; response rate was about 50% from all the graduate schools in psychology in the United States. Dert and Ormiston had 27 clinical graduate students and 16 psychology faculty members classify the dissertations, as judged by the title, into one of the following areas: child/developmental, clinical, experimental, personality, social, or other. Results showed that from 50% to 58% of dissertations by clinical doctoral students for the 1970-71 academic year were judged clinical in focus by the three groups of judges (graduate students, clinical faculty, and non-clinical faculty).

The evidence strongly suggests that clinical students are frequently choosing clinical areas to investigate.

The percentage distributions across dissertation areas for each region of the country reveal three major findings: first, as one moves from the East to the South to the Midwest and then to the West, there is an increasing proportion of clinical dissertations. Second, there is an unusually high percentage of experimental dissertations in the East, compared with other section of the country. And, finally, the West shows a markedly low percentage of dissertations in the personality area.

Publications and Other Research, Excluding the Thesis and Dissertation

When research excluding the thesis and dissertation is considered, there have been 828 published articles written by 93 authors. The number of publications varied from 1 to 65 articles per person. The mean number of articles per author is 8.903; the median number of articles per author is 4. The modal number of articles per author is 1 (24 authors); next highest is 2 articles (11 authors); and the next highest is 4 articles (10 authors). When the total number of respondents is considered, 828 articles represent the publications of the 335 respondents, which is 2.47 articles per respondent. Only twenty-seven percent of the respondents account for all the publication activity.

The relationship between respondents' having acquired a terminal MA or PhD, whether they published their thesis or dissertation, and further publication activity was examined. Table 34 shows these relationships. Analysis of the data in Table 34 indicates that respondents who received a terminal master's degree, whether or not they published their thesis, had a much lower publication rate subsequent to their thesis

Table 34

Publication Activity, Excluding the Thesis and Dissertation,

by Degree Status and Publication of Thesis or Dissertation

Degree Status	Terminal MA, published Thesis	Terminal MA, did not publish Thesis	PhD, published Thesis/ Dissertation	PhD, did not publish Thesis/ Dissertation	All Respondents
Total Number of Articles	4	23	327	474	828
Total Number of Authors	2	9	33	49	93
Range of Number of Articles per Author	1-3	1-8	1-59	1-65	1-65
Mean Number of Articles per Author	2.00	2.56	9.91	9.67	8.90
Total Number of Respondents	14	113	69	129	335
Mean Number of Articles per Respondent	0.28	0.20	4.74	3.67	2.47

research than respondents who received the doctorate. Those with a terminal master's who published their thesis, had a subsequent publication rate of 0.286 articles per respondent, and those with a terminal master's degree who did not publish their thesis had a subsequent publication rate of 0.204 articles per respondent. In contrast, doctorates who published their thesis or dissertation had a subsequent publication rate of 4.74 articles per respondent; and doctorates who did not publish their thesis or dissertation had a subsequent publication rate of 3.67 articles per respondent. Clearly, graduates who go on to receive their PhD and who make the effort to publish their thesis or dissertation are most likely to publish subsequently. Even PhD recipients who do not publish their thesis or dissertation are likely to have a high subsequent rate of publication. Graduates with terminal master's degrees, whether they publish their thesis or not, are much less likely to publish any further research.

Sixty-nine respondents reported 205 articles which they had not yet published, excluding unpublished thesis and dissertation research, and excluding the published articles discussed above. The range of the number of unpublished research per author was from 1 to 55 articles; the mean was 2.97 and the median was 1. The modal number of unpublished research per person was also 1: forty authors reported they had one unpublished piece of research; twelve authors reported two unpublished articles; and nine authors reported three unpublished articles.

Bayer's (1970) survey of college faculty also dealt with the number of articles, books, or monographs written. Much higher proportions of the men than of the women in universities and colleges are

likely to have authored articles and to have published in large quantities. But when it comes to publishing books or monographs, the proportions of men and women are much closer.

Guyer and Fidell (1973) address themselves to the general question of whether women psychologists as a group, all the subspecialties inclusive, publish less than male psychologists. They observe that increasing interest is being devoted to the issue of whether hiring and promotion practices in psychology and elsewhere discriminate unfairly against women. Demographic studies of the distributions of women in various institutions and at various academic levels have usually found that the number of women in highly prestigious institutions is low and that, within institutions, women hold positions well down on the academic ladder (Bernard, 1964; Rossi, 1970). Although there is increasing awareness that women hold positions different from men in academe and that the same academic credentials are evaluated differently if women hold them rather than men (Fidell, 1970; Lewin and Duchan, 1971), there is divergence of opinion as to why the discrepancies exist and whether or not they are justified.

Some justify the difference in position between men and women by arguing that women de-emphasize their career commitment in favor of home and family. Yet Guyer and Fidell (1973) cite studies that demonstrate that the majority of women who receive their PhDs continue their careers uninterruptedly, while at the same time attending to their family responsibilities. Another frequently encountered reason for the paucity of women in less desirable positions is that women are less productive than men. One widely credited measure of productivity among academic profes-

sionals is the number of publications. Accordingly, Guyer and Fidell (1973) studied the publication record of men versus women in psychology, controlling for major area of interest, age, academic position, and prestige of institutional affiliation. They found little support in their data for the contention that there is a true difference in the productivity of men and women psychologists overall. Thus, claims of lower productivity for women are unfounded, and the exclusion of women from certain positions on the grounds of lower productivity seems particularly unwarranted.

Nonetheless, it is true that women publish significantly less than men at the two highest levels of academic appointment, full professor and associate professor (Guyer and Fidell, 1973). An interesting question is to look for the factors within the higher levels of the academic system, or within the women currently in high-level positions, which encourage men to publish but discourage women from publishing. Guyer and Fidell also note that, rather surprisingly, none of the variables of age, sex, major area of interest, academic position, or rank of institution were good predictor variables for the administrator hoping to identify research/publication-oriented psychologists. Yet, these are the variables upon which, traditionally, academic psychologists have been rated. On the other hand, extended research might reveal personality differences, institutional differences, or perhaps simply differences in levels of energy, which relate to academic productivity.

Pasewark, et. al. (1973) reported on the research activities and publication record of clinical psychologists. Pasewark et. al. assumes that if a large segment of a clinical psychologist's training is in the

scientific method and research methodology, and emphasis is placed upon the role of a clinical psychologist as a researcher, then some reflection of this training should be found in the research productivity of the individual in his employment career. Thus the authors directed their study to an investigation of the factors that affect the research productivity of clinical psychologists.

The sample consisted of all members of Division 12 (Clinical Psychology) listed in the 1968 APA Directory. The most striking finding was the paucity of research publication in the Division 12 membership. Mean publications listed in the Abstracts for 1965-69 was 1.61, or a yearly publication rate of .32 articles per member. Fifty-five per cent had no publications listed for the five-year period; 10% authored 56% of the publications; 5% accounted for 38% of the listings; and 1% authored 13% of the articles. These findings are somewhat comparable to those of Levy (1962) who found that in a 12-year period, among 781 psychologists who received degrees from 41 APA-approved training programs, 29% had not published, 19% had only one publication, and 10% of the group accounted for 45% of all publications. These results are discouraging when viewed in light of Arnhoff and Shriver's (1960) data, which found that 79% of those practicing psychologists who had been supported in their training by NIMH grants reported themselves engaged in research activities and devoting 32% of their time to that effort. It can be concluded that a large number of psychologists are engaged in research activity that either does not reach fruition or else is not made available in published form to the scientific community. Sechrest (1975) points out, however, that high quality research in the field of clinical psychology that reflects meaningful issues can be conducted

only with the cooperation of practicing clinicians and practicing researchers. Practicing clinicians can assist in the planning of research to answer questions fundamental to the practice of clinical psychology, and by indicating how research design can be improved. Clinicians can also cooperate with researchers, for example, by making available to researchers their own clinical records; and by facilitating the access of the researcher to required subject populations.

Data point to an association between research productivity and sex, age, Division 12 status, and type of employment. Male rates (.36/year) are significantly higher than female rates (.16/year), and a smaller segment of the female sample executed a greater proportion of the research activities of their sex. Fifty per cent of the males did not publish at all in a five-year period; 10% were responsible for 54% of the listings; 5% for 34%; and 1% for 10%. Corresponding figures for women are 70% with no publications; 10% had 66%; 5% produced 40%; and 1% produced 17% of the publications. This sex differential holds regardless of whether primary employment is in an academic or service setting.

A second factor affecting publication rate is age. With increasing age, a larger proportion of psychologists cease publication activity. Thus at age 40, 76% of the group do not publish and for subsequent years this percentage tends to increase gradually. Furthermore, those psychologists who publish tend to generate between 1.5 and 2.0 articles at each age, and the period of greatest productivity appears to be between the ages of 35 and 41, whereas the mean rate for publishers varies between 1.85 and 2.10 listed publications.

Status in Division 12 is also associated with publication activity. Fellows publish .45 articles per year and Members publish .29 articles.

Forty-nine per cent of the Fellows and 56% of the Members did not publish during the five-year period.

Except for persons in the armed services and non-VA federal agencies, individuals listing an academic setting as their present primary employment site are more likely to publish. Also, academic affiliation at some time in an individual's career is also associated with research activity. Among clinicians whose employment has been exclusively academic, only 36% did not publish in the five-year period, while 66% of those whose careers have been solely in service settings did not publish. For those now in service settings with previous academic work experience, 57% had not published; and among those presently in academic settings with previous service experience, 56% had not published in the five-year sample period. The conclusion can be drawn that, as a group, publication rate among clinicians is disappointingly low.

Wispe (1969) discussed some of the social and psychological correlates of scientific publications and recognition in psychology. He investigated specifically the commonly held assumption that the older psychology departments in certain prestigious private universities were more productive than the psychology departments in a sample of other universities when department size was controlled. Wispe (1969) found that the older departments were more productive than the newer ones for the 1950 decade even when account was taken of department size; and that this was especially true for the older departments in the private universities. By 1960, however, times had changes. The older departments in the private universities could expand no further, and the newer emerging departments in both public and private universities, as well as some of the older departments in the public universities, pressed their advantage

with increasing success. The mean publication differences disappeared. So it seems that the assumption that more prestigious psychology departments have better reputations because they are more productive, is a myth.

Another finding of Wispe (1969) was that individual productivity rates have been declining. Although there were more psychologists, there have been fewer scientific contributions per psychologist as the years have progressed.

Barclay (1970) tested the hypothesis that the locus of function of a psychologist and his identification as an experimentalist as opposed to a clinician are related to publication productivity. Barclay's subjects were 715 clinical psychologists and 212 experimental psychologists culled from the 1966 APA directory. A search was made through Psychological Abstracts to ascertain publication citations over the period 1948-1966. Barclay found a highly significant difference between experimentalists and clinicians in favor of experimentalists; and between academic and nonacademic in favor of the former. Also, the academic clinician published more extensively than his nonacademic counterpart; and the nonacademic experimentalist published more extensively than either the academic clinician or the nonacademic clinician.

Sanford (1976) and Kiesler (1977) document a decline in federal funding in recent years for both basic and applied research in psychology. Young scientists are much less frequently supported than senior scientists. On the other hand, between 1964 and 1974 a huge increase occurred in the contribution of nonfederal sources to psychological research; but even so, nonfederal sources contribute less to psychology than to any other supported discipline. The picture for funding of psychological research

is bleak.

The Policy and Planning Board of the American Psychological Association (1977) reported on an APA survey which investigated federal support for psychologists. APA found that although about 50% of all academic science researchers received federal support, only 43% of psychologists in basic research and 33% of psychologists in applied research in academic settings received such support. Although psychology comprised 14% of the young investigators pool (doctorates held for 17 years or less), it only comprised 9% of the young investigators receiving federal support. The APA Policy and Planning Board suggests that one of the reasons for proportionately less funding to psychology is the public's lack of knowledge about the contributions that the field can make to such socially relevant areas as health care, crime reduction, education, the prevention of drug addiction, and pollution control.

Papers Presented Before Professional Groups

Four hundred and fifty-three papers have been presented by 105 individuals before professional groups and organizations, excluding papers presented concerning thesis or dissertation research. The number of papers presented varied from 1 to 74 papers per author. The mean number of papers per author was 4.314; the median number of papers was two. The modal number of papers per author was one (37 authors); next highest was two (18 authors); and the next highest was three (17 authors). When the total number of respondents is considered, 453 papers represent the presentation rate of all 335 respondents, which is 1.35 papers per respondent. Thirty-one percent of the respondents are responsible for all the papers presented before professional groups.

Again, the relationship between respondents' having acquired a

terminal MA or PhD, whether they published their thesis or dissertation, and the number of papers presented before professional groups was examined. Table 35 shows these relationships.

Analysis of the data in Table 35 again indicates that, just as respondents who have received terminal master's degrees are much less likely to publish research, they are also much less likely to present papers before professional organizations than respondents who have received their doctorates. Those respondents with a terminal master's degree who had published their thesis, had a subsequent paper presentation rate of 0.43 papers per respondent; and those with a terminal master's degree who did not publish their thesis had a subsequent presentation rate of 0.32 papers per respondent. Again, in contrast, doctorates who published their thesis or dissertation had a subsequent presentation rate of 2.17 papers per respondent before a professional organization; and doctorates who did not publish their thesis or dissertation had a subsequent presentation rate of 1.95 papers per respondent. As was the case with publication activity, graduates who go on to receive their PhD and who publish their thesis or dissertation, are most likely to subsequently present papers before professional organizations. Next most likely to present papers before organizations are PhD's who have not published their thesis or dissertation. Graduates with terminal master's degrees, whether they publish their thesis or not, are much less likely to present papers before professional organizations.

The papers were presented before groups at all different levels: international, national, regional, state and community organizations, focusing on psychology, medicine, education, law, and a host of other

Table 35

Papers Presented Before Professional Groups,

by Degree Status and Publication of Thesis or Dissertation

Degree Status	Terminal MA, published Thesis	Terminal MA, did not publish Thesis	PhD, published Thesis/ Dissertation	PhD, did not publish Thesis/ Dissertation	All Respondents
Total Number of Papers	6	36	150	252	453
Total Number of Authors	3	15	38	48	105
Range of Number of Papers per Author	1-3	1-10	1-23	1-74	1-74
Mean Number of Papers per Author	2.0	2.4	3.95	5.25	4.31
Total Number of Respondents	14	113	69	129	335
Mean Number of Papers per Respondent	0.43	0.32	2.17	1.95	1.35

related areas.

Research Grants and Research Fellowships

Seventy-six respondents have received a total of 192 research grants and research fellowships from various institutions and agencies. The agencies giving these awards are too numerous to list inclusively, but include such organizations as the National Science Foundation, the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, Loyola University fellowships, faculty research grants from various universities, and grants from private industries. The number of grants per recipient ranged between one and sixteen. The mean number of research grants or fellowships per recipient was 2.526; the median number of grants was 1.5. The modal number of grants per recipient was one (38 recipients); next highest was two (14 recipients); and next highest was three (12 recipients). When the total number of respondents is considered, the 192 grants represent 335 respondents, which is an average of 0.57 grants per respondent. Twenty-three percent of the respondents are responsible for all the research grants and fellowships.

The relationships between respondents' having acquired a terminal MA or PhD, whether they published their thesis or dissertation, and the number of research grants and research fellowships they received was examined. Table 36 shows these relationships. Examination of Table 36 reveals that for each group, less than one research grant or fellowship was received per respondent. Doctorates, whether published or not, did not have a much greater rate of receiving grants and fellowships than respondents with terminal master's degrees. To summarize, those respondents with a terminal master's degree who had published their thesis,

Table 36

Number of Research Grants and Fellowships,

by Degree Status and Publication of Thesis or Dissertation

Degree Status	Terminal MA, published Thesis	Terminal MA, did not publish Thesis	PhD, published Thesis/ Dissertation	PhD, did not publish Thesis/ Dissertation	All Respondents
Total Number of Grants and Fellowships	3	14	54	122	192
Total Number of Recipients	3	7	27	38	76
Range of Numbers of Grants and Fellowships per Recipient	1	1-4	1-8	1-16	1-16
Mean Number of Grants and Fellowships per Recipient	1.0	2.0	2.0	3.21	2.53
Total Number of Respondents	14	113	69	129	335
Mean Number of Grants and Fellowships per Respondent	0.21	0.12	0.78	0.95	0.57

received an average of 0.21 grants per respondent. Those with a terminal master's degree who had not published their thesis received an average of 0.12 grants per respondent. Doctorates who had published their thesis or dissertation had received an average of 0.78 grants per respondent; and doctorates who had not published their thesis or dissertation received an average of 0.95 grants per respondent.

Teaching Experience

Item 15 on the questionnaire asked, "Should all graduate students have supervised experience in teaching and in administration?" One hundred and eighty-six of the 335 respondents said "yes" (55.5%); 91 of the respondents said "no" (27.2%); and 36 gave no comments (10.7%). Ninety-five respondents gave answers that could not be classified as either yes, no, or no comment; or gave additional comments. These other comments will be discussed below.

Forty-six respondents felt that graduates should be given teaching experience, but only as dependent upon their interests, skills and career goals. The main trend of the comments was that teaching experience would be helpful, since most psychologists do some teaching in some form during their professional lives. Teaching experience would be helpful, however, only if the teaching were supervised and the trainee received feedback on his performance. Several respondents noted the importance of the teaching supervisors themselves being trained in the area of teaching and learning. Most university teachers were observed to be not so trained, and therefore over the years of their teaching have become highly trained in ineffective teaching. The student himself should be trained in the methods of teaching; and a course in the psychology of

teaching could be useful. Students also should have the opportunity to supervise others. Teaching can help the teacher study and grasp in depth what he has taken in class.

One graduate suggested that students have the opportunity to teach supervised units of a course rather than have responsibility for an entire course. This would allow for experimentation with different teaching techniques and probably would be more of a learning experience for the student teacher as well as the students in the course.

Many comments were directed at the importance of having teaching experience as a vehicle for professional advancement. Success at promotion in the field usually means that one ends up teaching or administering something. Teaching experience was also seen as being helpful in aiding the prospective teacher to recognize his strengths and limitations: the student should find out both his liking for and extent of talent for teaching before he commits himself to a teaching career. One graduate said that his teaching experience as a graduate student at Loyola put him way ahead of many of his colleagues from other universities hired the same year as he was, and hence was instrumental in helping him obtain numerous merit raises as a function of excellence in teaching.

On the opposite side of the coin, several respondents cautioned about the necessity of quality training and adequate supervision in teaching. Poor teaching is a disservice to the undergraduate students, and might be an irrelevant or meaningless experience for the graduate student. A few respondents also felt that there are more PhD's than teaching positions, and the ratio of available teachers to available teaching jobs is likely to worsen in the coming years. Therefore only

an exceptionally promising person ought to be encouraged to go into psychology teaching at the collegiate level. Some other type of experience may better suit those who are not seriously considering a career in education. As has been discussed in the introduction to this work, however, teaching jobs are indeed available for psychology graduates, particularly at the junior college level.

Administrative Experience

Eighty of the 335 respondents (23.9%) felt that graduate students should have experience in administration. An almost equal number, 88 respondents (26.3%), felt that students do not need to have administration experience. Forty-three (12.8%) gave no answer to this question. Eighty-five respondents made additional comments.

Most of the additional comments saw administrative experience as being highly useful; only a few comments were negative. Several comments were made to the effect that students should have administrative experience as dependent upon interest, skills, and future career goals. The PhD in clinical psychology was seen as usually automatically placing one in an administrative position. Unfortunately, most psychologists come away from graduate school in psychology with little training and/or experience in administrative functioning. Others felt that experience in administration would seem useful for any career path, including clinical practice and teaching. At least one course in administration was recommended. As one graduate put it, "Many of us end up being administrators and would never have predicted it."

Several comments were made suggesting subject matter to be included in a course or practicum in administration. The prospective administrator

should have experience in research, training, consultation, proposal development, and writing. Students would also profit from training in accounting and business practice, computer applications, and a course in law. An optional experience in grantsmanship should be offered. Students also should have experience in organizational and systems theory. Equally important is having experienced and skilled administrators teaching the course or practicum.

The importance of administrative experience for professional advancement was also emphasized. Several respondents noted that, beyond two to three years as a clinician, one has to move into administration to increase his salary. Everyone working for large, complex industries and institutions should understand the processes, budgets, and have administrative know-how.

Twenty respondents saw administration as being mainly interpersonal communication.

CHAPTER V

EMPLOYMENT AND FINANCIAL ASPECTS OF PSYCHOLOGY AS A PROFESSION

Several major issues involving the current production and utilization of psychologists are of serious concern. For example, as has been discussed previously in this report, a real prospect exists that academic jobs in departments of psychology will constitute an increasingly smaller job market for new PhD's, especially at the college and university level. Information is therefore needed about the availability of and the distribution of the ages of current academicians. Also required is the evaluation of the supply of psychologists in different areas and their current professional activities, as a gauge for formulating training goals and recruiting practices. Boneau and Cuca (1974) make the point that employment problems may be ameliorated by the trend for psychologists to be employed in social problem areas, such as community mental health and criminal justice reform, as a result of government public policy efforts. They also note, however, that the current phaseout of federal funding for training raises questions about the long-run availability of psychologists for public service positions.

These issues pose critical problems for both students contemplating entering into the field of psychology generally, or choosing a specialization area; for deans, department chairmen, and professors in universities; and for the psychologist who has finished or is finishing graduate school and who wants to map out his career. Information needed to help these individuals make good choices includes knowing the number of

available psychologists at various degree levels; their salaries by sex, degree status, age, and number of years of experience in the field; the relative numbers of psychologists in different fields of specialization and their salaries; the kinds of professional activities that psychologists engage in most frequently; and the employment settings in which they work.

This chapter will attempt to answer these questions for the Loyola sample, and compare the data obtained from this sample to national surveys of psychologists that have been done in recent years. The major national survey that will be used as a basis for comparison with the Loyola sample is the report of the 1972 American Psychological Association survey, reported by Boneau and Cuca (1974). In this survey, the APA mailed a questionnaire to its total membership at the time (35,361) and to another 26,556 nonmembers. The response rate was 77% for members and 30% for nonmembers.

History of the Growth of Psychology as a Profession

Boneau and Cuca (1974) trace a number of world events that have had a significant effect on the growth of psychology, as well as the other sciences. These events form a framework for understanding some of the trends and patterns that have developed in the field, and also for understanding where psychology is headed in the future. In 1957, Russia's launching of Sputnik, the first known orbital satellite, posed a threat of foreign military supremacy to the American people and mobilized the goal of putting a man on the moon as a national mandate. Federal funds poured into the general scientific enterprise at all levels. At the same time, the post World War II baby boom exploded upon the colleges and

universities; the enrollments in colleges doubled from 1960 to 1970, leading to a demand for bigger physical plants and greater numbers of faculty.

By 1970, the baby boom had graduated from college, and the growth of the educational system leveled off, with exceptions in the social sciences, medicine, and law. This slowdown was exacerbated by an economic recession which affected the fields of aerospace and related industries, and notably the fields of engineering and the physical sciences, when the goal of putting a man on the moon had been reached, and national interest in this endeavor declined. Disenchantment with the Vietnam war and a growing concern with the future of mankind led students out of the "hard" sciences and into fields seen as socially relevant.

During this period, psychology grew rapidly. Funds were readily available for psychological training, for research, and for physical plant expansion in the universities, including the hiring of many new faculty. As a graphic illustration of this growth, only 665 doctorates in psychology were awarded in 1954 (National Academy of Sciences - National Research Council, 1963); in 1974 this figure would be about 2,600 (U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1972). Undergraduate baccalaureates in psychology are now over 100,000 per year. Because of this growth, great demands have been placed on the supply of psychologists; Boneau and Cuca (1974) report that in 1972, half of all psychologists were employed in institutions of higher education.

Boneau and Cuca (1974) note that psychologists comprised 8.8% of the scientific manpower pool in 1954, and 8.4% in 1970. Psychologists' median salary was 90.4% that of the total in 1954; but 100% (or equality)

in 1970. In terms of doctorates only, psychology's share decreased from 12.4% (National Science Foundation, 1959) to 10.9% (National Academy of Sciences, 1974) of the total pool in science fields in 1973.

One might hypothesize that the availability of government training stipends helped to increase the proportion of psychologists with doctorates from 56% in 1954 to 69% in 1972. Boneau and Cuca (1974) suggest that the Veterans Administration and National Institute of Mental Health programs, which funded the training of clinical psychologists, help account for the rise between 1954 and 1960 in the percentages of individuals in clinical (from 34% to 39%) and in the human service subfields (from 51% to 56%). The rapid expansion of colleges and universities is reflected in changes in the numbers of psychologists employed in educational institutions. From 1954 to 1960, this figure decreased from 51% to 46%, possibly because of the relative increase in service-oriented clinical psychologists. However, by 1972 the percentage of psychologists employed in educational institutions had risen back up to 62%.

Data from the 1972 APA survey (Boneau and Cuca, 1974) also show a relative increase of those employed in private industry or self-employed between 1954 and 1960. It is suggested that this increase has been contributed to by the increase in the relative percentages of clinical psychologists, and the potential for private practice brought about by the initiation of governmental licensing and certification of psychologists for such private practice.

APA's Policy and Planning Board (1977) also reported on employment prospects for new doctorates in psychology. They found that between 1970 and 1975, the rate of production of new doctoral psychologists grew much faster than the rate of production of doctorate holders in general.

The rate of increase of new faculty positions, however, is not expected to be near the rate of increase of those awarded new doctorates. New PhDs in psychology are increasingly finding employment outside the academic sector, in such settings as government, industry, or nonprofit organizations.

The Policy and Planning Board note, however, that

> . . . the employment prospects vary within psychology, depending on the subfield. Rapid developments in depression and schizophrenia research, coupled with the need for behavioral scientists in areas such as cancer research and health care delivery systems, suggest that employment prospects present no stable or permanent picture, but shift for different areas of psychology as behavioral science expertise is under increased demand for different problem areas.

APA has published a volume, edited by Paul J. Woods (1976) on Career Opportunities for Psychologists: Expanding and Emerging Areas. APA has also established a Continuing Education Program for the training and retraining of psychologists; has designated employment information officers within departments of psychology who are responsible for collection and dissemination of information concerning employment within the field; and has established a committee on Employment and Human Resources which is responsible for disseminating information on supply and demand to graduate program leaders, faculty, and students.

The Loyola Sample

Of the 335 graduates returning the questionnaire from Loyola, 156 doctorates and 78 with terminal master's degrees gave information on their salary and gross incomes. This is a total of 234 respondents, or 70% of the total number of the respondents to the survey. This section of the report will be devoted to reporting the salary and gross income characteristics of these 234 respondents, along a variety of dimensions, and comparing the information obtained

from the Loyola graduates to national samples. The information that will be reported includes salary from the main current position and gross income, broken down by sex and employment status in both psychological and non-psychological positions (Tables 37 and 38); salary from the main current position and gross income, broken down by sex, and employment setting for both psychological and non-psychological positions (Tables 39 and 40); salary from the main current position and gross income, broken down by sex, and departmental setting in education if relevant (Tables 41 and 42); salary from the main current position and gross income, broken down by employment setting, and area of psychology in which the highest degree was received (Tables 43 and 44); salary from the main current position and gross income, broken down by sex, and major psychological area of work (Tables 45 and 46); salary from the main current position and gross income, broken down by sex, and years of experience since granting of the highest degree (Tables 47 and 48); and salary from the main current position and gross income, broken down by sex, and age (Tables 49 and 50).

Employment Status

Table 37 shows the salary from the main current position of the respondents, broken down by sex, and employment status in both psychological and non-psychological positions. Data is shown for respondents whose highest degree is the MA or the PhD from Loyola. One hundred and thirty-eight, or 88% of the 156 PhD respondents giving this information are employed either full-time, or full-time and part-time in psychological positions. In contrast, only 54, or 69% of the 78 MA respondents are employed either full-time, or full-time and part-time in psychological positions. Five PhD's and 10 MA's are employed at least full-time

Table 37

Salary From Main Current Position, Broken Down by Sex, and Employment Status in both Psychological and Non-Psychological Positions. For Respondents Whose Highest Degree is the MA or the PhD from Loyola.

	Doctorates			Master's		
Employment Status	N	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.
Total N Responding	156	19,572.78	7,536.29	78	12,538.73	9,309.18
Sex - Male	127	20,081.51	7,985.63	53	13,828.87	10,297.75
Full-time, Psychology	38	17,783.55	6,436.05	20	15,087.00	6,773.37
Full-time and part-time, Psychology	77	21,610.22	8,061.01	18	10,266.33	5,680.44
One or more part-time, Psychology	8	16,011.25	8,919.74	7	5,928.00	6,064.35
Student/Trainee (with no Psychology employment)	-	-	-	1	3,000.00	.00
Full-time, Non-Psychology	-	-	-	4	39,250.00	9,429.56
Full-time and part-time, Non-Psychology	4	20,625.00	12,815.19	3	14,966.67	9,597.05
Sex - Female	29	17,344.90	4,596.08	25	9,803.64	6,132.71
Full-time, Psychology	8	18,362.50	5,930.29	8	10,775.13	5,933.80
Full-time and part-time, Psychology	15	16,970.27	3,075.15	8	9,967.50	5,123.05
One or more part-time, Psychology	5	15,309.60	5,549.71	5	7,400.00	7,144.23
Full-time, Non-Psychology	-	-	-	2	17,975.00	2,863.78
Full-time and part-time, Non-Psychology	1	25,000.00	.00	1	3,000.00	.00
One or more part-time, Non-Psychology	-	-	-	1	3,200.00	.00

in non-psychological positions. Full time positions were defined as 35 to 40 hours per week, while part-time positions were defined as less than 35 hours per week. Relatively more PhD's than MA's are employed full-time in psychological positions.

When contrasting men and women graduates, 91% of the male PhD graduates are employed at least full-time in psychological positions; while only 79% of the female PhD graduates are employed at least full time in psychological positions. Likewise, 72% of the male MA graduates are employed at least full-time in psychological positions, while only 64% of the female MA graduates are employed at least full-time in psychological positions. Among both MA and PhD recipients, more men than women hold full-time positions in psychology.

A large number of psychology graduates are employed in more than one position. Of the 127 male doctorates, 89 (70%) hold two or more positions. Of the 29 female doctorates, 21 (72%) hold two or more positions. Among master's degree recipients, 28 (53%) of male terminal MA's hold two or more positions, and 15 (60%) of female MA's hold two or more positions. There is a greater tendency for PhD recipients to hold more than one position than MA recipients. Secondary employment positions tend to be such jobs as consulting, private practice, and administrative positions.

The majority of MA and PhD recipients, both men and women, remain in the field of psychology, for which they were trained.

For the graduates who received doctorates, the mean salary from their main current position was $19,572.78, standard deviation $7,536.29. Those who received a terminal master's degree had a mean salary of $12,538.73 from their main current position, S.D. $9,309.18. Overall,

the master's degree respondents make an average of $7,000.00 a year less than the PhD respondents.

At the doctoral level, not much difference in salary exists between the men and women. The 127 male doctorates have mean earnings of $20,081.51 per year, S.D. $7,985.63. In contrast, the 29 female doctorates have mean earnings of $17,344.90, S.D. $4,596.08. This difference is narrowed even more when only the salary from the main current position for male and female doctoral recipients who are employed only full-time in psychological positions is considered: male doctoral respondents in psychology employed full-time in psychological positions earn a mean of $17,783.55 a year; their female counterparts earn $18,362.50. In this case, the women even come out ahead. However, the situation is very different when terminal master's degree respondents are considered. Men whose highest degree is the MA earn an average of $13,828.87 per year, S.D. $10,297.75. The 25 female MA respondents only earn an average of $9,803.64 per year, S.D. $6,132.71. The relative earning potential of men and women who are employed full-time in psychological positions and who have only the MA is similarly disparate. Male MA's employed full-time in psychological positions earn an average of $15,087.00 per year, S.D. $6,773.37. Female MA's employed full-time in psychological positions earn an average of $10,775.13 per year, S.D. $5,993.80. Clearly, at the master's level women command significantly less income than men do.

Sixty-five per cent of the respondents reported extra income in addition to the income from their main current positions. Table 38 shows this gross income for all respondents, broken down by sex, and

employment status in both psychological and non-psychological positions. For the graduates who received doctorates, the mean gross income was $23,411.05, S.D. $12,644.27. This represents an average increase of nearly $4,000.00 per year over the salary from the main current position when all sources of additional income are taken into consideration. In contrast, for those respondents whose highest degree was the MA, the mean gross income was only $13,600.72. This is $10,000.00 a year less on the average than the doctorates. Also, the master's recipients on the average pick up only an extra $1,000.00 a year in income over what they receive from their main current position. Those respondents with the higher salaries in the first place, are those who augment their salaries with the greatest extra income. These respondents probably have more opportunities for extra income, in the form of consulting work, speeches, and so on.

At the doctoral level, a considerable difference exists between the gross income of men and women. The male doctorates have a gross income mean of $24,485.15, S.D. $13,591.98. In contrast, the female doctorates have a mean gross income of $18,707.24, S.D. $5,054.69. Comparison of Tables 37 and 38 show that male doctorates, both working in the field of psychology and in non-psychological jobs, acquire much more money in the form of additional income from part-time jobs over and above their main current positions than female doctorates do. Apparently, male doctorates either seek out or are offered more additional work than female doctorates. The same relationship holds true at the master's level, although less dramatically. The male

Table 38

Gross Income, Broken Down by Sex, and Employment Status in both Psychological and Non-Psychological Positions. For Respondents Whose Highest Degree is the MA or the PhD from Loyola.

	Doctorates			Master's		
Employment Status	N	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.
Total N Responding	156	23,411.05	12,644.27	78	13,600.72	9,896.96
Sex - Male	127	24,485.15	13,591.98	53	14,975.28	10,833.70
Full-time, Psychology	38	18,046.71	5,941.92	20	15,087.00	6,773.37
Full-time and part-time, Psychology	77	27,288.82	14,732.43	18	11,271.89	6,146.57
One or more part-time, Psychology	8	25,292.50	16,338.35	7	7,936.57	8,107.99
Student/Trainee (with no Psychology employment)	-	-	-	1	3,000.00	.00
Full-time, Non-Psychology	-	-	-	4	39,250.00	9,429.56
Full-time and part-time, Non-Psychology	4	30,065.00	20,792.07	3	24,500.00	16,755.60
Sex - Female	29	18,707.24	5,054.69	25	10,686.64	6,851.13
Full-time, Psychology	8	18,362.50	5,930.29	8	10,775.12	5,933.80
Full-time and part-time, Psychology	15	19,444.13	4,178.54	8	11,673.75	7,709.35
One or more part-time, Psychology	5	15,789.60	5,777.52	5	9,085.00	7,310.00
Full-time, Non-Psychology	-	-	-	2	17,975.00	2,863.78
Full-time and part-time, Non-Psychology	1	25,000.00	.00	1	3,000.00	.00
One or more part-time, Non-Psychology	-	-	-	1	3,200.00	.00

MA recipients have a gross income mean of $14,975.28, S.D. $10,833.70. Female MA recipients have a mean gross income of $10,686.64, S.D. $6,851.13.

From the data of the 1972 American Psychological Association national survey of psychologists (Boneau and Cuca, 1974), at that time of a total of 33,575 respondents, 2,811 or 8.3% reported that they were not employed. The bulk of these were students (1,686); and only 682 of the total, or 2%, were actually seeking employment. Thus, the ranks of the unemployed in psychology are actually very small. On the other hand, 11.3% of those already employed were seeking other employment, with the reasons for this not being stated.

This same study gives data on the number of psychologists who are engaged in employment other than a full-time job. Of the total from the national sample, 28% have a part-time position in addition to full-time employment. In contrast, nearly double that number in the Loyola sample (54%) have a part-time position in addition to a full-time job. Another 8% of the national sample and 11% of the Loyola sample piece together a career out of one or more part-time positions. Boneau (1973) reports that it is preponderantly men who have a part-time job in addition to full-time employment, while it is women who are predominantly engaged in part-time only careers. This does not appear to be as true of the Loyola sample as it is of the national sample. Fifty-seven per cent of Loyola men hold a full-time and part-time job; but 46% of Loyola women do, also.

Boneau and Cuca (1974) remark on the general similarity between

the salaries of doctorate women and those of master's men, not doctorate men. For the 1972 APA study which they report, doctorate women earn a median salary of $17,600 a year; while master's men earn a median salary of $17,000 a year. Doctorate men, on the other hand, earn a median salary of $20,000 a year. The discrepancy between the salaries of doctorate women and men are not so apparent for the Loyola group, in which doctorate men earn a mean salary of $20,081.51 a year; doctorate women earn a mean salary of $17,344.90 a year; and master's men earn a mean salary of $13,828.87 a year. Master's women do earn far less than the other groups, however: a mean salary of $9,803.64 a year.

Boneau and Cuca (1974) also discuss the salary versus gross income of psychologists. From the 1972 APA sample, nearly one-third of those employed full-time also have a part-time position, which brings in an average of an extra $4,000 a year for male doctorates with five or more years of experience. From the Loyola sample, however, many more of the respondents employed full-time also have a part-time position. Nearly three-quarters of male doctorates employed full-time also have a part-time position, and the same relationship is true for female doctorates; while half of all master's level respondents who hold a full time position also hold a part-time position.

The graduates who have left the field of psychology, and are working in other areas comprise an interesting group financially. Male doctorates who are employed in non-psychological positions have a mean salary of $20,625.00 per year, S.D. $12,815.19; and a gross income mean of $30,065.00 per year, S.D. $20,792.07. Both their salaries and gross incomes are somewhat higher than their male counterparts who are doctorates

employed at least full-time in psychology. At the master's level, men who have left the field of psychology do far better financially than those who have remained in psychology. Male master's degree recipients who are employed in non-psychological positions have a mean salary of $28,842.85, and a mean gross income of $32,928.57, whether employed full-time only, or full-time and part-time. This is considerably higher than the mean salary of $15,087.00 and the mean gross income, which is the same, for male MA's who are employed full-time in psychology. The implication seems to be that if you are a man and have received only a master's degree in psychology, you are better off seeking employment in non-psychology related fields if you seek to maximize your income.

The one female doctorate who is employed in a non-psychological position has a mean salary and gross income of $25,000.00 a year. This is $6,000.00 to $8,000.00 a year more than the mean salaries and gross incomes of female doctorates who remain in psychology. At the master's level for women the relationship is less clear. Women MA's who are employed in non-psychological positions have mean salaries and gross incomes that range from $3,000.00 a year to almost $18,000.00 a year, for the four respondents who fall into this category. Women MA's who are employed in psychological positions have mean salaries that range from $7,400.00 to $10,775.13, and gross incomes that range about $1,000.00 higher.

The overall implication seems to be that, for the Loyola graduates at least, both male and female MA's and PhD's make more money when they choose employment in non-psychology rather than psychology-related fields.

For those respondents who held one or more part-time positions in psychology, the mean salary for male doctorates was $16,011.25, S.D. $8,919.74; and the mean gross income was $25,292.50, S.D. $16,338.35. For female doctorates, the mean salary was $15,309.60, S.D. $5,549.71; and the mean gross income was $15,789.60, S.D. $5,777.52. Male master's degree recipients who held one or more part-time jobs in psychology had a mean salary of $5,928.00, S.D. $6,064.35; and a mean gross income of $7,936.57, S.D. $8,107.99. Female master's degree recipients with one or more part-time jobs in psychology had a mean salary of $7,400.00, S.D. $7,144.23; and a mean gross income of $9,085.00, S.D. $7,310.00.

Employment Setting

Table 39 shows the salary of Loyola psychology graduates from their main current position, broken down by sex, and employment setting for both psychological and non-psychological positions. Twenty-eight percent of all male and female doctorates work in university settings, excluding medical schools; and twenty-three percent are employed in hospitals. Thus, over half of all doctorates are employed in academic positions in universities, or in hospitals. Female master's degree recipients are spread over the entire range of employment settings, without concentrations in any particular area. However, 26% of all male master's recipients are employed in religious institutions, with the rest being spread over all other employment settings. The large number of male MA's in religious institutions is due to the many priests who receive MA's in counseling and who later go back to their parishes.

According to the 1972 APA survey (Boneau and Cuca, 1974), 50% of the respondents in this sample are employed in institutions of higher

Table 39

Salary From Main Current Position, Broken Down by Sex, and Employment Setting for both Psychological and Non-Psychological Positions. For Respondents Whose Highest Degree is the MA or the PhD from Loyola.

	Doctorates			Master's		
Employment Setting	N	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.
Total N Responding	156	19,572.78	7,536.29	78	12,538.73	9,309.18
Sex - Male	127	20,081.51	7,985.63	53	13,828.87	10,279.75
Hospitals	23	18,945.87	4,520.90	5	12,430.40	6,264.30
Clinics	12	18,250.75	4,585.56	6	11,319.67	4,406.40
Independent/Group Practice	12	28,995.83	9,595.46	1	40,000.00	.00
Government Agency	4	18,619.75	7,054.91	2	21,000.00	8,485.28
Private or Quasi-Government Agency	8	22,668.75	8,207.44	2	13,750.00	2,050.61
Research Establishment	1	19,500.00	.00	-	-	-
Consulting Firm	3	24,066.67	19,809.43	1	10,500.00	.00
Business or Industry	2	34,000.00	5,656.85	5	31,400.00	14,028.54
Association or Society	-	-	-	1	25,000.00	.00
Religious Institution	2	4,785.00	403.05	14	6,275.71	4,690.21
Military Service	5	21,800.00	6,797.06	-	-	-
Law Enforcement Agency	-	-	-	1	20,000.00	.00
Judicial System	4	21,798.00	8,949.16	-	-	-
Correctional System	2	22,300.00	989.95	3	14,646.67	5,538.46
Universities, excluding Medical Schools	30	18,567.40	7,474.05	5	9,352.00	8,657.92
Medical Schools	6	21,801.33	2,475.64	-	-	-
Four-Year Colleges	10	14,041.70	5,053.09	3	9,000.00	4,582.58
Two-Year Colleges	1	25,000.00	.00	-	-	-
Regional School District	2	14,250.00	5,303.30	3	20,633.33	3,564.17
Other Educational	-	-	-	1	13,400.00	.00

Table 39 (Continued)

Salary From Main Current Position, Broken Down by Sex, and Employment Setting for both Psychological and Non-Psychological Positions. For Respondents Whose Highest Degree is the MA or the PhD from Loyola.

	Doctorates			Master's		
Employment Setting	N	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.
Sex - Female	29	17,344.90	4,596.08	25	9,803.64	6,132.71
Hospitals	8	16,937.50	3,573.69	3	8,566.67	2,891.94
Clinics	2	16,876.00	175.36	5	9,900.00	4,562.89
Independent/Group Practice	1	25,000.00	.00	-	-	-
Government Agency	-	-	-	1	20,000.00	.00
Business or Industry	-	-	-	1	20,000.00	.00
Religious Institution	1	9,048.00	.00	3	3,133.33	1,254.80
Other Non-Educational	1	15,000.00	.00	-	-	-
Universities, excluding Medical Schools	8	15,312.75	2,199.97	2	5,450.00	4,313.35
Medical Schools	3	17,833.33	1,892.97	-	-	-
Four-Year Colleges	5	21,740.00	6,999.14	1	10,000.00	.00
Regional School District	-	-	-	5	14,420.20	5,967.74
Secondary School	-	-	-	1	5,400.00	.00
Elementary Schools	-	-	-	3	7,383.33	7,419.63

education, as compared to only 28% of all Loyola doctorates; and an additional 12% of the APA sample are employed in precollege settings. More Loyola doctoral graduates are employed in human service settings than the respondents to the APA survey, however. Only 15% of the sample of the 1972 APA survey (Boneau and Cuca, 1974) are employed in hospitals and clinics, and an additional 6% are employed in independent or group practice. However, 78, or 33% of the total Loyola sample are employed in hospitals, clinics, or independent or group practice.

An earlier study conducted by the American Psychological Association (1968) gave a breakdown of the employment settings of psychologists at that time, as follows: college or university, 40%; school system, 11%; state government, 9%; federal government, 8%; private industry or business, 7%; self-employed, 6%; non-profit hospital or clinic, 5%; other non-profit organization, 4%; medical schools, 4%; county governments, 2%; municipal governments, 1%; and other unspecified, 3%. Boneau and Cuca (1974) reported that the largest single source of funding for employment is state governments, comprising 38% of their total sample. Nationwide, the employment settings of psychologists are predominantly in the public sector, including nonprofit organizations, with 85% of the total being so employed. The remainder are employed in private-for-profit settings (industry, for example) or are self-employed.

Lubin and Wallis (1969) report on the salaries of psychologists working in comprehensive community mental health centers and community clinics, by degree level and years of experience. They found a range of $4,000 to more than $17,000 for MA's with 5 years of experience; and a minimum of $6,000 to a maximum of more than $21,000 for PhD's with five

years of experience. Only 6.6% of the agencies responding to this survey require a diploma from the American Board of Professional Psychology (ABPP) for some positions. Civil Service control of psychology positions is at a mean of 42.3%. Eighty per cent of all agencies pay expenses to professional meetings; and forty-nine per cent of all agencies have private consultation privileges associated with their psychology positions.

When examining the salary of respondents in different employment settings, it is clear that male respondents with doctorates make the greatest salary when they are employed by business or industry, followed by employment in independent or group practice, two year colleges, consulting firms, and correctional systems. The salary range for the settings named above range from a mean of $34,000.00 a year when they are employed in business or industry, to a mean of $22,300.00 when they are employed by correctional systems: The settings in which the greatest number of male doctorates are employed, universities (excluding medical schools) and hospitals, pay a mean salary of only $18,567.40 and $18,945.87, respectively. The poorest paying employment settings are regional school districts (14,250.00), four-year colleges ($14,041.70), and religious institutions ($4,785.00).

As Table 39 indicates, female doctorates are employed in less varied settings than their male counterparts. The one female doctorate who has a private practice earns $25,000.00 a year. Women doctorates who work in four-year colleges do much better than male doctorates who work in four-year colleges: women earn an average of $21,740.00 per year, while men earn only $14,041.70 a year. Except for the one female

doctorate who works in a religious institution (earning $9,048.00 a year), the other employment settings pay women between $15,000.00 and $17,833.33 a year. Obviously, women doctorates who work in the same employment settings as male doctorates earn less money.

Looking at male respondents with terminal master's degrees, Table 39 indicates that the one male who has a private practice is doing extremely well: he reports an annual income of $40,000.00. Business and industry is a well paying employment setting for males with master's degrees just as it is for males with doctorates. MA-level males earn an average of $31,400.00 a year in business or industry. Other well paying employment settings for male respondents with master's degrees have been an association or society ($25,000.00 a year); government agencies ($21,000.00 a year); regional school districts ($20,633.33 a year); and a law enforcement agency ($20,000.00 a year). The setting in which the greatest percentage of male MA-recipients is employed, religious institutions, pays the worst: a mean of only $6,275.71 a year.

Female respondents with terminal master's degrees make the most income when they are employed in a government agency or in a business or industry ($20,000.00 a year). The next best paid group are those working for regional school districts, who make an average of $14,420.20 a year. Women with only master's degrees in other employment settings do relatively poorly, ranging from a mean of $10,000.00 a year for those working in four-year colleges, to only $3,133.33 a year for those working in religious institutions.

From this data, it is evident that both male and female doctoral respondents earn significantly more money when they are employed in a

particular employment setting than male and female respondents who have only a terminal master's degree. Male doctoral respondents earn the greatest salary across all employment settings, an average of $20,081.51 a year; followed by female doctoral respondents, who earn an average of $17,344.90 a year. Male master's degree respondents earn an average of $13,828.87 a year across all employment settings; while female master's degree respondents earn an average of $9,803.64 across all employment settings.

Table 40 shows the gross income for all respondents, broken down by sex, and employment setting for both psychological and non-psychological positions. The relationships among the data in this table roughly parallel the relationships among the data found in Table 39, and discussed above.

Boneau and Cuca (1974) provide detailed information about money earned in various employment settings for the 1972 American Psychological Association study. For male doctorates, the most lucrative top three employment settings and their respective median salaries are independent/ group practice, $30,000.00 a year; consulting firms, $26,800.00 a year; and business or industry, $25,000.00 a year. Hospitals and clinics pay a median salary of $18,000 to $19,000 a year; and most educational settings pay a median salary of around $20,000 a year. Relatively poorly paying are the military service ($15,000 a year) and religious institutions ($16,000 a year).

Women doctorates for this national sample earn a median of $17,600 a year across all employment settings. Women doctorates also earn the highest salaries in independent or group practice ($22,000 a year) and

Table 40

Gross Income, Broken Down by Sex, and Employment Setting for both Psychological and Non-Psychological Positions. For Respondents Whose Highest Degree is the MA or the PhD from Loyola.

	Doctorates			Master's		
Employment Setting	N	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.
Total N Responding	156	23,411.05	12,644.27	78	13,600.72	9,896.96
Sex - Male	127	24,485.15	13,591.98	53	14,975.28	10,833.70
Hospitals	23	20,961.52	6,313.14	5	13,670.40	8,269.61
Clinics	12	21,625.75	8,356.55	6	12,253.00	4,945.13
Independent/Group Practice	12	34,580.00	9,932.54	1	40,000.00	.00
Government Agency	4	23,909.75	12,327.06	2	21,000.00	8,485.28
Private or Quasi-Government Agency	8	26,851.25	9,699.36	2	13,750.00	2,050.61
Research Establishment	1	22,400.00	.00	-	-	-
Consulting Firm	3	33,560.00	27,740.60	1	12,100.00	.00
Business or Industry	2	44,000.00	8,485.28	5	32,400.00	13,164.35
Association or Society	-	-	-	1	25,000.00	.00
Religious Institution	2	4,785.00	403.05	14	6,965.71	4,563.79
Military Service	5	22,100.00	7,003.57	-	-	-
Law Enforcement Agency	-	-	-	1	20,000.00	.00
Judicial System	4	28,453.00	11,361.25	-	-	-
Correctional System	2	22,300.00	989.95	3	14,646.67	5,538.46
Universities, Excluding Medical Schools	30	24,300.13	19,945.58	5	14,092.00	15,989.94
Medical Schools	6	30,268.00	13,655.49	-	-	-
Four-Year Colleges	10	16,619.70	4,678.85	3	10,400.00	5,574.94
Two-Year Colleges	1	37,000.00	.00	-	-	-
Regional School District	2	19,605.00	1,845.55	3	21,846.67	1,878.97
Other Educational	-	-	-	1	14,560.00	.00

Table 40 (Continued)

Gross Income, Broken Down by Sex, and Employment Setting for both Psychological and Non-Psychological Positions. For Respondents Whose Highest Degree is the MA or the PhD from Loyola.

	Doctorates			Master's		
Employment Setting	N	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.
Sex - Female	29	18,707.24	5,054.69	25	10,686.64	6,851.13
Hospitals	8	17,162.50	3,526.61	3	8,566.67	2,891.94
Clinics	2	17,876.00	1,238.85	5	12,330.00	8,848.14
Independent/Group Practice	1	25,000.00	.00	-	-	-
Government Agency	-	-	-	1	20,000.00	.00
Business or Industry	-	-	-	1	20,000.00	.00
Religious Institution	1	9,048.00	.00	3	3,113.33	1,254.80
Other Noneducational	1	16,328.00	.00	-	-	-
Universities, Excluding Medical Schools	8	19,610.25	5,475.28	2	6,512.50	4,932.07
Medical Schools	3	17,833.33	1,892.97	-	-	-
Four-Year Colleges	5	21,740.00	6,999.14	1	10,000.00	.00
Regional School District	-	-	-	5	14,420.20	5,967.74
Secondary Schools	-	-	-	1	13,200.00	.00
Elementary Schools	-	-	-	3	7,383.33	7,419.63

business or industry ($20,000 a year). They also earn high salaries, from $20,000 to $21,000 a year, in regional school districts, and elementary and secondary schools. They earn a middle-range salary for working in hospitals ($17,300 a year). They are paid the least in clinics ($16,000 a year), four-year colleges ($16,800 a year), and religious institutions ($6,000 a year).

Men with master's degrees, nationwide, earn a median salary of $17,000 a year. Their highest-salaried positions are, again, independent and group practice ($24,000 a year); consulting ($22,000 a year); and associations or societies ($21,500 a year). Hospitals and clinics pay them the relatively low wages of $13,000 to $15,000 a year. Positions within educational institutions range from a median of $19,000 a year in elementary schools to $14,000 a year in medical schools. Lowest median salaries ($13,800 a year) are in the employment settings of clinics and the judicial system.

Women with master's degrees are paid a median salary of $15,300 a year. Their highest median salaries are in elementary schools, at $18,200 a year. Next is independent and group practice, at $18,000 a year. Hospitals and clinics pay a median salary of only $12,000 to $13,000 a year, and these settings along with consulting firms ($12,200 a year), constitute the lowest-salaried jobs. Women who have master's degrees appear to do the best in educational settings generally, with salaries ranging from a median of $18,200 a year in elementary schools to $13,300 a year in medical schools.

Further reviews by Cuca (1975) and King (1975) discuss the placement of psychologists for the years 1973 and 1974, and note trends in employment for the years 1969 through 1974. For this period of time, employment

opportunities in colleges and universities have declined slowly but steadily, as have those in hospitals and clinics, both traditional settings for psychologists. Although the number of positions in industry in 1972 had doubled over previous years, they were down again in 1973 and 1974 to the previous levels. Positions in the federal government increased somewhat in 1973 but declined again in 1974.

The major change in the job market for psychologists over this period of time was the tremendous increase in employment opportunities with state and local governments. The number of these positions has more than doubled since 1972 and constitutes almost as large a part of the job market as does the academic sector.

The ratio of applicants to positions available for the year 1974 improved slightly over the years 1971 and 1972, when there were twice as many job seekers as jobs listed. The ratio of applicants to positions is more favorable at the master's level than at the doctorate level. At all levels the ratio is most disproportionate in the academic area, is somewhat less so in the clinical-counseling area, and is most in balance in the industrial-applied area.

These supply to demand imbalances by area are reflected in the salaries associated with positions in different employment settings. For example, salaries paid by government are higher than those paid by hospitals and clinics, while the latter are higher than those paid by academia. In general, median salaries either remained stable or declined slightly from 1972 to 1974, additional evidence of the depressed market for psychologists' services because of increased and disproportionate supply.

Departmental Setting in Education

Table 41 shows the respondents' salary from their main current

position, broken down by sex, and departmental setting in education if relevant. Table 42 shows gross income for respondents, broken down by sex, and departmental setting in education if relevant. Tables 39 and 40 indicated salaries and gross incomes for respondents employed in universities excluding medical schools, medical schools, four-year colleges, two-year colleges, regional school districts, and other education institutions. Tables 41 and 42 give a breakdown by departmental setting for all respondents who are employed in educational settings.

The greatest percentage of male doctorates employed in educational settings, 35 respondents or 69% of the total of 51, are employed in departments of psychology. The mean salary for this group, however, is only $15,951.83 per year, S.D. $5,222.79. This is the lowest paid mean salary for all specific departmental settings in education for male doctorates. The mean salaries for departmental settings in education for male PhD's, in order, are Behavioral Sciences, $34,500.00; Education, $25,920.00; Student Counseling Center, $23,691.67; Administrative Staff, $22,743.33; Medicine, $21,561.60; Business, $18,000.00; and finally, Psychology.

When gross income is considered, as in Table 42, male doctoral respondents who work in departments of psychology still do not improve their position with respect to respondents who work in other departmental settings in education. Male doctorates in psychology gross only $20,137.31 a year on the average, an increase of only $4,185.48 a year over their salaries. Male doctorates who work in the Behavioral Sciences, Business, and Medicine have gross incomes substantially greater than their salaries from their main current positions: the male doctorates in the Behavioral

Table 41

Salary From Main Current Position, Broken Down by Sex, and Departmental Setting in Education, if Relevant. For Respondents Whose Highest Degree is the MA or the PhD from Loyola University.

Departmental Setting in Education	Doctorates			Master's		
	N	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.
Total N Responding	156	19,572.78	7,536.29	78	12,538.73	9,309.18
Sex - Male	127	20,081.51	7,985.63	53	13,828.87	10,279.75
Psychology	35	15,951.83	5,222.79	3	6,386.67	6,137.14
Education	1	25,920.00	.00	4	14,325.00	8,589.67
Behavioral Sciences	2	34,500.00	16,263.46	-	-	-
Medicine	5	21,561.60	2,688.86	1	5,000.00	.00
Business	1	18,000.00	.00	-	-	-
Administrative Staff	3	22,743.33	2,117.46	3	11,666.67	8,621.68
Student Counseling Center	3	23,691.67	3,513.93	2	8,500.00	10,606.60
Other in Education	1	10,000.00	.00	1	21,000.00	.00
Not Relevant	76	21,342.17	8,513.29	39	14,832.56	10,919.01
Sex - Female	29	17,344.90	4,596.08	25	9,803.64	6,132.71
Psychology	8	15,500.25	2,084.28	5	14,100.20	6,667.99
Education	1	15,500.00	.00	4	6,537.50	6,289.86
Sociology	1	16,500.00	.00	-	-	-
Medicine	2	18,500.00	2,121.32	-	-	-
Administrative Staff	2	28,600.00	5,091.17	-	-	-
Student Counseling Center	2	18,250.00	2,474.87	3	7,966.67	2,345.91
Other in Education	1	13,500.00	.00	-	-	-
Not Relevant	12	16,900.00	4,455.39	13	9,580.00	6,119.33

Table 42

Gross Income, Broken Down by Sex, and Departmental Setting in Education if Relevant. For Respondents Whose Highest Degree is the MA or the PhD from Loyola University.

Departmental Setting in Education	Doctorates			Master's		
	N	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.
Total N Responding	156	23,411.05	12,644.27	78	13,600.72	9,896.96
Sex - Male	127	24,485.15	13,591.98	53	14,975.28	10,833.70
Psychology	35	20,137.31	14,382.33	3	7,573.33	6,398.17
Education	1	25,920.00	.00	4	15,235.00	9,129.27
Behavioral Sciences	2	54,500.00	44,547.73	-	-	-
Medicine	5	31,721.60	14,739.18	1	6,300.00	.00
Business	1	54,000.00	.00	-	-	-
Administrative Staff	3	23,443.33	2,301.23	3	13,066.67	8,556.48
Student Counseling Center	3	24,818.33	5,387.77	2	8,500.00	10,606.60
Other	1	10,000.00	.00	1	41,000.00	.00
Not Relevant	76	25,032.83	11,247.39	39	15,552.05	10,866.91
Sex - Female	29	18,707.24	5,054.69	25	10,686.64	6,851.13
Psychology	8	19,497.75	5,383.02	5	14,225.50	6,394.05
Education	1	17,300.00	.00	4	6,537.50	6,289.86
Sociology	1	18,900.00	.00	-	-	-
Medicine	2	18,500.00	2,121.32	-	-	-
Administrative Staff	2	28,600.00	5,091.17	-	-	-
Student Counseling Center	2	18,250.00	2,474.87	3	11,066.67	1,847.52
Other	1	13,500.00	.00	-	-	-
Not Relevant	12	17,177.33	4,447.25	13	10,514.62	7,665.82

Sciences have a mean gross income of $54,500.00, a mean increase of $20,000.00 a year over their salary; the one male doctorate in business has a mean gross income of $54,000.00 a year, giving him $36,000.00 a year in excess of his salary. The male doctorates in Medicine earn a mean gross income of $31,721.60, which is $10,160.00 a year in excess of their mean salaries of $21,561.60. Male doctorates who work in the specialties of Education, Administration, and Student Counseling have gross incomes between 0 to $1,000 above their salaries from their main current positions. It seems that Loyola male doctorates in the behavioral sciences, business, and medicine have more opportunities to acquire additional income through consultations than their counterparts employed in other educational specialties, including psychology.

Rice and Keleman (1976) suggest that more research in industrial and organizational psychology is done in business schools than in departments of psychology. Over the course of the last ten years, authors affiliated with business schools, when compared with authors affiliated with departments of psychology, are contributing an increasingly greater proportion of the research in the areas of industrial and organizational psychology. Rice & Keleman (1976) suggest that it will be interesting to look at such data in the future, to see if research in industrial/organizational psychology will come to be dominated by business schools, or if business schools and psychology departments both will continue to publish research in this field.

The greatest percentage of female doctorates in educational settings are also employed in departments of psychology. This includes 8 out of 17 respondents, or 47%. Like male doctorates, who work in departments of psychology, their salary, a mean of $15,500.25 a year,

is also the lowest paid mean salary for all specific departmental settings in education for female doctorates. Other mean salaries for department settings in education for female doctorates, in order, are Administrative Staff, $28,600.00 a year; Medicine, $18,500.00 a year; Student Counseling Center, $18,250.00; Sociology, $16,500.00; Education, $15,500.00; and Psychology, $15,500.00 a year.

When gross income for female doctorates is considered, as in Table 42, women do not earn proportionately as much extra income from doing work beyond their main current positions as men do. Interestingly, the women doctorates who earn the most extra income, as judged by gross income figures, are those who do work in departments of psychology. Female doctorates who work in departments of psychology gross $19,497.75 on the average, an increase of $3,997.50 a year over their salaries. The female doctorate who works in a department of sociology has a gross income of $18,900.00 a year, which is $2,400.00 a year in excess of her salary of $16,500.00. The female doctorate who works in a department of education has a gross income of $17,300.00, which is $1,800.00 a year in excess of her salary of $15,500.00 a year. Female doctorates who work in departments of medicine, are part of the administrative staff, or who work in student counseling centers have gross incomes that are equal to their salaries.

Only 14 male master's degree recipients are employed in educational settings. These respondents are divided among departments of psychology, education, medicine, administrative staff, and student counseling centers. Male master's degree recipients are not employed in large proportions in one departmental setting in education as opposed to another. The

largest salaries go to those who are employed in education departments, a mean of $14,325.00 a year. Other mean salaries for departmental settings in education, for male master's degree recipients, in order, are Administrative Staff, $11,666.67; Student Counseling Center, $8,500.00; Psychology, $6,386.67; and Medicine, $5,000.00.

When gross income is considered, the income for men with terminal master's degrees is not substantially increased. The greatest amount of additional income is earned by men with master's degrees who are part of administrative staff, who gross $13,066.67 a year, an increase of $1,400.00 over their salaries. The one individual who works in a department of medicine earns an additional $1,300.00 a year over his main salary of $5,000.00 a year. Male master's degree recipients who work in departments of Psychology, Education, and Student Counseling Centers earn an additional income of between 0 and $1,000.00 a year.

Twelve women with master's degrees only are employed in different departmental settings in education. The five respondents who are employed in departments of psychology earn a mean salary of $14,100.20 a year. The four respondents who are employed in a department of education earn a mean salary of $6,537.50 a year; and the three respondents who are employed in student counseling centers earn a mean salary of $7,966.67 a year. Gross income is virtually the same as their salary for women employed in departments of psychology and education. However, for women master's degree recipients employed in student counseling centers, their mean gross income is $11,066.67, which is $3,100.00 greater than their mean salaries. For the Loyola sample, women with master's degrees earn substantially more than their male counterparts when employed in departments of psychology.

Overall, men with doctorates from Loyola earn more than women with doctorates from Loyola in the same departmental settings in education; the relationship is less clear for men with master's degrees as compared to women with master's degrees; but men and women with doctorates earn substantially more than men and women with master's degrees in the same departmental settings in education.

According to Boneau and Cuca (1974), the 1972 APA national survey of psychologists indicated that at that time, 63% of all doctoral level psychologists and 49% of all master's level psychologists were employed in educational settings. For the Loyola sample, 65 of the 156 doctoral respondents, or 42%, are employed in educational settings; while 24 of the 78 master's level respondents, or 31%, are employed in educational settings. Loyola graduates tend to be more frequently employed in applied clinical settings than the national sample. For both the Loyola group and the national sample, however, the educational level of the psychologist is highly correlated with the educational level at which he teaches. Doctoral men and women are employed predominantly in 4-year colleges, universities, and medical schools; whereas the master's level men and women, and particularly the women, are employed in two-year colleges and precollege settings.

For the national sample, local government is the primary employer of master's degree respondents who work in a school setting; while for the doctoral individuals the state government and independent non-profit institutions, both of which provide major support for universities, are significant employers.

Data on the status of women psychologists in academe was reported

by Bayer (1970), who took his information from a survey conducted by the Carnegie Commission on the Future of Higher Education in cooperation with the American Council on Education. The sample consisted of regular faculty in academic departments and professional schools from 303 United States' institutions. The distribution of men and women psychologists at the different types of institutions was as follows: universities, 84% men and 16% women; four-year colleges, 76.5% men and 23.5% women; two-year colleges, 87% men and 13% women. The report revealed that women psychologists tend to come from more affluent and more highly educated families and are somewhat older than their male counterparts. Women psychologists, however, are less likely than the men to have doctorates and more likely to have master's and (in the universities) bachelor's degrees.

Astin reports (1972) that the data on departmental affiliation show that less than half of the women, as compared to 72% of the men, employed by universities are affiliated with psychology departments. However, this is not the case with psychologists working at 4-year colleges and 2-year institutions. A related statistic is that 50% of the men in universities, as compared to only 34% of the women, hold regular tenured appointments. Among men and women at 4-year colleges, 41% and 38%, respectively, hold such appointments. The regular appointments without tenure are 48% and 63%, respectively, for men and women psychologists at universities, and 55% and 57% at four-year colleges. This greater tendency for women to be at the nontenured level in universities is especially surprising considering the fact that 34% of the women currently at universities, compared to only 31% of the men, have been with the same institution for seven years or more.

Women psychologists enjoy considerably less status than do men in terms of academic rank. Over half of the men are in the top two ranks (full and associate professor) in the universities, whereas only about a third of the women hold such ranks. Astin (1972) goes on to note that even greater differentials occur in the salaries received by men and women. For example, only 9% of the women employed by universities, as compared to 29% of the men, earn $17,000 or more per academic year. Moreover, whereas 30% of the women earn $10,000 or less, only 10% of the men earn such low salaries.

In spite of their lower pay, women psychologists spend more time in teaching than do men: 19% of the women at universities teach at least 11 hours per week, compared to only 7% of the men. There are only minor differences between the sexes with respect to the proportion of their time they spend in administrative activities.

Employment Setting and Area of Psychology in Which Highest Degree Was Received

Table 43 shows the job salary and Table 44 shows the gross income from all sources, for each of the specialty groups in psychology with which the respondents identify themselves, broken down by their employment setting. The reader is cautioned against a projected interpretation to psychologists in general, because of the small numbers involved. However, this breakdown does represent the Loyola population. Tables 39 and 40 have already indicated salaries and gross incomes by employment setting for respondents in both psychological and non-psychological positions. Tables 43 and 44 indicate how well financially respondents who have received degrees in different specialty areas of psychology do

within each of these employment settings.

Different specialty areas of psychology have differential relative salaries in each employment setting. This section considers doctoral-level psychologists employed in different settings. For doctorates, social psychologists are the best paid group in a hospital setting, followed by clinical psychologists, with the other specialty groups not being well represented. The specialty group most often employed in a hospital is the clinical psychologist. In clinics, doctoral-level counseling psychologists are best paid, followed by clinical psychologists. Again, clinical psychologists are the specialty group most frequently employed in clinics. As might be expected, clinical psychologists are most frequently represented in independent and group practice, and also earn the highest salaries.

In government agencies, clinical psychologists are most frequently employed and are the best paid group. Private or quasi-government agencies give the highest pay to experimental psychologists, then social-industrial psychologists, then clinical psychologists, although clinical psychologists are employed more frequently than any other specialty group. Military establishments also employ clinical psychologists most frequently, and pay them the highest salaries. For universities excluding medical schools, clinical psychologists are employed most frequently, followed by experimental psychologists and social psychologists. The highest salaries in this setting are given to clinical, social, and experimental psychologists, in that order. Four-year colleges employ clinical psychologists most frequently and then experimental psychologists, and pay them better salaries in that order. There are not enough different

Table 43

Salary From Main Current Position, Broken Down by Employment Setting, and Area in Which Highest Degree Was Received. For Respondents Whose Highest Degree is the MA or the PhD from Loyola.

	Doctorates			Master's		
Employment Setting; Area of Psychology Degree	N	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.
Total N Responding	156	19,572.78	7,536.29	78	12,538.73	9,309.18
Hospitals:	31	18,427.58	4,331.99	8	10,981.50	5,367.67
Clinical	26	18,963.65	4,294.97	4	10,963.00	6,263.13
Counseling	-	-	-	4	11,000.00	5,291.50
Experimental	2	12,750.00	3,889.09	-	-	-
Social	1	20,000.00	.00	-	-	-
Industrial-Social	1	17,700.00	.00	-	-	-
Experimental-Personality	1	15,000.00	.00	-	-	-
Clinics:	14	18,054.36	4,247.82	11	10,674.36	4,311.13
Clinical	12	17,781.00	4,408.41	4	5,412.00	502.98
Counseling	1	22,389.00	.00	6	13,961.67	1,243.71
Social	-	-	-	1	12,000.00	.00
Missing Data-Not Given	1	17,000.00	.00	-	-	-
Independent/Group Practice:	13	28,688.46	9,253.56	1	40,000.00	.00
Clinical	12	29,079.17	9,552.38	1	40,000.00	.00
Experimental	1	24,000.00	.00	-	-	-
Government Agency:	4	18,619.75	7,054.91	3	20,666.67	6,027.72
Clinical	3	20,159.67	7,773.64	-	-	-
Counseling	-	-	-	1	15,000.00	.00
Measurement	1	14,000.00	.00	-	-	-
Social	-	-	-	1	20,000.00	.00
Social-Industrial	-	-	-	1	27,000.00	.00

Table 43 (Continued)

Salary From Main Current Position, Broken Down by Employment Setting, and Area in Which Highest Degree Was Received. For Respondents Whose Highest Degree is the MA or the PhD from Loyola.

	Doctorates			Master's		
Employment Setting; Area of Psychology Degree	N	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.
Private or Quasi-Government Agency:	8	22,668.75	8,207.44	2	13,750.00	2,050.61
Clinical	4	23,600.00	3,839.27	1	15,200.00	.00
Counseling	-	-	-	1	12,300.00	.00
Experimental	2	27.725.00	10,288.40	-	-	-
Social-Industrial	1	25,000.00	.00	-	-	-
Physiological	1	6,500.00	.00	-	-	-
Research Establishment:	1	19,500.00	.00	-	-	-
Experimental	1	19,500.00	.00	-	-	-
Consulting Firm:	3	24,066.67	19,809.43	1	10,500.00	.00
Clinical	2	18,100.00	23,900.21	-	-	-
Counseling	-	-	-	1	10,500.00	.00
Experimental	1	36,000.00	.00	-	-	-
Business or Industry:	2	34,000.00	5,656.85	6	29,500.00	13,382.83
Clinical	2	34,000.00	5,656.85	5	32,200.00	13,007.69
Social	-	-	-	1	16,000.00	.00
Association or Society:	-	-	-	1	25,000.00	.00
Clinical	-	-	-	1	25,000.00	.00
Religious Institution:	3	6,206.00	2,477.69	17	5,717.65	4,428.83
Clinical	2	6,774.00	3,215.92	4	6,800.00	5,149.11
Counseling	-	-	-	11	5,896.36	4,561.38
Experimental	-	-	-	1	3,400.00	.00
Missing Data - Not Given	1	5,070.00	.00	-	-	-
Social	-	-	-	1	1,740.00	.00

Table 43 (Continued)

Salary From Main Current Position, Broken Down by Employment Setting, and Area in Which Highest Degree Was Received. For Respondents Whose Highest Degree is the MA or the PhD from Loyola.

	Doctorates			Master's		
Employment Setting; Area of Psychology Degree	N	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.
Military Service:	5	21,800.00	6,797.06	-	-	-
Clinical	4	23,250.00	6,898.07	-	-	-
Experimental	1	16,000.00	.00	-	-	-
Law Enforcement Agency:	-	-	-	1	20,000.00	.00
Clinical	-	-	-	1	20,000.00	.00
Judicial System:	4	21,798.00	8,949.16	-	-	-
Clinical	4	21,798.00	8,949.16	-	-	-
Correctional System:	2	22,300.00	989.95	3	14,646.67	5,538.46
Clinical	2	22,300.00	989.95	1	20,000.00	.00
Experimental	-	-	-	1	8,940.00	.00
Social	-	-	-	1	15,000.00	.00
Other Non-Educational	1	15,000.00	.00	-	-	-
Clinical	1	15,000.00	.00	-	-	-
Universities, Excluding Medical Schools	38	17,882.21	6,819.61	7	8,237.14	7,529.87
Clinical	15	19,158.33	9,456.52	4	7,975.00	5,905.01
Counseling	1	27,500.00	.00	2	2,380.00	1,951.62
Experimental	11	15,401.27	3,161.93	-	-	-
Social	4	17,923.75	3,579.08	-	-	-
General	1	14,900.00	.00	-	-	-
Social-Industrial	1	18,000.00	.00	-	-	-
Interdisciplinary	1	16,500.00	.00	-	-	-
Missing Data-Not Given	4	18,535.00	6,664.08	1	21,000.00	.00

Table 43 (Continued)

Salary From Main Current Position, Broken Down by Employment Setting, and Area in Which Highest Degree Was Received. For Respondents Whose Highest Degree is the MA or the PhD from Loyola.

	Doctorates			Master's		
Employment Setting; Area of Psychology Degree	N	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.
Medical Schools:	9	20,478.67	2,943.23	-	-	-
Clinical	8	20,288.50	3,086.77	-	-	-
Experimental	1	22,000.00	.00	-	-	-
Four-Year Colleges:	15	16,607.80	6,672.45	4	9,250.00	3,774.92
Clinical	8	17,395.88	8,385.55	3	11,000.00	1,732.05
Counseling	-	-	-	1	4,000.00	.00
Experimental	6	16,075.00	4,790.59	-	-	-
Social	1	13,500.00	.00	-	-	-
Two-Year Colleges:	1	25,000.00	.00	-	-	-
Clinical	1	25,000.00	.00	-	-	-
Regional School District:	2	14,250.00	5,303.30	8	16,750.13	5,858.37
Clinical	2	14,250.00	5,303.30	6	16,333.50	6,604.20
Social	-	-	-	1	21,000.00	.00
Industrial-Social	-	-	-	1	15,000.00	.00
Secondary Schools:	-	-	-	1	5,400.00	.00
Counseling	-	-	-	1	5,400.00	.00
Elementary Schools:	-	-	-	3	7,383.33	7,419.63
Clinical	-	-	-	1	15,950.00	.00
Counseling	-	-	-	2	3,100.00	141.42
Other Educational:	-	-	-	1	13,400.00	.00
Clinical	-	-	-	1	13,400.00	.00

Table 44

Gross Income, Broken Down by Employment Setting, and Area in Which Highest Degree Was Received.
For Respondents Whose Highest Degree is the MA or the PhD from Loyola.

	Doctorates			Master's		
Employment Setting; Area of Psychology Degree	N	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.
Total N Responding	156	23,411.05	12,644.27	78	13,600.72	9,896.96
Hospitals:	31	19,981.13	5,914.81	8	11,756.50	6,960.22
Clinical	26	20,746.73	5,991.60	4	12,513.00	9,138.45
Counseling	-	-	-	4	11,000.00	5,291.50
Experimental	2	13,650.00	5,161.88	-	-	-
Social	1	20,000.00	.00	-	-	-
Industrial-Social	1	17,700.00	.00	-	-	-
Experimental-Personality	1	15,000.00	.00	-	-	-
Clinics:	14	21,090.07	7,814.14	11	12,288.00	6,598.83
Clinical	12	21,314.33	8,391.01	4	5,812.00	1,154.32
Counseling	1	22,489.00	.00	6	16,653.33	5,463.96
Social	-	-	-	1	12,000.00	.00
Missing Data-Not Given	1	17,000.00	.00	-	-	-
Independent/Group Practice:	13	33,843.08	9,873.89	1	40,000.00	.00
Clinical	12	34,300.83	10,167.85	1	40,000.00	.00
Experimental	1	28,350.00	.00	-	-	-
Government Agency:	4	23,909.75	12,327.06	3	20,666.67	6,027.72
Clinical	3	27,213.00	12,746.20	-	-	-
Counseling	-	-	-	1	15,000.00	.00
Measurement	1	14,000.00	.00	-	-	-
Social	-	-	-	1	20,000.00	.00
Social-Industrial	-	-	-	1	27,000.00	.00

Table 44 (Continued)

Gross Income, Broken Down by Employment Setting, and Area in Which Highest Degree Was Received. For Respondents Whose Highest Degree is the MA or the PhD from Loyola.

Employment Setting; Area of Psychology Degree	Doctorates			Master's		
	N	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.
Private or Quasi-Government Agency:	8	26,851.25	9,699.36	2	13,750.00	2,050.61
Clinical	4	30,550.00	3,928.10	1	15,200.00	.00
Counseling	-	-	-	1	12,300.00	.00
Experimental	2	28,605.00	11,532.91	-	-	-
Social-Industrial	1	28,900.00	.00	-	-	-
Physiological	1	6,500.00	.00	-	-	-
Research Establishment:	1	22,400.00	.00	-	-	-
Experimental	1	22,400.00	.00	-	-	-
Consulting Firm:	3	33,560.00	27,740.60	1	12,100.00	.00
Clinical	2	32,340.00	39,117.15	-	-	-
Counseling	-	-	-	1	12,100.00	.00
Experimental	1	36,000.00	.00	-	-	-
Business or Industry:	2	44,000.00	8,485.28	6	30,333.33	12,816.66
Clinical	2	44,000.00	8,485.28	5	33,200.00	11,987.49
Social	-	-	-	1	16,000.00	.00
Association or Society:	-	-	-	1	25,000.00	.00
Clinical	-	-	-	1	25,000.00	.00
Religious Institution:	3	6,206.00	2,477.69	17	6,285.88	4,405.82
Clinical	2	6,774.00	3,215.92	4	7,700.00	4,774.24
Counseling	-	-	-	11	6,447.27	4,526.83
Experimental	-	-	-	1	3,400.00	.00
Missing Data-Not Given	1	5,070.00	.00	-	-	-
Social	-	-	-	1	1,740.00	.00

Table 44 (Continued)

Gross Income, Broken Down by Employment Setting, and Area in Which Highest Degree Was Received. For Respondents Whose Highest Degree is the MA or the PhD from Loyola.

Employment Setting; Area of Psychology Degree	Doctorates			Master's		
	N	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.
Military Service:	5	22,100.00	7,003.57	-	-	-
Clinical	4	23,625.00	7,063.70	-	-	-
Experimental	1	16,000.00	.00	-	-	-
Law Enforcement Agency:	-	-	-	1	20,000.00	.00
Clinical	-	-	-	1	20,000.00	.00
Judicial System:	4	28,453.00	11,361.25	-	-	-
Clinical	4	28,453.00	11,361.25	-	-	-
Correctional System:	2	22,300.00	989.95	3	14,646.67	5,538.46
Clinical	2	22,300.00	989.95	1	20,000.00	.00
Experimental	-	-	-	1	8,940.00	.00
Social	-	-	-	1	15,000.00	.00
Other Non-Educational	1	16,328.00	.00	-	-	-
Clinical	1	16,328.00	.00	-	-	-
Universities, Excluding Medical Schools	38	23,312.79	17,923.06	7	11,926.43	13,718.04
Clinical	15	27,028.47	25,713.62	4	8,831.25	5,564.07
Counseling	1	30,880.00	.00	2	3,580.00	3,648.67
Experimental	11	17,690.36	5,783.21	-	-	-
Social	4	18,448.75	4,496.78	-	-	-
General	1	14,900.00	.00	-	-	-
Social-Industrial	1	54,000.00	.00	-	-	-
Interdisciplinary	1	18,900.00	.00	-	-	-
Missing Data-Not Given	4	23,347.50	12,848.79	1	41,000.00	.00

Table 44 (Continued)

Gross Income, Broken Down by Employment Setting, and Area in Which Highest Degree Was Received. For Respondents Whose Highest Degree is the MA or the PhD from Loyola.

Employment Setting; Area of Psychology Degree	Doctorates			Master's		
	N	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.
Medical Schools:	9	26,123.11	12,493.85	-	-	-
Clinical	8	26,638.50	13,253.82	-	-	-
Experimental	1	22,000.00	.00	-	-	-
Four-Year Colleges:	15	18,326.47	5,857.65	4	10,300.00	4,556.31
Clinical	8	20,205.88	6,596.73	3	12,400.00	2,163.33
Counseling	-	-	-	1	4,000.00	.00
Experimental	6	16,075.00	4,790.59	-	-	-
Social	1	16,800.00	.00	-	-	-
Two-Year Colleges:	1	37,000.00	.00	-	-	-
Clinical	1	37,000.00	.00	-	-	-
Regional School District:	2	19,605.00	1,845.55	8	17,205.13	6,011.03
Clinical	2	19,605.00	1,845.55	6	16,940.17	6,829.97
Social	-	-	-	1	21,000.00	.00
Industrial-Social	-	-	-	1	15,000.00	.00
Secondary Schools:	-	-	-	1	13,200.00	.00
Counseling	-	-	-	1	13,200.00	.00
Elementary Schools:	-	-	-	3	7,383.33	7,419.63
Clinical	-	-	-	1	15,950.00	.00
Counseling	-	-	-	2	3,100.00	141.42
Other Educational:	-	-	-	1	14,560.00	.00
Clinical	-	-	-	1	14,560.00	.00

types of doctoral specialty groups for the remaining employment settings to make meaningful comparisons.

Analysis of the data from the limited Loyola sample indicates that in general, for the majority of employment settings in which comparisons can be made, clinical psychology doctorates are employed most frequently and earn the highest salaries.

Garfield and Kurtz (1976) sent out a questionnaire to determine the current activities and views of a sample of clinical psychologists. Among the many variables studied, they found a relative decline in the percentage employed in medical settings, an increase in those working in universities, and a modest increase in the percentage engaged in private practice. The majority of Garfield and Kurtz's sample viewed themselves primarily as clinical practitioners, and a majority labeled themselves as eclectics. The percentage adhering to psychodynamic views appears to have declined.

At the master's level, the employment and salary picture is somewhat changed for the different specialty groups in psychology. In a hospital setting at the master's level, clinical and counseling psychologists are employed with equal frequency, and counseling psychology respondents are paid slightly better. In clinics, counseling psychologists are employed most frequently and paid the best; next most frequently employed are clinical psychologists and last, social psychologists. However, social psychologists are next best paid and clinical psychologists are paid most poorly in the clinic setting.

In government agencies, master's level social-industrial, social, and counseling psychologists are employed with equal frequency, and given the highest pay in the order in which they are named. Private or

quasi-government agencies were represented one each by clinical and counseling psychologists, and paid in that order. In business or industry, clinical psychologists are most frequently represented, and the mean salary was encouragingly high for a master's level psychologist: $32,000.00 a year. Religious institutions most frequently employed counseling psychologists, followed by clinical psychologists, although the salary for the clinical psychologist is higher. Correctional systems employ with equal frequency clinical, social, and experimental psychologists and give them higher pay in that order. Universities excluding medical schools employ clinical psychologists most frequently, followed by counseling psychologists and give the clinicians a higher salary. Four-year colleges also employ clinicians more frequently than counseling psychologists, and pay the clinicians better. Regional school districts employed clinicians most frequently, then social and industrial-social psychologists, but paid the social psychologists the best, then the clinical psychologists, then the industrial-social psychologists. Elementary schools employed one master's level clinical psychologist and two counseling psychologists, but gave the clinical psychologist higher pay. Not enough different types of master's-level specialty groups were employed in the remaining employment settings to make meaningful comparisons.

Analysis of the data from the master's level sample indicates that the clinical psychology MA commands the highest pay across the majority of settings in which the respondents were employed.

Dimond et al.'s (1977) study assessed the employment characteristics of subdoctoral clinical psychologists, and ascertained their demand and position in psychology's manpower force. Data analysis of their

questionnaire revealed that MA psychologists are frequently employed by mental health agencies and perform professional functions of direct service and psychological testing, among other duties. In addition, about one-third of the agencies surveyed currently had positions open for subdoctoral professionals, that a greater percentage anticipated openings in the near future, and that this situation was projected to remain stable, or to improve, in the coming years. These data suggest that MA psychologists are an employable and much-used manpower group. Wildman, Wildman and Elliott (1972) also found that there is a trend towards increased utilization of subdoctoral personnel in clinical agencies, especially in the South and Midwest.

Albee (1977), on the other hand, argues against continuing terminal MA training in clinical psychology. Among his arguments are that the terminal MA provides insufficient time for both learning and apprenticeship training; that MA people tend to move towards independent practice, which results in a weakening of psychology's professional credibility vis-a-vis psychiatry; and that given what he views as an impending shortage of jobs in psychology, MA-level jobs will become increasingly hard to find.

Autor and Zide (1974) make a case for the necessity of training master's level psychologists to fill the manpower shortage of clinically trained and competent personnel, for work in applied settings. They propose a two-year master's level professional training program, consisting of both university-based academic work, and extensive clinical-community field experience. This type of program would have as its primary goal the development of master's-level clinical competence for community practice, with trainees being taught diagnostic and therapy techniques

and preventive interventions.

Bayer (1970) found some interesting differences between the fields of specialization of men and women psychologists. More women specialize in clinical and counseling or guidance psychology, whereas more of the men are in general psychology and experimental psychology. These data are similar to those reported from the survey of the scientific personnel of the National Science Foundation (Cates, 1970). This survey reported that 33% of women doctorates and 30% of men doctorates are specializing in clinical psychology, whereas 15% of the men and only 8% of the women are in experimental psychology.

Boneau and Cuca (1974), when looking at the 1972 APA survey, found that a much higher percentage of master's level members are in the applied subfields, engineering through school psychology, than are doctoral members (90% versus 61%). Also for the APA group, doctorate men resemble doctorate women in their choice of subfields with the exception of developmental and industrial/organizational where major differences exist. Ten percent of women doctorates are in developmental psychology as opposed to 3.5% of male doctorates; conversely, 7% of male doctorates are in industrial and organizational psychology, while only 1% of women doctorates are in this area. Similarly, men and women at the master's level are alike except for a relative preponderance of master's men in industrial/organizational psychology and master's women in school psychology.

It is difficult to make meaningful comparisons of the Loyola data with this national sample, since the range of subfields is not as great for the Loyola sample as for the national sample; and also because the Loyola program is structured to give a large proportion of the total number of degrees to religious men and women who enter the master's program

in counseling psychology. However, Boneau and Cuca's (1974) data on salary ranges for psychologists in different subfields will be presented.

Men doctorates for this nationwide sample earned the highest median salaries in the subfields of engineering, and industrial and organizational psychology ($23,700). Lowest median salaries were earned in the subfields of developmental ($18,900 a year) and counseling ($18,500 a year). Experimental psychologists earned a median of $19,000 a year; social, $19,300; and clinical, $20,000 a year.

Female doctorates earned the highest median salaries in the subfield of school psychology ($20,500 a year), and next highest in industrial and organizational psychology ($19,600 a year). Lowest median salaries were in counseling ($16,500) and experimental ($16,600). Social psychologists earned a median of $16,800 a year; and clinical psychologists earned a median of $17,500 a year.

Male master's recipients, like male doctorates, earned the highest median salaries in the subfields of engineering ($20,600 a year) and industrial and organizational psychology ($20,000 a year). Lowest median salaries were in comparative/animal ($13,800 a year) and general psychology ($13,800 a year). Experimental psychologists earned $15,500 a year; social, $16,000; clinical, $15,000; and counseling, $16,000 a year.

Women master's recipients, again like women doctorates, earned the highest median salary in the subfield of school psychology ($18,000 a year), and next highest in industrial and organizational, and social psychology (each $16,800 a year). Lowest salaries were earned in psychometrics ($10,400) and experimental psychology ($12,600). Clinical psychologists and counseling psychologists earned a median of $13,400 a year.

Sorenson (1972) reviews salaries for industrial and organizational psychologists, as distinct from primarily academic psychologists. In 1970, the highest median primary income for industrial psychologists -- $27,000 -- was for those in private practice, followed closely ($26,500) by those employed in manufacturing firms. The industrial psychologist with the lowest median primary income ($19,500) was, not surprisingly, the university professor. Industrial psychologists changing jobs in 1970 experienced, on the average, income decreases, a noteworthy phenomenon since one generally changes jobs for more rather than for less money, and lends credibility to the hypothesis that the demand for psychologists is decreasing while the supply is increasing. Other conclusions Sorenson (1972) draws are that the PhD commanded a higher salary than the MA; each membership status level within Division 14 of the American Psychological Association (Industrial and Organizational) was associated with a higher income at all points of the income distribution; and income increases with age up until about age 40, after which it plateaus. In a somewhat parallel fashion, income increases with the number of years since receipt of the doctorate, after which a plateauing effect appears. Males earned substantially more, overall, than females. And, in terms of major work activities, managerial tasks and consultative roles obviously provided greater remuneration. Nearly half of all industrial and organizational psychologists augmented their primary income by earning supplementary income, the most common forms being consulting, followed by teaching.

Major Psychological Area of Work

Respondents were asked to identify their major psychological area

of work. On the basis of this information, Tables 45 and 46 were constructed. Table 45 identified the salary from the respondents' main current position, broken down by sex, and major psychological area of work. Table 46 gives gross incomes for the same data.

The largest percentage of male doctoral recipients, 39%, identify clinical psychology as their major psychological area of work. The next largest group, 31 of the 127 male doctoral respondents, or 24%, identify teaching as their major area of work. This is followed by administration (11%); research (9%); and private practice (5%),with smaller numbers in other major psychological areas of work.

On the basis of the data in Table 45, it would seem that the field of consulting psychology is the best paid for male doctorates, followed by private practice, industry and business, administration, and neuropsychology. Teaching, research, clinical, school, and counseling psychology are paid relatively poorly; with teaching, counseling, and rehabilitation psychology being at the bottom of the pay scale. Extreme salaries are most prevalent in industry and business, counseling, and private practice. Notable is the fact that clinical psychology is a relatively poorly paying field, despite the fact that a large percentage of the graduates are employed in this area (39%).

The largest percentage of female doctoral recipients, 13 out of 29, or 45%, identify clinical psychology as their major psychological area of work. The next largest group, 8 out of 29 respondents or 28%, consider teaching to be their major area of work. Fewer female doctoral respondents identify research (10%), administration (7%), and counseling (7%) as their major psychological area of work.

Table 45

Salary From Main Current Position, Broken Down by Sex, and Major Psychological Area of Work.
For Respondents Whose Highest Degree is the MA or the PhD from Loyola.

	Doctorates			Master's		
Major Psychological Area of Work	N	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.
Total N Responding	156	19,572.78	7,536.29	78	12,538.73	9,309.18
Sex - Male	127	20,081.51	7,985.63	53	13,828.87	10,279.75
Clinical	50	19,690.90	5,842.72	13	11,657.39	5,030.51
Vocational & Educational Guidance	-	-	-	2	10,450.00	9,121.68
Teaching	31	16,908.48	7,664.89	5	7,152.00	5,009.54
Research	11	18,233.82	5,961.38	4	18,985.00	9,223.21
Industry and Business	2	25,000.00	18,384.78	2	27,500.00	17,677.67
Administration	14	22,118.00	7,014.46	10	14,062.40	8,304.81
Private Practice	6	30,991.67	11,738.84	-	-	-
Counseling	2	16,285.00	15,860.41	10	7,786.00	5,882.19
School Psychology	1	18,000.00	.00	1	13,400.00	.00
Consulting	4	31,500.00	5,066.23	-	-	-
Neuropsychology	1	21,000.00	.00	-	-	-
Rehabilitation Psychology	1	15,400.00	.00	-	-	-
Not Relevant	4	20,625.00	12,815.19	6	26,983.33	16,227.19
Sex - Female	29	17,344.90	4,596.08	25	9,803.64	6,132.71
Clinical	13	17,138.46	4,337.11	6	8,200.00	4,596.96
Vocational & Educational Guidance	-	-	-	2	9,000.00	8,485.28
Teaching	8	15,562.75	2,125.63	-	-	-
Research	3	15,000.00	1,500.00	3	12,000.00	8,000.00
Administration	2	24,600.00	10,748.02	-	-	-
Counseling	2	18,250.00	2,474.87	9	7,382.22	4,851.32
School Psychology	-	-	-	2	18,150.50	212.85
Not Relevant	1	25,000.00	.00	3	13,050.00	8,767.41

Table 46

Gross Income, Broken Down by Sex, and Major Psychological Area of Work.
For Respondents Whose Highest Degree is the MA or the PhD from Loyola.

	Doctorates			Master's		
Major Psychological Area of Work	N	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.
Total N Responding	156	23,411.05	12,644.27	78	13,600.72	9,896.96
Sex - Male	127	24,485.15	13,591.98	53	14,975.28	10,833.70
Clinical	50	24,369.50	10,038.98	13	12,357.39	5,876.45
Vocational & Educational Guidance	-	-	-	2	12,270.00	11,695.55
Teaching	31	21,934.36	19,225.16	5	7,632.00	4,709.26
Research	11	19,015.64	6,758.95	4	18,985.00	9,223.21
Industry and Business	2	25,780.00	17,281.69	2	27,500.00	17,677.67
Administration	14	24,595.14	7,565.38	10	15,042.40	8,126.35
Private Practice	6	36,791.67	11,288.78	-	-	-
Counseling	2	17,975.00	18,250.43	10	8,392.00	5,627.57
School Psychology	1	20,910.00	.00	1	14,560.00	.00
Consulting	4	42,375.00	12,658.17	-	-	-
Neuropsychology	1	21,000.00	.00	-	-	-
Rehabilitation Psychology	1	17,740.00	.00	-	-	-
Not Relevant	4	30,065.00	20,792.07	6	31,750.00	15,118.70
Sex - Female	29	18,707.24	5,054.69	25	10,686.64	6,851.13
Clinical	13	17,532.92	4,277.69	6	11,629.17	8,320.07
Vocational & Educational Guidance	-	-	-	2	9,000.00	8,485.28
Teaching	8	19,560.25	5,346.01	-	-	-
Research	3	15,800.00	2,787.47	3	12,000.00	8,000.00
Administration	2	24,600.00	10,748.02	-	-	-
Counseling	2	18,250.00	2,474.87	9	7,548.89	4,919.81
School Psychology	-	-	-	2	18,150.50	212.85
Not Relevant	1	25,000.00	.00	3	13,050.00	8,767.41

Administration is the best paid field for female doctoral recipients, at a mean salary of $24,600.00 a year, followed by counseling ($18,250.00 a year); and clinical ($17,138.46 a year). Teaching ($15,562.75 a year) and research ($15,000.00 a year) are relatively poorly paid fields. Extreme salaries are most prevalent in administration and clinical psychology. Clinical psychology pays only moderately well for female doctoral recipients, despite the fact that nearly half of all female doctorates are employed in this field.

Twenty-five percent of male master's degree recipients identify clinical psychology as their major psychological area of work. Nineteen percent each identify administration and counseling as their major area of work. These are followed by teaching (9%); research (7%); vocational and educational guidance (4%); industry and business (4%); and school psychology (2%).

The area of industry and business is the best paid for men with a terminal master's degree, at an average of $27,500.00 per year. Next most highly paid is research, with a mean salary of $18,985.00 per year. Next is administration ($14,062.40 per year) and school psychology ($13,400.00 per year). Relatively poorly paid are the areas of clinical psychology ($11,657.39 per year); vocational and educational guidance ($10,450.00 per year); counseling ($7,786.00 per year); and teaching ($7,152.00 per year). Extreme salaries tend to occur in the areas of industry and business, research, vocational and educational guidance, and administration, in that order. As was the case with the groups previously discussed, although clinical psychology is the area of work that employs the greatest percentage of men with master's degrees in

psychology, it is an area that is relatively poorly payed, as compared to other areas of psychology that the Loyola sample of men with MA's are employed in.

More women with master's degrees identify counseling as their major psychological area of work than any other area. Thirty-six percent (9 out of 25 respondents) say that counseling is their major area of work. This is followed by clinical psychology (24%); research (12%); vocational and educational guidance (8%); and school psychology (8%).

School psychology is the best paying psychological area of work for women with a terminal master's degree, at a mean salary of $18,150.50 per year. Next is research, at a mean salary of $12,000.00 a year. The other major area of work pays poorly. Vocational and educational guidance pays a mean of $9,000.00 per year; clinical psychology, $8,200.00 per year; and counseling $7,382.22 per year. The area of work that women with terminal master's degrees most frequently enter into, counseling psychology, pays them the poorest.

According to the 1968 survey of the American Psychological Association (1968), 24% of psychologists said teaching was their primary work activity, followed by 20% who listed management or administration as their primary work activity. The proportions of psychologists who indicated that they engaged in other areas of work as their primary activity are as follows: clinical practice, 19%; basic research, 9%; psychometrics, 9%; counseling practice, 6%; applied research, 5%; industrial or management consulting, 2%; clinical research, 2%; and other, 4%.

By the time of the 1972 APA study (Boneau and Cuca, 1974), these proportions underwent a change. According to this study, psychologists

spend the largest proportion of their effort in application and practice (39.1% of all respondents identified this as their major work activity); and the least proportion of their effort in research (17.4%). Twenty-four percent and nineteen percent respectively identified teaching and management/administration as their major area of work.

The Loyola group spends an even larger amount of time in application and practice, with 120 out of 234 respondents, or 51%, identifying clinical, vocational and educational guidance, private practice, counseling, school psychology, neuropsychology, or rehabilitation psychology as their major psychological area of work. The trend clearly appears to be in the direction of greater and greater proportions of psychologists being engaged in application and practice, as their major psychological area of work, with the trend being away from teaching as the major area of work.

Virginia Schein (1971) examines the status of women in the field of industrial psychology, a field that is very largely the exclusive terrain of men. Schein made a count of the number of women who are members of APA's Division of Industrial and Organizational Psychology, and found the woman industrial psychologist to be a rarity -- about 4% of all industrial psychologists. The major difference between men and women industrial psychologists are as follows: a greater percentage of men than women hold jobs in industry, whereas more women than men are employed by hospital or the government; and women earn much less than men. According to Sorenson (1970), the average 1969 income for men was $25,523, whereas the average income for women was $15,348. Thus, despite her limited representation, the woman industrial psychologist is not very different from her male counterpart, except that she is less often found

working in industry, and in 1969 her average income was $10,175 less than that of her male counterpart.

However, the impact of the woman industrial psychologist is slight on the professional level. An average of 4% of the articles published in journals of professional psychology were written by women (Schein, 1971); however, this does not mean that the woman is less productive than her male counterpart, since the percentage of women publishing articles is about the same as the percentage of women industrial psychologists. In reviewing the journal articles, only around 2% dealt with topics pertaining to women or sex differences; and of these articles, very few addressed themselves to psychological problems of women in the work force. Not only is the status of the woman industrial psychologist negligible, but the topic of women in the work force does not seem to be of particular interest to either the male or female industrial psychologist. There seems to be no question that the field of industrial psychology is considered a male profession. Schein (1971) notes that some of the reasons for the sex-typing of industrial psychology as a male profession include social expectations that women should not lead men; that women can only properly study other women; and that since the male is traditionally thought of as the breadwinner (even though today women make up about 40% of the labor force), a male would be better able to study the male labor force (Koontz, 1971). Schein (1971) suggests that the status of the woman industrial psychologist will improve if these myths are exploded through careful and well-publicized research.

Peck reports (1971) that a Panel on Fee Schedules was established by the American Psychological Association Board of Professional Affairs

in April 1967 to conduct a national study of the fee practices of psychologists. The population was all psychologists listed on state rosters as being licensed or certified in that state; from which a one-third sample of 2,651 was utilized. Of this sample, 1,515 persons responded (a response rate of 57%).

Thirty-seven per cent of the respondents reported on present fee-for-service activity, which is interesting in that it indicates there are a substantial number of psychologists who have obtained state credentials who do not report independent professional activity for which certification and licensing were primarily designed. All results reported hereafter refer to the responses of the remaining 63%. Seventy-six per cent of the respondents held PhDs, 6% EdD's and 14% MA's; the modal level of years since the highest degree was 11-15 years.

Forty-four per cent of the respondents engaged in solo practice; 18% engaged in solo with consultation; and smaller percentages engaged in various types of group work. These psychologists averaged 10 hours per week of fee-for-service activity; only 9% report full-time fee-for-service activity. The primary type of assessment that is performed is intellectual evaluation and personality evaluation; the mode of the reported average length of time for a battery of psychological tests and written reports was indicated to be "more than five hours." Fees appear to be based primarily on professional time required to render the service. Individual psychotherapy or counseling sessions are typically 50 minutes and fees per session average $20-$25, the higher fees being more typical in population centers over one-half million. Group psychotherapy sessions typically last 90 minutes, average 6-7 persons in a group, and fees

typically are at a rate of $8-$9 per person per session.

Income and Professional Experience

Tables 47 and 48 show that male doctoral respondents had a median of 6 years of experience post-PhD; female doctoral respondents had a median of 4.5 years of experience post PhD. Male master's degree respondents had a median of 4 years of experience post master's degree; and female master's degree respondents had a median of 5 years of experience post master's degree. The actual range of experience for all respondents extended from a low of a few months for both MA's and PhD's to as much as 27 years of experience post-PhD and 29 years of experience post-MA.

Examination of Table 47 indicates that salary tends to increase for male doctorates from Loyola until about 10 years post-PhD, when the mean salary is $27,466.67. After that time, the mean salary begins to decline slightly. Gross income (Table 48) for male PhD's also tends to peak at 10 years post -PhD, then also tends to decline slightly. From this data, it appears that for the Loyola male PhD sample, the period of time that is 6 to 10 years post-PhD is generally the most productive in terms of income. However, years of experience is by no means the sole factor in determining income. As the standard deviations of income by years of experience indicates, there is a wide variability of incomes at each number of years of experience post-PhD. Many of the more recent graduates are starting out at an income level exceeding that of older graduates with far more years of experience behind them.

Salary for female doctorates is more variable across number of years of experience than it is for male doctorates from the Loyola sample.

Table 47

Salary From Main Current Position, Broken Down by Sex, and Years of Experience Since Granting of Highest Degree. For Respondents Whose Highest Degree is the MA or the PhD from Loyola University.

Years of Experience	Doctorates			Master's		
	N	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.
Total N	156	19,572.78	7,536.29	78	12,538.73	9,309.18
Sex - Male	127	20,081.51	7,985.63	53	13,828.87	10,279.75
0	10	12,709.80	4,575.62	8	8,691.75	3,610.96
1	10	13,170.00	5,873.93	8	8,985.50	4,697.00
2	7	15,306.71	6,950.29	7	9,685.71	6,388.12
3	7	17,100.00	7,168.45	4	10,465.00	5,430.61
4	18	17,911.00	6,919.08	1	18,000.00	.00
5	8	19,979.88	4,815.70	1	15,200.00	.00
6	8	23,497.13	7,334.94	4	14,800.00	17,518.75
7	14	25,412.64	9,179.94	4	8,750.00	8,381.53
8	2	22,900.00	7,778.18	-	-	-
9	4	27,217.50	6,003.60	2	25,500.00	7,778.18
10	6	27.466.67	11,458.91	-	-	-
11	4	25,369.75	9,497.34	1	20,000.00	.00
12	4	21,250.00	8,539.13	1	21,000.00	.00
13	6	20,229.17	5,111.86	1	3,900.00	.00
14	-	-	-	-	-	-
15	4	24,011.50	4,532.61	1	25,000.00	.00
16	3	24,050.00	2,589.89	1	16,000.00	.00
17	3	22,000.00	4,000.00	1	24,000.00	.00
18	4	22,930.00	5,977.15	1	19,352.00	.00
19	-	-	-	1	16,900.00	.00
20	-	-	-	1	40,000.00	.00
21	3	17,825.33	6,074.73	-	-	-
22	1	22,000.00	.00	2	35,500.00	20,506.10
23	-	-	-	-	-	-
24	-	-	-	1	27,000.00	.00
25	1	10,000.00	.00	1	14,500.00	.00
26	-	-	-	-	-	-
27	-	-	-	1	4,800.00	.00

Table 47 (Continued)

Salary From Main Current Position, Broken Down by Sex, and Years of Experience Since Granting of Highest Degree. For Respondents Whose Highest Degree is the MA or the PhD from Loyola University.

Years of Experience	Doctorates			Master's		
	N	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.
Total N	156	19,572.78	7,536.29	78	12,538.73	9,309.18
Sex - Female	29	17,344.90	4,596.08	25	9,803.64	6,132.71
0	6	15,592.00	2,936.21	3	6,266.67	5,852.64
1	3	18,333.33	2,309.40	3	7,800.00	3,649.66
2	2	17,500.00	3,535.53	3	6,813.33	6,769.53
3	2	13,075.00	459.62	1	8,000.00	.00
4	1	21,000.00	.00	-	-	-
5	2	16,000.00	707.12	-	-	-
6	3	16,350.67	2,426.54	-	-	-
7	-	-	-	4	11,675.00	5,861.39
8	-	-	-	2	8,250.00	4,879.04
9	3	17,166.67	611.02	-	-	-
10	2	14,250.00	1,060.66	-	-	-
11	-	-	-	-	-	-
12	-	-	-	1	20,000.00	.00
13	-	-	-	2	17,550.50	1,061.37
14	-	-	-	-	-	-
15	1	25,000.00	.00	-	-	-
16	-	-	-	-	-	-
17	-	-	-	1	20,000.00	.00
18	-	-	-	-	-	-
19	1	9,048.00	.00	-	-	-
20	-	-	-	1	4,000.00	.00
21	2	26,100.00	8,626.70	-	-	-
22	-	-	-	2	6,500.00	4,949.75
23	-	-	-	-	-	-
24	-	-	-	1	15,950.00	.00
25	-	-	-	-	-	-
26	-	-	-	-	-	-
27	1	25,000.00	.00	-	-	-
28	-	-	-	-	-	-
29	-	-	-	1	3,200.00	.00

Table 48

Gross Income, Broken Down by Sex, and Years of Experience Since Granting of Highest Degree. For Respondents Whose Highest Degree is the MA or the PhD from Loyola University.

Years of Experience	Doctorates			Master's		
	N	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.
Total N	156	23,411.05	12,644.27	78	13,600.72	9,896.96
Sex - Male	127	24,485.15	13,591.98	53	14,975.28	10,833.70
0	10	13,849.80	5,138.82	8	8,929.25	3,330.45
1	10	14,072.00	6,918.55	8	9,685.50	4,326.66
2	7	18,221.00	6,126.90	7	10,257.14	7,083.75
3	7	21,384.29	10,195.97	4	11,830.00	3,329.00
4	18	21,512.11	8,496.46	1	18,000.00	.00
5	8	20,729.88	5,815.94	1	15,200.00	.00
6	8	33,128.63	11,550.43	4	15,090.00	17,497.44
7	14	35,726.93	19,595.93	4	9,800.00	8,840.81
8	2	23,400.00	7,071.07	-	-	-
9	4	28,502.50	6,960.62	2	25,500.00	7,778.18
10	6	43,926.67	27,027.46	-	-	-
11	4	27,199.75	10,266.87	1	25,000.00	.00
12	4	22,337.50	9,253.23	1	21,000.00	.00
13	6	21,895.83	9,048.82	1	7,500.00	.00
14	-	-	-	-	-	-
15	4	29,011.50	14,155.96	1	25,000.00	.00
16	3	26,383.33	6,609.91	1	16,000.00	.00
17	3	22,000.00	4,000.00	1	24,000.00	.00
18	4	32,742.50	11,941.74	1	25,552.00	.00
19	-	-	-	1	20,540.00	.00
20	-	-	-	1	40,000.00	.00
21	3	18,945.33	6,332.77	-	-	-
22	1	22,000.00	.00	2	45,500.00	6,363.96
23	-	-	-	-	-	-
24	-	-	-	1	27,000.00	.00
25	1	10,000.00	.00	1	14,500.00	.00
26	-	-	-	-	-	-
27	-	-	-	1	4,800.00	.00

Table 48 (Continued)

Gross Income, Broken Down by Sex, and Years of Experience Since Granting of Highest Degree. For Respondents Whose Highest Degree is the MA or the PhD from Loyola University.

Years of Experience	Doctorates			Master's		
	N	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.
Sex - Female	29	18,707.24	5,054.69	25	10,686.64	6,851.13
0	6	16,146.67	3,165.19	3	6,475.00	5,653.93
1	3	18,333.33	2,309.40	3	10,400.00	3,857.46
2	2	17,500.00	3,535.53	3	10,863.33	13,726.87
3	2	23,215.00	3,768.88	1	8,000.00	.00
4	1	21,000.00	.00	-	-	-
5	2	18,100.00	1,131.37	-	-	-
6	3	16,350.67	2,426.54	-	-	-
7	-	-	-	4	12,050.00	5,634.12
8	-	-	-	2	8,250.00	4,879.04
9	3	21,066.67	6,896.62	-	-	-
10	2	14,250.00	1,060.66	-	-	-
11	-	-	-	-	-	-
12	-	-	-	1	20,000.00	.00
13	-	-	-	2	17,550.50	1,061.37
14	-	-	-	-	-	-
15	1	25,000.00	.00	-	-	-
16	-	-	-	-	-	-
17	-	-	-	1	20,000.00	.00
18	-	-	-	-	-	-
19	1	9,048.00	.00	-	-	-
20	-	-	-	1	4,000.00	.00
21	2	26,100.00	8,626.70	-	-	-
22	-	-	-	2	6,500.00	4,949.75
23	-	-	-	-	-	-
24	-	-	-	1	15,950.00	.00
25	-	-	-	-	-	-
26	-	-	-	-	-	-
27	1	25,000.00	.00	-	-	-
28	-	-	-	-	-	-
29	-	-	-	1	3,200.00	.00

One of the reasons for this is probably the fact that data is available from a far smaller number of female doctorates (29 responses) than from male doctorates (127 responses). However, four of the female doctorates who were employed for 15 years or more are earning the highest salaries and gross incomes. The female doctorates who have been employed for 21 years are earning a mean salary of $26,100.00 a year; and the female doctorates who have been employed respectively for 15 and 27 years are each earning $25,000.00 a year. Except in one case, women doctorates with less than 10 years of experience are not earning mean salaries in excess of $20,000.00 a year, while male doctorates with more than 5 years of post-PhD experience are almost uniformly earning more than $20,000.00 a year. Gross incomes for women doctorates, when considered by number of years of experience, does not generally tend to be much greater than mean salaries. Much less variability of income at each number of years of experience post-PhD exists for women PhD's than for men PhD's, as indicated by the data for the standard deviations of incomes.

Salaries for men with master's degrees very generally tend to increase with the number of years of experience post-MA; however, a great deal of variability exists. Data was given by 53 male master's-level respondents. The highest income ($40,000.00 a year) was earned at 20 years post-MA; the next highest mean income ($35,500.00 a year) was earned at 22 years post-MA; next ($27,000.00 a year) at 24 years post-MA; next ($25,500.00) at 9 years post-MA; next ($25,000.00 a year) at 15 years post-MA. Men with master's degrees do not tend to have salaries or gross incomes in excess of $20,000.00 a year until 9 years post-MA. Gross income generally parallels salaries for this group. Some of the

variability of incomes for men with master's degrees is due to the fact that some of these respondents are clergy who have master's degrees in counseling psychology and are subsequently employed by religious organizations, which pay clergy less than other organizations pay their MA-level employees.

Data was available for only 25 women with terminal master's degrees. No clear relationship exists between number of years of experience post-master's degree for women and their salaries. However, no female with a terminal master's degree has a salary or gross income in excess of $15,000.00 a year who has not been employed at least 12-years post M.A. Overall, women with terminal master's degrees are earning substantially less money than men with master's degrees. Women with master's degrees who have been respectively employed for 12 and 17 years earn a salary of $20,000.00 a year. The next highest salary was earned by women with 13 years of experience ($17,550.50 a year); and the next highest by a woman with 24 years of experience ($15,950.00 a year). Women in the Loyola sample do not earn as much as $10,000.00 a year until they have been employed at least 7 years. On the average, gross incomes for women with master's degrees are less than $1,000.00 a year greater than their mean salaries.

Boneau and Cuca (1974) reported that the median number of years of experience of the 1972 APA sample was 7.0. For the total sample there was a pronounced mode at the 1- and 2- year level. In 1972, almost half of all respondent psychologists had received their highest degree in 1965 or later.

The large influx of younger psychologists into the total manpower

pool is seen in the greater proportions of psychologists who have fewer years of experience, both in the 1972 APA sample and among the Loyola group. In 1972 (Boneau and Cuca, 1974), 60% of the doctorates and 50% of the masters in the national sample had received their highest degree within the last ten years. For the Loyola sample 60% of the doctorates and 60% of the master's degree respondents had received their highest degree within the last seven years. Moreover, it would appear that the proportion of younger women doctorates is increasing faster than that of men, with some 65% of the women doctorates having 10 or fewer years since receiving their highest degree for the national sample, and having 7 or fewer years since receiving their highest degree for the Loyola sample.

For this same 1972 APA sample, salaries for all groups, male and female doctorates and male and female master's degree recipients, increased steadily for each year of experience subsequent to their highest degree. After 40 years of experience, salary decreased; however, 40 years of experience for most people with advanced degrees will put them well past 65 years of age, when people start thinking about cutting down on their activities if not actually retiring. The salaries of male doctorates went from a median of $15,300 a year with less than one year of experience to $27,900 a year at 40 years of experience. For the same time frame, the salaries of female doctorates ranged from $14,900 to $22,100; for male master's recipients, from $12,000 to $21,000; and for female master's recipients, from $12,000 to $18,600 a year.

Income and Age

Tables 49 and 50 give the salary from the main current position

Table 49

Salary From Main Current Position, Broken Down by Sex, and Age. For Respondents Whose Highest Degree is the MA or the PhD from Loyola University

	Doctorates			Master's		
Age	N	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.
Total N	156	19,572.78	7,536.29	78	12,538.73	9,309.18
Sex - Male	127	20,081.51	7,985.63	53	13,828.87	10,279.75
25	1	16,000.00	.00	2	8,470.00	664.68
26	-	-	-	-	-	-
27	-	-	-	3	13,833.33	2,929.73
28	2	14,250.00	1,060.66	1	5,824.00	.00
29	5	14,329.40	3,447.82	1	5,824.00	.00
30	4	15,125.00	6,786.94	3	11,833.33	5,923.12
31	11	14,002.09	5,816.31	-	-	-
32	5	20,100.00	10,573.55	3	6,000.00	5,291.50
33	3	17,471.67	4,568.94	2	3,900.00	1,272.79
34	5	19,766.00	4,251.21	1	3,760.00	.00
35	6	16,532.00	3,543.77	2	16,700.00	4,666.91
36	5	17,508.20	6,479.95	-	-	-
37	4	20,300.00	14,178.39	1	4,000.00	.00
38	10	29,945.00	11,977.63	2	16,000.00	5,656.85
39	6	18,587.67	3,007.43	1	18,000.00	.00
40	3	19,892.33	1,646.75	-	-	-
41	5	14,814.00	11,190.75	1	15,000.00	.00
42	3	22,666.67	2,516.61	1	24,000.00	.00
43	1	21,000.00	.00	3	12,223.33	8,800.09
44	5	22,349.40	10,576.62	2	1,700.00	989.95
45	5	26,194.80	4,136.27	4	15,238.00	4,187.81
46	5	25,500.00	7,262.92	2	11,150.00	1,626.35
47	3	19,166.67	3,013.86	2	12,500.00	10,606.61
48	3	23,333.33	6,110.10	2	17,000.00	5,656.85
49	5	20,900.00	9,167.88	1	40,000.00	.00
50	2	21,160.00	622.25	3	30,333.33	17,616.28
51	2	23,575.00	2,015.25	2	4,400.00	565.69
52	3	22,145.00	1,988.26	3	27,166.67	12,750.82
53	2	22,100.00	8,909.55	2	23,500.00	10,606.60
54	4	17,500.00	5,259.91	-	-	-
55	2	26,500.00	707.11	-	-	-
56	-	-	-	-	-	-
57	1	30,000.00	.00	1	3,900.00	.00
58	1	27.479.00	.00	-	-	-
59	-	-	-	-	-	-
60	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 49 (Continued)

Salary From Main Current Position, Broken Down by Sex, and Age. For Respondents Whose Highest Degree is the MA or the PhD from Loyola University

	Doctorates			Master's		
Age	N	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.
Sex - Male (Cont'd)						
61	1	24,122.00	.00	-	-	-
62	1	10,000.00	.00	-	-	-
63	1	17,354.00	.00	1	3,360.00	.00
64	-	-	-	-	-	-
65	1	12,000.00	.00	-	-	-
Unspecified	1	20,000.00	.00	1	13,500.00	.00
Sex - Female	29	17,344.90	4,596.08	25	9,803.64	6,132.71
25	-	-	-	1	14,500.00	.00
26	-	-	-	-	-	-
27	-	-	-	-	-	-
28	2	16,876.00	175.36	-	-	-
29	2	15,000.00	.00	-	-	-
30	1	10,000.00	.00	1	2,400.00	.00
31	3	16,300.00	3,371.94	1	15,000.00	.00
32	2	16,750.00	353.55	4	10,350.00	6,193.28
33	-	-	-	1	11,700.00	.00
34	-	-	-	-	-	-
35	3	17,117.33	2,131.88	1	13,000.00	.00
36	-	-	-	-	-	-
37	-	-	-	-	-	-
38	-	-	-	1	5,200.00	.00
39	-	-	-	-	-	-
40	1	17,000.00	.00	-	-	-
41	2	18,000.00	424.26	-	-	-
42	2	15,750.00	1,060.66	-	-	-
43	1	15,000.00	.00	1	8,500.00	.00
44	-	-	-	1	4,200.00	.00
45	1	12,750.00	.00	1	4,800.00	.00
46	1	21,000.00	.00	1	1,740.00	.00
47	-	-	-	1	18,301.00	.00
48	1	20,000.00	.00	1	6,000.00	.00
49	1	13,500.00	.00	1	20,000.00	.00
50	1	9,048.00	.00	-	-	-
51	-	-	-	-	-	-
52	-	-	-	-	-	-
53	-	-	-	1	15,950.00	.00

Table 49 (Continued)

Salary From Main Current Position, Broken Down by Sex, and Age. For Respondents Whose Highest Degree is the MA or the PhD from Loyola University

	Doctorates			Master's		
Age	N	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.
Sex - Female (Cont'd)						
54	-	-	-	-	-	-
55	1	21,000.00	.00	-	-	-
56	1	16,500.00	.00	-	-	-
57	-	-	-	-	-	-
58	1	25,000.00	.00	1	16,800.00	.00
59	-	-	-	1	4,000.00	.00
60	1	25,000.00	.00	-	-	-
61	1	32,200.00	.00	1	10,000.00	.00
62	-	-	-	-	-	-
63	-	-	-	1	3,200.00	.00
64	-	-	-	-	-	-
65	-	-	-	-	-	-
66	-	-	-	-	-	-
67	-	-	-	-	-	-
68	-	-	-	1	3,000.00	.00
Unspecified	-	-	-	2	12,700.00	10,323.76

Table 50

Gross Income, Broken Down by Sex, and Age. For Respondents Whose Highest Degree is the MA or the PhD from Loyola University

	Doctorates			Master's		
Age	N	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.
Total N	156	23,411.05	12,644.27	78	13,600.72	9,896.96
Sex - Male	127	24,485.15	13,591.98	53	14,975.28	10,833.70
25	1	16,000.00	.00	2	8,470.00	664.68
26	-	-	-	-	-	-
27	-	-	-	3	14,366.67	2,025.67
28	2	18,100.00	1,838.48	1	7,424.00	.00
29	5	15,109.40	2,469.24	1	5,824.00	.00
30	4	15,850.00	7,524.85	3	13,600.00	6,559.73
31	11	16,830.27	6,108.42	-	-	-
32	5	23,820.00	11,762.74	3	6,200.00	5,188.45
33	3	17,971.67	5,434.49	2	3,900.00	1,272.79
34	5	23,954.00	7,773.48	1	6,160.00	.00
35	6	19,294.00	6,091.49	2	17,280.00	3,846.66
36	5	22,984.20	9,630.29	-	-	-
37	4	33,670.00	25,737.31	1	4,000.00	.00
38	10	43,971.00	26,458.90	2	16,000.00	5,656.85
39	6	23,571.00	8,635.84	1	18,000.00	-
40	3	37,825.67	16,682.85	-	-	-
41	5	16,814.00	14,871.55	1	15,000.00	.00
42	3	22,666.67	2,516.61	1	24,000.00	.00
43	1	21,000.00	.00	3	12,223.33	8,800.09
44	5	22,349.40	10,576.62	2	1,700.00	989.95
45	5	29,410.80	6,007.96	4	17,698.00	6,909.16
46	5	26,176.00	7,642.96	2	13,250.00	1,343.50
47	3	27.766.67	15,477.83	2	15,000.00	14,142.14
48	3	27,500.00	13,143.44	2	27,000.00	19,798.99
49	5	24,800.00	12,270.90	1	40,000.00	.00
50	2	30,785.00	12,989.55	3	30,333.33	17,616.28
51	2	27,325.00	7,318.55	2	4,400.00	565.69
52	3	23,628.33	4,267.63	3	27,166.67	12,750.82
53	2	22,100.00	8,909.55	2	23,500.00	10,606.60
54	4	17,650.00	5,094.77	-	-	-
55	2	30,000.00	5,656.85	-	-	-
56	-	-	-	-	-	-
57	1	50,000.00	.00	1	7,500.00	.00
58	1	29,279.00	.00	-	-	-
59	-	-	-	-	-	-
60	-	-	-	-	-	-
61	1	25,922.00	.00	-	-	-

Table 50 (Continued)

Gross Income, Broken Down by Sex, and Age. For Respondents Whose Highest Degree is the MA or the PhD from Loyola University.

	Doctorates			Master's		
Age	N	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.
Sex - Male (Cont'd)						
62	1	10,000.00	.00	-	-	-
63	1	17,354.00	.00	1	8,820.00	.00
64	-	-	-	-	-	-
65	1	13,560.00	.00	-	-	-
Unspecified	1	20,000.00	.00	1	13,500.00	.00
Sex - Female	29	18,707.24	5,054.69	25	10,686.64	6,851.13
25	-	-	-	1	26,650.00	.00
26	-	-	-	-	-	-
27	-	-	-	-	-	-
28	2	17,876.00	1,238.85	-	-	-
29	2	15,664.00	939.04	-	-	-
30	1	10,000.00	.00	1	3,025.00	.00
31	3	21,060.00	4,387.12	1	15,000.00	.00
32	2	16,750.00	353.55	4	10,350.00	6,193.28
33	-	-	-	1	11,700.00	.00
34	-	-	-	-	-	-
35	3	21,017.33	7,232.71	1	13,000.00	.00
36	-	-	-	-	-	-
37	-	-	-	-	-	-
38	-	-	-	1	5,200.00	.00
39	-	-	-	-	-	-
40	1	17,000.00	.00	-	-	-
41	2	18,000.00	424.26	-	-	-
42	2	16,950.00	2,757.72	-	-	-
43	1	15,000.00	.00	1	10,000.00	.00
44	-	-	-	1	4,200.00	.00
45	1	20,550.00	.00	1	4,800.00	.00
46	1	21,000.00	.00	1	1,740.00	.00
47	-	-	-	1	18,301.00	.00
48	1	20,000.00	.00	1	6,000.00	.00
49	1	13,500.00	.00	1	20,000.00	.00
50	1	9,048.00	.00	-	-	-
51	-	-	-	-	-	-
52	-	-	-	-	-	-
53	-	-	-	1	15,900.00	.00
54	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 50 (Continued)

Gross Income, Broken Down by Sex, and Age. For Respondents Whose Highest Degree is the MA or the PhD from Loyola University.

	Doctorates			Master's		
Age	N	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.
Sex - Female (Cont'd)						
55	1	21,000.00	.00	-	-	-
56	1	16,500.00	.00	-	-	-
57	-	-	-	-	-	-
58	1	25,000.00	.00	1	16,800.00	.00
59	-	-	-	1	4,000.00	.00
60	1	25,000.00	.00	-	-	-
61	1	32,200.00	.00	1	10,000.00	.00
62	-	-	-	-	-	-
63	-	-	-	1	3,200.00	.00
64	-	-	-	-	-	-
65	-	-	-	-	-	-
66	-	-	-	-	-	-
67	-	-	-	-	-	-
68	-	-	-	1	3,000.00	.00
Unspecified	-	-	-	2	16,600.00	4,808.33

and gross income, broken down by sex and age. Male doctorates from the Loyola sample appear to hit an earning peak at age 38, when the mean salary is $29,945.00 a year. Another earning peak for the respondents occurs at age 45-46, when salaries are between $25,000.00 and $26,000.00 a year. A third peak occurs in the mid-to-late fifties; respondents who are currently that age earn between $26,000.00 and $30,000.00 a year. After the age of 60, male doctorates return to a relatively low level of earnings.

Female doctorates from the Loyola sample appear to have income peaks in their late forties, when their mean salary is $20,000.00 to $21,000.00 a year; and age 58 to 61, when the mean salaries range from $25,000.00 to $32,000.00 a year. Women doctorates hit their first earning peak about ten years later than men doctorates, but tend to maintain a high level of earnings into their early sixties.

Men with terminal master's degrees from the Loyola sample in most cases earn less than $20,000.00 a year until they reach their late forties and early fifties, when a dramatic rise in income appears. For this group between the ages of 49 and 53, the mean annual salary ranges between $23,500.00 and $40,000.00 a year. After this age, the only two older respondents are clerics who earn low salaries.

Women with terminal master's degrees appear to hit an income peak in their late forties, as do female doctorates. The sample here is so small, however, that only very tentative conclusions can be drawn. Women with terminal master's degrees at the ages of 47 and 49 earn $18,301.00 and $20,000.00 a year, respectively. No higher earnings occur for the younger or older women.

For the 1972 APA data reported by Boneau and Cuca (1974), the distribution of ages throughout the middle ranges (ages 25-49) is reasonably uniform, and begins tapering off after age 50. The median age for this group was 40.0. Psychology is a young profession, with 43% of both doctorates and masters being less than 40 years old in 1972. Salaries generally tend to increase steadily with age for males and females, master's and doctoral degree respondents, only leveling off after age 65. The range of median salaries for men doctorates between 25 and 69 is from $15,400 a year to $25,100 a year; for female doctorates in the same age range, from $14,700 to $21,300 a year. The range of median salaries for male master's degree recipients between 24 and 69 years old is $11,000 to $20,600 a year; for female master's degree recipients, $11,600 to $17,800 a year.

Psychological Procedures Employed by Psychology Graduates

The graduates were asked to list the psychological procedures which they use regularly. This information was obtained from the items on the questionnaire which asked (Number 7) "Please write a paragraph summarizing the things that you do in a typical week (e.g., administration; teaching; research or writing; professional activities such as assessment, testing, diagnostic work, psychotherapy, intervention, behavior modification, consultation."; and (Number 8) "If relevant to your present position, what psychological procedures do you employ. Indicate the average time per week you spend in each of the following: Individual psychotherapy; Group psychotherapy; Consultation; Psychological testing; Other (specify)." Not enough respondents gave information about the amount of time they spent employing particular psychological procedures to make analysis

of that information meaningful; however, the majority of the 335 respondents, 296 respondents or 88.4%, did list the psychological procedures they employed, either via item 7 or item 8 of the questionnaire. This data has been tabulated in Table 51, which shows the psychological procedures employed by respondents, broken down by degree status and religious status.

When N is considered to be the 335 respondents, data indicate that the most frequently employed procedure for all groups is counseling and individual psychotherapy. Counseling and individual psychotherapy are used by 209 of the respondents, or 62.4%. Respondents with the master's degree who are either religious or lay people, and doctorates who are religious, employ these procedures more often than any others. The exception is lay doctorates, 71.0% of whom do consulting, in contrast to a relatively smaller group of 63% who are engaged in counseling and individual therapy.

The next most frequently employed procedure is consulting, which 59.4% of the graduates claim to be engaged in. It will be noted, however, that fewer master's level people, both religious and lay, use this procedure than doctoral level respondents.

Approximately forty percent of all respondents indicated that they engaged in the practice of group psychotherapy; program development and administration; psychological testing and diagnosis; and the training and supervision of staff, trainees, and graduate students. Group therapy is practiced most frequently by master's-level religious graduates (54%); with about equal frequency by lay and religious doctoral graduates (45% and 43%, respectively); and least frequently by master's level lay

Table 51

Psychological Procedures Employed by Respondents,

Broken Down by Degree Status and Religious Status

Psychological Procedures	MA				PhD				All Respondents	
	Religious		Lay		Religious		Lay			
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Counseling and Individual Psychotherapy	51	79.7	25	35.7	31	79.5	102	63.0	209	62.4
Group Psychotherapy	35	54.7	19	27.1	17	43.6	74	45.7	145	43.3
Consultation	31	48.4	25	35.7	28	71.8	115	71.0	199	59.4
Psychological Testing and Diagnosis	13	20.3	17	24.3	19	48.7	87	53.7	136	40.6
Program Development and Administration	18	28.1	22	31.4	20	51.3	78	48.1	138	41.2
Research	2	0.3	12	17.1	8	20.5	47	29.0	69	20.6
Training and Supervision of Staff, Trainees, or Graduate Students	17	26.6	20	28.6	9	23.1	86	53.1	132	39.4
Screening and Counseling Seminarians and Novices	7	10.9	0	0	7	17.9	6	3.7	20	6.0
Professional and Scientific Writing	0	0	3	4.3	10	25.6	34	21.0	47	14.0
Clinical Interviewing	6	9.4	2	2.9	2	0.5	12	7.4	22	6.6
No procedures employed, or no information given	8	12.5	25	35.7	1	0.3	5	3.1	39	11.6

graduates. As might be expected, administration and program planning are engaged in by a larger percentage of doctoral graduates, both lay and religious, than by master's level graduates. The same relationship is true for psychological testing and diagnosis. Supervision is done by more than half of all the doctoral-level lay respondents, but by only a quarter of each of the other groups.

Research is named as a professional activity by about 20% of the master's-level lay and doctoral-level religious respondents. Research is engaged in most frequently by doctoral-level lay respondents (29%); but only 0.3% of the master's-level religious respondents listed it as a professional activity.

Professional and scientific writing was noted by 14% of the respondents overall as a professional activity. About twenty-five percent of all doctoral respondents listed it as an activity; while only 4% of the master's-level lay respondents and none of the master's level religious respondents listed it as an activity.

About 6% of all respondents were involved with the screening of seminarians and novices into religious life, and with the counseling of seminarians and novices. As might be expected religious master's and doctoral-level respondents were engaged in this activity more frequently (10.9% and 17.9%, respectively) than lay master's and doctoral respondents (0% and 3.7%, respectively).

Clinical interviewing was mentioned as a specific activity by only 6.6% of the respondents overall.

Approximately 41% of Garfield and Kurtz's (1976) sample's time was devoted to direct clinical activities, mostly psychotherapy, with about 35% of their time devoted to training and research activities. Only about 7% of the sample's total time was devoted to research. The respondents appeared satisfied with their career choice. Ratings of satisfaction with the APA were only slightly positive, but satisfaction with graduate training was considerably more positive.

Garfield and Kurtz (1976) also reported on selected values and attitudes of their sample, and found that private practitioners and academic clinicians tended to be at opposite ends of the continuum. Academic clinicians tended to be less intuitive, less inclined towards psychodynamic views, more favorable towards behavior modification, less positive towards the importance of personal therapy, and more positive toward the APA and their graduate training.

CHAPTER VI

EVALUATIONS OF TRAINING: SUGGESTIONS AND COMMENTS

This chapter discusses, first the evaluations or ratings of training along with the relationships between such evaluations and certain other pertinent characteristics; and secondly, the comments and suggestions made about the department of psychology and its graduate program.

The ratings of training were determined from Item 21 in the questionnaire, which asked for the "Overall rating of your training: superior, excellent, generally good, adequate, fair, poor."

Table 52 shows the frequency with which a particular rating was selected to indicate the evaluation of training received, broken down by male and female graduates, religious and lay graduates, and graduates who have received the MA only from Loyola, the PhD only from Loyola, and both the MA and PhD from Loyola. Twenty-seven of the 335 respondents to the questionnaire (8%) did not answer the rating of training question; twenty-eight respondents (8%) gave mixed responses to that question that could not be assigned to a discrete category. The remaining 280 respondents (84%) gave answers that could be assigned to one of six categories from "Superior" to "Poor."

The mode for the 280 people responding to the rating of training question, as can be seen from Table 52, occurs at the "Excellent" rating. Thirty-nine percent of all respondents felt that the overall quality of the training received was excellent. In fact, over half of the group

Table 52

Rating of Training by Advanced Degree Recipients in the Department of Psychology, Loyola University

Rating of Training	Male						Female					
	Religious			Lay			Religious			Lay		
	MA only	PhD only	MA & PhD	MA only	PhD only	MA & PhD	MA only	PhD only	MA & PhD	MA only	PhD only	MA & PhD
No Response	4	1	1	7	2	2	2	1	1	4	0	2
Poor	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Fair	0	0	0	2	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	1
Adequate	3	0	0	4	2	5	2	0	0	0	0	0
Generally Good	16	4	2	19	7	26	4	1	0	10	2	3
Excellent	19	4	5	17	9	25	8	1	4	5	6	6
Superior	6	3	2	6	9	14	3	0	0	6	2	3
Mixed Response	2	0	3	3	3	8	0	1	0	4	1	3

labeled the training received either "Excellent" or "Superior", just as they did in the 1958 study by Medina. The lowest two ratings of "Poor" and "Fair" which focused mainly on the shortcomings of the program, received only 7 of the 280 ratings (3%). The graduates as a group clearly feel that their training was of a high quality.

Sex and Rating of Training

The possible relationship between the sex of the respondents and rating of training was investigated. Male respondents were compared with female respondents; and the rating of training was divided into two groups: unqualified or unequivocal approval ("Superior" and "Excellent" ratings), versus equivocal approval ("Poor," "Fair," "Adequate," and "Generally Good" ratings). The phi coefficient was used to determine the degree of association between quality of approval (unequivocal versus equivocal approval), and sex of the respondents (male versus female). Breakdown of the 280 male and female graduates who responded to this question with codable answers, according to "equivocal" versus "unequivocal" approval showed 119 of the 212 males giving the two highest ratings to their training, and 93 designating the equivocal categories. In the case of the 68 females, 44 gave unequivocal approval to their training and 24 gave equivocal approval. By direct computation from a fourfold table, the phi coefficient was +.075 between the males and the tendency to rate training as equivocal. The maximum phi coefficient for a 2 X 2 contingency table is 1. Chi square, which is equal to the size of the sample times phi squared, is equal to 1.55 for the one degree of freedom occasioned by a 2 X 2 table, but is only significant beyond the 25% level of probability ($\chi^2_{.75}$ = 1.3, 1 df). Consequently, there

is no statistically significant relationship between the sex of the respondents and whether they gave their training equivocal or unequivocal approval. There is, however, a slight tendency for both men and women to give more unequivocal approval to their training than equivocal approval.

Degree Status and Rating of Training

The relationship between the degree status of the respondents and their rating of training was likewise investigated. Degree status of the respondents was broken down into those who received the MA only from Loyola; those who received the PhD only from Loyola, and those who received both their MA and PhD from Loyola. Rating of training was again divided into two groups: unequivocal approval ("Superior" or "Excellent" ratings), versus equivocal approval ("Poor," "Fair," "Adequate" and "Generally Good" ratings). The phi coefficient was again used to determine the degree of association between quality of approval (equivocal versus unequivocal), and degree status of the respondents. Breakdown of the 280 respondents according to degree status and rating of training showed 70 of the 132 MA only respondents giving unequivocal approval and 62 giving equivocal approval; 34 of the 51 PhD only respondents giving unequivocal approval and 17 giving equivocal approval; and 59 of the 97 both MA and PhD respondents giving unequivocal approval and 38 giving equivocal approval. The phi coefficient was computed to be +.10630, where the maximum phi coefficient for a 3 X 2 contingency table is 1. Chi square was 3.166 for 2 degrees of freedom, but is only significant beyond the 25% level of probability ($\chi^2_{.75}$= 2.8, 2 df). There is no statistically significant relationship between the degree status of the respondents

and whether they gave their training equivocal or unequivocal approval. Those with MA's only, PhD's only, and both MA's and PhD's all tended to rate their training about the same.

Notable is the favorable impression of training which all respondents hold, at all three levels of degree status. One hundred and nine of the 280 respondents who gave codable answers considered the program "Excellent"; 94 considered the program "Generally Good"; and 54 considered it "Superior." At all levels, the most frequently checked descriptive term was "Excellent."

Religious Status and Rating of Training

The relationship between the religious status of the respondents and their rating of training was investigated. Religious status was broken down into respondents who are religious, that is, clergy or members of a religious order; and lay, those who have designated themselves as being other than clergy or members of a religious order. Rating of training was divided into two groups, as before: unequivocal approval ("Superior" or "Excellent" ratings), versus equivocal approval ("Poor," "Fair," "Adequate," and "Generally Good" ratings). Analysis of the 280 respondents according to religious status and rating of training showed 55 of the 87 religious respondents giving unequivocal approval and 32 giving equivocal approval; and 108 of the 193 lay respondents giving unequivocal approval and 85 giving equivocal approval. The phi coefficient was used to determine the association between religious status and quality of approval. The phi coefficient was +0.08368 between religious graduates and equivocal approval, where the maximum phi coefficient for a 2 X 2 contingency table is 1. Chi square was 1.96 for 1 degree of freedom, but is only significant beyond the 25% level of probability ($\chi^2_{.75}$ = 1.3, 1 df).

There is no statistically significant relationship between the religious status of the respondents and whether they gave their training equivocal or unequivocal approval. Religious and lay respondents tended to rate their training about the same. However, both religious and lay rated their training somewhat more favorably than unfavorably.

No matter whether the graduates were analyzed according to sex, degree status, or religious status, no significant relationships emerged between these variables and rating of training. The only pattern evident was that all graduates looked upon their training more favorably than unfavorably.

Suggestions and Comments Regarding Training

Three of the questions on the questionnaire were intended to elicit the policies and procedures which graduates found helpful, whatever objections to particular policies and procedures existed, and specific suggestions for improving the functions of the department. Thus, item 18 asked, "Keeping in mind the work that you now do as a psychologist and remembering how we at Loyola trained you, what did we do that was helpful? (e.g., coursework, research, practicum experiences, therapy courses, supervision, etc.)." Item 19 asked for comments about practices that were not helpful: "What did we do that was of little or no help?" Item 20 inquired about changes which graduates felt should be instituted in the program: "What changes in the total training program would you propose to bring it in line with your present professional and work needs? (e.g., general quality; number and experience of the teaching staff; organized social activities; research activity and interest within the department; facilities for training and placement of the

students; communications between faculty and students; desirability of interdisciplinary emphasis in training; therapy and practicum experiences; specific courses, etc.)."

Of course, the individual graduates were not commenting on the same graduate program structure and policies: since a period of 45 years was involved, the department had been under the control of two administrators; the degree program had been expanded to the doctoral level; and the psychologist's activities in his professional role have changed over the years. Nonetheless, the issues which graduates addressed themselves to are important, regardless of the different experiences graduates have had in the department at different points in time. The issues, programs, and procedures which have come into prominence and importance for the graduates in their current professional roles are significant insofar as they point out trends in the profession, areas that need revision, and information needed in the professional world that should be taught in graduate school. As will be seen, there are areas that graduates regard as helpful, not helpful, or needing changes, that span all the years that the program at Loyola has been in existence, and emerge as consistent themes in the responses. The majority of the comments and suggestions that follow in this chapter, like the majority of the responses to the questionnaire, are from graduates who have received their degrees during the expanded doctoral period, which is the period of greatest relevance by virtue of its recency.

Of the 335 people returning the questionnaire, only 28 ignored the three comment items altogether or gave only vague answers not responsive to the questions.

For the 307 graduates who made specific comments or references to the training they had received, the number of comments made to particular subject matter totaled 2,059. The mean number of comments per person was 6.7068, but ranged from one to as many as twenty-eight. The median number of comments was 6. Five comments or specific references was the most commonly occurring situation.

Helpful Categories

For the question, "Keeping in mind the work that you now do as a psychologist and remembering how we at Loyola trained you, what did we do that was helpful?", 848 separate comments were made by the 335 respondents. When considering the helpful category alone, only 34 respondents ignored the question altogether. Five respondents gave vague answers not responsive to the question. Two graduates responded with testimonials which eulogized Loyola; sixteen graduates said that everything was helpful and the years have only tended to enhance their positive experiences. Only the principal features and most pertinent comments and suggestions can be discussed here. The aspects of the program that graduates considered to be helpful will be discussed in order of the frequency with which each particular area was mentioned.

Specific courses and coursework requirements. The largest number of responses, 205 altogether, were directed towards specific courses, the coursework generally, and other requirements of the program that Loyola graduates found helpful. Of these 205 responses, 121 were statements about particular courses that the graduates found to be especially useful. Nearly all courses that have been taught at one time or another in the Psychology Department at Loyola were named by

some graduates to be especially useful, but the most frequently mentioned area of coursework (59 responses), was Diagnostic Psychological Testing and Assessment. This is interesting in that although a general de-emphasis is being placed on psychological testing in the universities today and by the students themselves (Cleveland, 1976; Ivnik, 1977), more graduates found their diagnostic testing courses useful than any other type of course. Next most frequently mentioned were the therapy courses, both individual and group (53 responses). Personality Theory, Abnormal Psychology, Counseling, Statistics, and the Skills Training Courses were the next most frequently mentioned helpful courses. Fewer people mentioned, in order, clinical coursework generally; research and design courses; and experimental design courses; then Developmental Psychology, Behavior Modification, and Social Psychology. One or two respondents mentioned the following courses: Family Therapy, Community Psychology, Group Dynamics, Interactional Assessment, Test Construction, Story-Sequence-Analysis, Community Psychology, Motivation, Philosophy of Psychology, Psychology of Moral Life, Field Research Seminar, Learning Theory, Industrial, and Physiological Psychology. Courses having to do with counseling, therapy, diagnostic testing, and assessment -- courses that stress practical clinical skills -- were most frequently found to be useful by the Loyola graduates.

Eighty respondents said that Loyola provided them with generally very sound coursework, which was the foundation for all later psychological experience. Several respondents were happy to be able to take clinical courses while enrolled in the experimental program. One person was pleased that the importance of physiology for the psychologist

was stressed. Another individual found that the doctoral oral examination was very valuable, and forced him to personally organize and reflect on himself as a diagnostician and as a therapist.

Practicum experience/internship, practicum courses. The practicum experiences, practicum courses, and internships were mentioned as highly valuable in 199 responses. Generally, the respondents felt there was a good integration of practical experience and theoretical insight through the internship series of seminars. Involvement in the clerkship/internship training made coursework more meaningful; the theoretical material was made relevant.

Instructors. The respondents made 111 comments pertaining to the instructors. Sixty-seven of these comments were remarks about specific instructors having been particularly helpful. Thirty-four respondents were pleased by their access to teachers in and out of class; the individual contact, and the close relationship to teachers that was possible. The professors were seen as providing much personal support and good professional models. Only two of these remarks said that the quality of teaching was high, however. It seems that positive comments made about professors address themselves much more to the availability of close personal relationships than to the quality of teaching, suggesting that professors are valued much more highly for their emotional and moral support than for the content of what they teach. One graduate said, "Personal concern, caring, interest, support, and encouragement were the things that were most important to me because that is what I needed as an affirmation of my study and work."

Supervision. Supervision was mentioned in sixty-five replies as

being helpful. Respondents mentioned such positive aspects of supervision as having the choice of a variety of supervisory persons, and having had the chance to be supervised in research. Two graduates mentioned that the opportunity they had to supervise others in teaching and in clinical work helped them to evaluate their own teaching and clinical skills.

Research. Sixty respondents found their research experience to be very helpful. Eight of these said their work in the Psychometric Laboratory, which is no longer in existence, was their best experience at Loyola, and one graduate enthusiastically said "Bring back the Psychometric Laboratory and Horace Rimoldi!" Other aspects of the research program which were found to be helpful was work as a research assistant and the research experience from the thesis and dissertation.

Self-knowledge and self-improvement. Thirty-seven respondents made comments about the self-knowledge and self-improvement they gained while in the program at Loyola, and about the growth experiences they had. Most helpful was found to be the freedom to structure one's course of study individually via independent reading and research courses. Balancing this freedom was the fact that students were made to work, which was found to be very important to future success. One graduate said:

> You made us work! It is so important that you communicate to the graduate students that they must read the books on theory (old and new) now, as they won't have the time to reflect on them as they did in grad school. It was very helpful to write challenging papers, do library research, and to prepare a long list of readings for comps. We moaned during the time but now I realize my background is far superior to some of my colleagues who had such a liberal approach to their graduate studies that they read what they wanted to read. In addition, you communicated to us the need to

> keep up with what is new and to keep studying -- we were not turned off by work. Currently in our department there is a group of grad students trying to pressure faculty into making comps "easy" by cutting reading lists and giving questions in advance. I think when faculty bow to these pressure we have a weakening of what a PhD really means -- a stamp of approval of scholarship. The message was loud and clear at Loyola: there is no easy road to a PhD. You work or get out. I'm proud of the faculty at Loyola for making us work.

Another graduate put it more succinctly: "You helped me learn how to learn; how to help others learn; you exposed me to reality and life." Graduates found that they learned a lot about themselves and others which aided them in becoming skilled therapists. The program was seen as fostering self-confidence and personal pride. At the same time, Loyola was seen as having opened students' eyes to the realities of the world. As one religious sister wryly put it, "I got my skin toughened -- I became kidable, unshakeable, unembarrassable, resourceful, independent." Graduates saw the program as allowing them to display initiative and assume responsibility for their development. The program cultivated and sustained a critical attitude.

And one graduate admitted that the program helped him find a wife.

Loyola Guidance Center. The experience at the Loyola Guidance Center was seen as being very helpful in nineteen responses. Outside of the general scope and quality of experience at the Guidance Center, the following aspects of working at the Guidance Center were seen as highly positive: the weekly conferences, staffing cases, play room training, therapy training, intake interviewing, and the stimulating staff interchange.

Specific skills taught at Loyola. Seventeen comments were made about specific skills taught in the psychology program at Loyola which

were found to be highly useful in professional life. The most frequently mentioned area was the practical clinical skills which were found to be highly relevant in day to day clinical work, including projective test administration, report writing, and counseling. Several graduates commented that their assessment skills were stronger than the skills of most peers. The skills training sequence was found to be applicable to many situations, including teaching, administration, and consultation. Graduates found that the range of skills they learned was broad enough to allow them to adapt flexibly to many situations. Other specific skills which were found to be helpful were interviewing techniques, and the Rogerian method of counseling. The emphasis on report writing, though tedious, helped clarify thinking generally, and the analysis of cognitive and emotional components to personality. Loyola was seen as providing the foundation for a disciplined approach to problem solving.

Scholarship. Loyola's psychology department was seen as placing a high premium on scholarship. Eight graduates said that they found it helpful to prepare a long list of readings for the comprehensive examinations, which supplied them with a background superior to that of most of their colleagues. The emphasis on familiarizing oneself with the classical literature of psychology was seen as very helpful, since the pressures of a professional job leave graduates with little time to read these works later. Graduates also found helpful the emphasis on quantitative analysis, writing challenging papers, and doing library research.

Personal teaching experiences. Thirteen graduates found their own personal teaching experience to be very valuable. The teaching assistant-

ship was a valuable opportunity for an apprenticeship in which the student had the added advantage of mastering more thoroughly the material that he was teaching.

Broad background in psychology. Thirteen graduates found the program useful in terms of the broad overview of a diversity of areas in psychology that it provided them.

Therapy experiences. Nine comments were addressed to the quality of the therapy experiences, mainly to group therapy experiences. The group experiences, aimed at personal growth, particularly those derived from the skills training program, were seen as essential to the making of an effective psychologist, even with the emotional risks involved, which was considered to be part of the normal attrition of professional graduate training. In the counseling program, the intensive group work involved in the program helped people get in touch with themselves and made them better counselors than those coming out of more academic programs. Graduates also found particularly helpful their experience in working with families and married couples. The counseling program was seen as a good foundation and introduction to supportive counseling and problem solving in the exercise of parish ministry.

Personal experiences and attention. Nine graduates spoke of the personal attention they had at Loyola. The qualitative was respected -- people were treated as persons, not as numbers. People were given individual attention, and the program was generous in providing financial support for students in need.

Philosophical emphasis. The Loyola psychology program was seen by some graduates as providing an integration of Christian ethics with

contemporary psychology. The orientation of the program was seen as being humanistic, and providing service values and framework. Several graduates also found the philosophical perspective of the program helpful in acquiring a broad overview and understanding of the development of the science of psychology. Graduates also liked the combination of clinical and research points of view which existed throughout all subareas of the psychology program.

Experimental program. Four graduates commented on the experimental program. The opportunity to construct one's own program and variety and space in the experimental area, was seen as helpful. The strong emphasis on personality within the sphere of experimental psychology was seen as making the experimental program more relevant to practical professional concerns.

Seminars. Seminars were seen as useful for providing an opportunity to discuss research and practical applications with others. Visits to state hospitals and other clinical settings were helpful in providing an understanding of different kinds of clinical and counseling work. The Psi Chi meetings were seen as filling a need for professional acculturation and socialization among students.

Counseling program. Two graduates mentioned the overall good training in counseling and the high quality of the counseling program.

Interdisciplinary training. One individual found interactions with other students doing work in physiological psychology at other institutions while enrolled at Loyola to be professionally challenging and stimulating.

Languages. One person mentioned that the language requirement was useful to him.

"Not Helpful" Categories

For the question, "What did we do that was of little or no help?", 539 separate comments were made by the 335 respondents. Ninety-three respondents ignored the question altogether or gave vague answers that were not responsive to the question. Thirty respondents said that everything was useful; no changes need to be made, and nothing was of little or no help.

Problems with specific courses. The largest number of comments, totaling 134 responses, referred to various problems with specific courses. Of these 134 responses, one hundred and fifty-one comments named thirty different courses that were seen as being deficient. That is, one respondent may have named several different courses that he found deficient. Of course, nearly all the courses that are taught by the psychology department at Loyola came in for criticism at some point, but some courses came in for much heavier criticism than others. The course sequence that was most frequently seen as inadequate was Statistics. Generally, these comments had the tenor that students need to be exposed to much more material than is presently offered in the statistics courses. Too much stress was placed on mathematical theory, with too little help in applying the concepts to practical problems. In conjunction with the statistics courses, several students pointed out that since computers are increasingly necessary for the analysis of complex data, students need more experience in running programs, and organizing data for computer consultation.

Other courses that frequently came in for criticism, were Philosophy of Science and other philosophically oriented courses, whose teaching

was divorced from practical considerations and application to practical clinical problems; and Experimental Psychology, whose teaching was also seen as too academic. Generally speaking, coursework that was primarily lecture without integration with practical experience or discussion of practical applications was seen as being undesirable.

Physiological Psychology was seen as being too divorced from neuropsychology and the explication of brain-behavior relationships. Other courses mentioned by several respondents included Systems and Theories, Learning Theory, Motivation, History of Psychology, Theory of Tests and Measurements, Perception, Research Design, Social Psychology, Child Development, and Industrial Psychology. Several other courses were mentioned only once.

Therapy courses and diagnostic testing courses were given special mention in 34 cases. Therapy courses and experience were seen as being deficient in that, again, they were too academic and not practical enough. In addition, respondents felt that the therapy courses did not provide enough training in therapy techniques other than Rogerian or psychoanalytic. Some of the therapy schools and techniques that graduates felt training was needed in, included group therapy and neoanalytic therapy, Transactional Analysis, Family Therapy, Reality Therapy, Existential Therapy, and Gestalt therapy. These schools of thought were seen as including important perspectives and techniques that could be applied to therapy and counseling. One respondent wrote,

> Students planning to be therapists need seminars attached to each academic course to relate the theories and ideas to specific identifiable behavior and treatment issues. The gap between defense mechanisms in abnormal books and relating them in action in therapy is wide -- videotaping would help.

Of the seven respondents who specifically mentioned diagnostic testing, six felt that there was too much emphasis on diagnostic testing and its underlying affiliation to the traditional medical model. A graduate who directs a family consultation service said, "In my situation, I feel that psychological testing is over-emphasized, both in the academic and practicum settings. Since I have left training, I have encountered only two occasions in which projective techniques were utilized, and only a dozen or so in which the more objective tests were helpful." When taken in conjunction with the fifty-nine respondents who made particular mention of the diagnostic testing courses being useful, however, the balance is clearly in favor of the practical usefulness of these courses for the majority of the graduates. One graduate commented that it would have been more helpful to learn one consistent approach to the interpretation of projective tests, for example, the psychoanalytic approach to testing expounded by Schaefer and Rappaport. After the student learned this approach, he could then begin to develop his own personal way of interpreting tests.

General comments regarding coursework and seminars.

Sixty-eight responses were directed towards the general quality of the coursework and seminars. The general tenor of these comments was that the coursework was too routine, traditional, and conservative; many classes were rigidly structured, and in some cases teachers were more threatening than helpful. The coursework was seen as strongly academically field relevant, at the expense of socially relevant topics. Some classes were overly permissive, with little accountability by the students.

Another complaint was that there was too little guidance regarding the courses. Students should be helped to discern the courses that will be most helpful for their future. One graduate felt that he wasted a good deal of time on pre-requisities which are of no value in clinical practice or clinical training. The number of research proposals required by various courses often become repetitious and nonproductive; the courses need to be more integrated. Some graduates felt there was an overload of required courses. At the same time, seven graduates felt that there was a poor scope of available courses relevant to the practice of psychology, which made people resort to directed readings.

Students planning to be therapists felt that they needed more seminars attached to each academic course to relate the theories and ideas to specific, identifiable behavior and treatment issues. One graduate felt that the majority of the coursework in the clinical phase of training was geared towards a career in the Veterans Administration system; consequently much material that was taught did not particularly apply in other settings. Several foreign students who entered the clinical and counseling programs felt that they wasted their time on psychological instruments which are not used or need to be validated in their particular settings and culture.

A coursework deficiency was seen in the absence of training in supervision, training in teaching, and training or courses in the application of research methodology.

Problems with faculty. Fifty-four respondents mentioned a variety of problems with faculty. Most of these comments had to do either with personal problems particular graduates had with particular faculty members,

or were complaints about the general quality of the teaching. Sixteen respondents felt that Loyola's psychology program lacked a broadly trained and diversified faculty. Teachers needed to be better prepared and trained, since many contributed little to the classes outside of serving as moderators for discussions. Another complaint, voiced by eleven respondents, was that faculty were often not available outside of the set-up class time. There was too little informal faculty-student contact and openness, and not enough personal support given by the faculty. One individual found the lack of contact with his advisor particularly distressing. One individual also felt that the faculty were not good resource persons, in that they did not exploit the resources available professionally in Chicago to help their students obtain jobs. Faculty members were also seen as not giving proper guidance with coursework.

Two students said they would have appreciated some help in choosing an advisor that was suitable for their particular interests. Other comments were directed towards needing an improvement in faculty role models in teaching and research. Not enough actively practicing psychologists were on the staff, who were in touch with contemporary issues and practice. One person felt the staff had an inferiority complex: they were overly concerned about what the American Psychological Association would think, and geared their activities towards pleasing the APA rather than serving the real needs of the students.

Clinical practice and experience. Thirty-one comments were made about the quality of clinical practice and experience. Twelve respondents felt that there was not enough teaching of needed practical clinical skills: testing; therapy; interviewing skills; behavioral assessment

approaches. Nine respondents felt that generally there was not enough clinical practice and experience. More diversity of clinical cases was needed, such as working with minority groups, the handicapped, and the retarded. More time was needed to be spent in on-the-job training, working in the field. Not enough practicum experience was available prior to the internship. Once the internship began, a few graduates felt that it was inadequate preparation for future professional work. One graduate said that his internship provided subjects for him to test, and little more. Some internships were seen as giving very little responsibility to the trainee. And, once the internship began, the cohesiveness of the class broke down. One graduate said, "I felt a strong need to discuss and share experiences, yet my time never coincided with others in my year."

Again the theme emerged of not enough application of theory to practice. A graduate said, "I have found it very difficult to apply my general knowledge to specific treatment cases, testing, or whatever. And I have met very few other psychologists who could do this." Much of the applied clinical training that was offered was seen as being too analytical. Diversity in theoretical orientation was needed.

Foreign language requirement. Sixteen respondents said that the foreign language requirement was not useful. They rarely, if ever, used the foreign language after passing the language exam.

Problems with the counseling program. Fourteen responses were directed towards inadequacies in the counseling psychology program. Most of these respondents said that more clinical experience was needed for counseling psychology students, since most of them would

eventually be doing clinically-oriented work, such as interviewing and psychotherapy. The counseling psychology students were barred from taking some clinical courses, which would have been helpful. The counseling program was seen as too heavily academic, not experiential enough, and lacking in individual evaluation and supervision. The suggestion was made that more of the individual supervision could be done through the students in the doctoral programs.

In the counseling psychology program, there was poor checking on and knowledge of the places where practicums were done, and the nature of the supervision received. One graduate said that the students in the counseling psychology program were often viewed as second rate. Another graduate felt that the counseling program was incomplete in relation to intensive clinical pastoral counseling.

Thesis and dissertation. Fourteen respondents saw the thesis and dissertation project as a major problem area. Eleven respondents said that there was too much emphasis and importance placed on the thesis and dissertation at the expense of other needed supervision and training. On top of this, thesis and dissertation supervision was not emphasized, which made these projects even less useful as a learning experience. One respondent summed up well the general discontent with the format of the thesis and dissertation, and suggested an alternative system: "I have never been happy with the thesis/dissertation system. The voluminous format is non-publishable, so one wonders what it was aimed at; second, it is seldom the student's project in fact, but is aimed at pleasing a demanding committee. I would rather see a series of courses aimed at producing a short series of potentially publishable papers that really interest the student."

Areas in which training is needed. Twelve respondents mentioned twelve different areas in which they believed Loyola's psychology department should offer training. Little emphasis was placed on neuropsychological testing, learning disabilities, and organic impairments. Physiological psychology was not taught with an emphasis on its application to clinical practice and human experimental research. The area of neuropsychology, in particular, is rapidly expanding and offering an increasingly greater number of employment opportunities, and deserves more consideration, if for that reason alone. Graduates were offered minimal exposure to community work, and work with other social agencies; emphasis on social concerns was minimized. Training was deficient in terms of understanding of systems and the politics of the profession, including consultation to other caregivers and systems. Training is needed in learning how to supervise others. Again, the theme arises that there was too much emphasis on academic work in all of the psychology programs, and not enough emphasis on practicum work. One respondent felt that there was insufficient training in theory and quantitative methods.

School psychology is another rapidly growing subfield in psychology (Bardon, 1976a; Bardon, 1976b), and one graduate felt that not enough emphasis was placed on areas of knowledge that would allow the graduate to function in the school psychology setting, for example, more training in developmental psychology, various achievement tests, the Frostig, the Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities, and behavior modification as applied to children. Other graduates felt that the program should have placed more emphasis on an interdisciplinary approach, such as more inclusion of the other

social sciences, for example sociology and anthropology.

Most clinical psychologists and many psychologists in specialty areas other than clinical become involved in administration at some point in their careers. Consequently, training in administration, administrative policy, and grant writing was seen as important knowledge for all psychology graduate students to have.

Research facilities, research program. Twelve respondents discussed the lack of adequate research facilities as well as the lack of emphasis on research in the entire program. Several respondents also wished that the department showed greater consideration and offered more support and encouragement for graduate students' research. One respondent noted that in most cases the Graduate Research Assistantships did not involve any real research. Most of the experimental laboratory work that was done, was irrelevant. Only one respondent said that there was too much training in research for someone who is primarily identified as a clinician.

Professional opportunities. Nine respondents said that there was no discussion of professional opportunities, and no training in the mechanics of setting up a private practice. Both of these areas are directly relevant to the professional success of the newly graduating clinician and counselor, and need to be dealt with in the graduate program in psychology.

Personal growth experiences. Nine people commented on the lack of opportunity for personal growth experiences in the program. In addition to the lack of opportunity, there was a lack of valuing personal growth experiences. One graduate said, "There seemed not to be an awareness

of the clinician getting to know him or herself. I consider it essential in training to actively explore ourselves in a personal therapy." Another graduate noted the lack of self-inspection of the validity of what we do. More leisure was needed to integrate what was learned and to spend more time with professors sharing what was being learned. The program had too limited a definition of the role of the psychologist, and faculty had a lack of understanding of evolving new roles, for example, community psychology.

Philosophy of the program. Six graduates said that the philosophy of the program was too traditional and conservative, with the classes being rigidly structured, and the teachers often more threatening than helpful. Two graduates felt that too much emphasis was placed on Catholic philosophy in the program.

Supervision. Six graduates felt that supervision was poor and should be improved. The general complaint was that supervision did not give enough practical suggestions on how to handle actual problems of patients.

Problems with the clinical program. Five respondents mentioned problems with the clinical psychology program. These were that the clinical program overemphasized projective techniques, that more clinical faculty were needed; and that clinical classes held in the downtown campus helped to create a sense of separateness from other divisions in psychology, undermining inter-disciplinary functioning.

Problems with the experimental program. Three experimental psychology graduates said they would have liked to have been able to take some clinical courses, which they found would have been helpful in their

post-graduate careers.

Problems with the social psychology program. One graduate noted there was little or no practical experience in the social psychology division. The social psychology department engaged in much planning about organizing a practicum in industrial and consulting applications of social psychology, but no attempts were made by any faculty member to follow through. Consequently, the social psychology program, in effect, offered training only for future academics.

The Loyola sample's discontent with the social psychology program is mirrored in the profession at large (Buss, 1975; Elms, 1975). Elms (1975) comments on the crisis of confidence in social psychology, noting the lack of good theories and research relevant to current social problems. He suggests the possibility of pluralism with regard to both methodology and theories, and specifically suggests the use of the techniques of longitudinal study and the behavioral census as contributing appropriately to better theoretical formulations in the current state-of-the-art of social psychology.

Jacoby (1975) identifies the field of consumer psychology as a relevant social psychological sphere of research. Some issues that need to be studied are safeguarding the rights of the consumer; variables of consumer behavior; how man goes about using and consuming that which he has acquired; and identifying personality attributes of the effective salesman. Other issues that Jacoby identifies are, what are the effects of advertising on children; how can we generate anticonsumption attitudes and behavior; how can we stimulate the acceptance of birth control or modern agricultural practices in underdeveloped countries.

Industrial and organizational psychology. A larger faculty and more departmental interest in industrial and organizational psychology was indicated as desirable by two respondents.

Overall organization of the program. Four respondents indicated the necessity for more structure and guidance in the overall program.

Program for women graduate students. A female graduate said that greater support and encouragement for women graduate students would have been helpful.

Funding. One respondent complained of a lack of funds to support a student adequately through graduate school.

Foreign students. One foreign student said that not enough understanding was shown to foreign students and their cultural values.

Graduate assistantships. One respondent regretted not having had a graduate assistantship. He felt that a graduate assistantship would have provided valuable teaching and research experience.

Comprehensive examination. One graduate commented that the comprehensive examination should be de-emphasized.

Changes That Should Be Made In the Program

For the question, "What changes in the total training program would you propose to bring it in line with your present professional and work needs?", 876 comments were made by the 335 respondents. Sixty-four respondents ignored the question altogether; three gave vague answers that were not responsive to the question. Thirty-nine respondents declined to comment, giving as a reason that since memories went back so many years, much would probably be changed, or that most of the changes they would have suggested from their experience in the program have been made over time's course. Twelve graduates said that no changes need to be made. The remaining 758 comments were made by 217 respondents, an average of 3.5 suggestions for changes in the program per respondent.

The comments made to this question are perhaps the most important in terms of understanding the needs that graduates have in professional life, and therefore the direction of changes that should be considered in updating the psychology program at Loyola. Consequently, the responses made to this question will be considered in detail.

Additional seminars and programs. One hundred and eight comments were made regarding suggestions for additional programs and seminars that respondents felt should be incorporated into the psychology program.

Seven graduates said that a program of visiting speakers was one item that was not very extensive about ten years ago in the program, and which can be very stimulating. Eleven said that departmental colloquiums should be held, to make members of the faculty as well as the graduate students more aware of the work that other individuals are

engaged in. One suggested format was to institute a biweekly colloquium, where students and staff present current research, therapy cases, and diagnostic cases.

Five respondents suggested initiating a "Critical Issues" seminar, to keep graduates appraised as to what is going on in the field currently. Students should be made aware of the current practical problems that face psychologists in the United States today, such as freedom-of-choice legislation, difficulties with the American Psychiatric Association, and crises in mental health care. Also useful would be a course or seminar on local, state, and federal agencies and procedures for grant-writing. Respondents felt that it was important to keep up to date on foundation and government policies and programs, and finding out where the money is and how to get at it. Practical advice needs to be given on the politics involved in designing and running projects and programs.

Four respondents suggested placing an emphasis on school psychology as a major field of professional practice. To this end, exposure should be given to the routine problems encountered by school personnel, and training in how a psychologist can be instrumental in bringing about changes as a consultant in the schools.

Seminars were suggested on survival and success in the professional world; and the methodology and processes of teaching. Several respondents also suggested a seminar with practicing psychiatrists and marriage counselors, who would show what they did with clients. Other suggested seminars and programs were a sequence in rehabilitation psychology, in which the student would be taught the psychological aspects of physical disabilities (2 respondents); coursework and practicums in administrative

skills (23 respondents); practical experience in supervising others (10 respondents); and training in neuropsychology (5 respondents). Seminars in Conflict Resolution, Teacher Effectiveness and Parent Effectiveness Training were considered important areas to learn. Training in writing reports and case histories, and taking notes was also considered to be very important, since the effectiveness of a psychologist in large measure depends on his facility in effective communication of his findings to others.

One graduate said, bring back Horace Rimoldi and establish a strong psychological measurement program again. And two graduates said that it would be interesting to invite all the psychology department graduates back to Loyola for a workshop or special research meeting.

Practicum training and experience. Eighty-six comments were made in reference to practicum training and experience, and most of these comments indicated that more internship experience should be offered than is presently available. Seven respondents said that psychology students starting in the very first year need to begin acquiring practical experience, and as they advance, acquire experience in supervising less advanced students. In this way, students are prepared to work more independently when they leave the program, and are also ready to assume supervision and administrative responsibilities.

Ten respondents said that there should be better specification of the training responsibilities of both the university and practicum agency. Closer evaluation and observation of the practicum program is necessary to ensure that students are receiving the training that the practicum agency alleges it is giving, and to ensure that the training is of the necessary quality. Several other respondents stressed both a greater

variety and greater quality in the internship settings. More structural requirements regarding clerkships and internships would be desirable; for example, a basic minimum time spent with different types of patients should be required, such as children, adult men and women, families, and chronic deteriorated patients. It is important that students have in-patient experience, as well as experience with outpatients and community mental health center patients.

Forty respondents said that the psychology program should furnish more practicum experience, specifically more training in actual individual and group therapy experiences. More internships should be offered in community mental health agencies. More "understudy" type experiences should be available, where students participate as observer and co-therapist with different therapists in different settings.

One respondent said that he would like to see all students involved in field work in applied situations in their particular area of specialization, not just the clinical students. Another respondent wanted less medically-oriented placement, and another hoped that graduate students could be placed more frequently in Catholic institutions as part of the practicum experience.

Finally, two students felt that the entire program should be an internship in labs, clinics, wards, streets, communities. Small groups and tutorial arrangements should parallel the internships, for the purpose of providing extensive personal development for the students and for reading and publishing writing, and some academic discussion.

Faculty, quality of teaching. Seventy-two respondents made comments about the faculty and the quality of teaching. Seventeen

comments suggested that the teaching functions of faculty be improved. This might be accomplished by using professional consultants and trainers, to teach the faculty how to teach more effectively. Selecting faculty who have a flexible, humanistic, and supportive attitude towards both the field of psychology and the students whom they teach is also important. An increase in the number of professional psychologists on the faculty would be helpful. Also, a general increase in the number of faculty in the psychology department is needed. Other respondents expressed a desire for a wider variety in the theoretical orientation of the teaching staff, and more professional cooperation among subtypes of psychologists, i.e., clinicians, experimentalists.

Another group of comments expressed the need for more honest exchange of teachers and students. Twenty-five graduates wanted less distance between staff and students through appropriate informal social interaction. A few respondents had found faculty generally to be uninvolved and unreachable; others stressed mutual respect of teachers and students. More structured contact outside of class with teachers was especially important for part-time students. Graduates wanted faculty to relate as much as possible on a one-to-one basis with students. One graduate suggested more team teaching, such as one clinician and one social psychologist. Another graduate said that peripheral faculty members should not be assigned to students as advisors; they are virtually useless. And two angry students said, "Fire teachers who can't teach."

Counseling and psychotherapy. Sixty-four suggestions were made for improving the quality of the counseling and psychotherapy skills taught at Loyola. Seventeen of these responses suggested more detailed

exposition of different psychotherapeutic approaches and a closer alignment of these approaches with internship training. The coursework was seen as too theoretical and the transfer over to the practicum setting too inefficient. More exposure to some of the newer therapies was needed, if only through workshops. Some of the therapies that graduates would like to have been exposed to were Gestalt, Transactional Analysis, Primal Scream, Psychosynthesis, Reality Therapy, and Actualization Therapy. One graduate expressed the need for the integration of theory with practice in psychotherapy at length:

> I feel I am a generalist, but I have found it very difficult to apply (outside of teaching) this general knowledge to specific treatment cases, testing, or whatever. And I have met very few other psychologists who can do this . . . If I were in charge of this program, I would push for more clinical courses. And by that I mean I would set up courses in learning, attribution theory in social psychology, group dynamics, and research methodology, etc. in which the professor would point out the actual clinical usefulness of these theories, studies, and methods. In a learning course, for example, I think only those principles should be looked at which have been used in a clinical setting or have a high probability of being used. Or, neuroanatomy could be taught along with the organic testing batteries (Halstead and Reitan) and the types of interventions that the medical profession can and cannot make, and the types of questions the medical people ask.

Sixteen respondents wanted more and better supervision in therapy. Respondents wanted more stress placed on group counseling and therapy, as well as community and family therapy. Individual therapy training needs to be better.

Several specific suggestions were offered as to how therapy training could be improved. One was to offer a new, expanded 3-semester series, focusing on specific schools of therapy. For example, the three semesters might cover 1) analytic theory and technique; 2) client-centered or rational-emotive, and 3) transactional analysis

and Gestalt. Each should probably be taught by an individual trained and experienced in that particular area, probably brought in from outside the university. A "cafeteria" hodge-podge of several schools in a single semester does not fill the need for thorough training in different schools of therapy.

Students who will work as clinicians need a firm background in a theoretical framework, such as psychoanalysis. Likewise, some respondents felt it would have been helpful to learn one consistent approach to the interpretation of projective tests, for example the psychoanalytic approach to testing as expounded by Schaefer and Rappaport. After the student learned this approach, he could then begin to develop his own personal way of interpreting tests. Training analysts from the Chicago Institute could be hired to teach basic courses in psychoanalytic theory and treatment, and to conduct practicum courses. A respondent pointed out that psychology students can learn a great deal from exposure to analysts who are interested in teaching their method of psychotherapy to non-medical people.

A graduate suggested that the therapy courses could have been extended by starting with an interviewing course and spanning all four years of the program. Research design in the effectiveness of therapy would have been helpful. Greater knowledge of normal psychodynamics should have been stressed. A graduate suggested the use of videotape in therapy situations to help the therapist spot and correct his strengths and weaknesses.

Research. Fifty-two graduates made comments about research. Thirty-three of these comments indicated that more research activity

and interest within the department would be desirable, and more opportunity to collaborate on research with the faculty would be useful. One graduate suggested how research projects with the faculty might be attempted. She wrote,

> In our department we have a program called Research Internship whereby students select a faculty member, design a study, carry it out under the supervision of the faculty member, and submit it jointly for publication if appropriate. Such a program would have helped me since I was much too timid about submitting papers for publication when I left Loyola.

Another graduate suggested small groups of students to conduct research activity. This research would be small scale projects only, with the projects changing after a limited period. A procedure of this type could awaken interest in various different areas, improve communication between students as well as between faculty and students, and give practice in research and gathering data. Another suggestion was that students could have research internships on a rotation basis, for example, half a year or a year in clinical, then measurement, experimental, social, and so on.

Research courses need to be taught by faculty actively involved in publishing research, and need to have more emphasis placed on sophisticated methodology and statistics. Training in practical research problems is important, such as survey techniques, program planning and evaluation, factor analysis, and research applied to real, local problems. Several respondents would like to see graduate students involved in meaningful research in their field of specialization, under a dedicated professor, from the start of graduate school. Students might be involved in Social Evaluation Research, in the models proposed by Webb, Campbell, Schwartz and Sechrest (1966).

More research internships should be available.

Interdisciplinary emphasis. Forty-eight responses suggested more interdisciplinary emphasis. Thirty-eight of these indicated the desirability of an interdisciplinary emphasis in training, so that the student could take graduate courses outside of the graduate department he was enrolled in. Students might also be allowed to attend other universities to take courses not offered at Loyola. Seven respondents suggested the desirability of interdisciplinary exchange with the medical schools, and specifically with psychiatric programs. One respondent suggested that it would be helpful to have one or two graduate courses in which psychiatrists, psychologists, and social workers work together as a team in diagnosis and treatment.

Greater orientation towards clinical work. Forty-seven respondents indicated the need for a greater orientation toward clinical work. Thirty wanted the program more oriented towards clinical work and the development of specific clinical skills. Eleven respondents named twelve specific clinical skills that should be taught in the program. These are as follows: group therapy skills, such as T-group and Gestalt exercises; supervisory skills; sexual dysfunction treatment; techniques to prevent decompensation in psychotic episodes; techniques for supporting ego strength; the use of videotape in therapy situations; intake interviewing; helping and human relations skills; behavior modification; relaxation training; training in marital and family therapy; and more training in individual therapy skills. More faculty are needed who are primarily identified with clinical work.

General comments regarding coursework. Forty-five general comments were made about the quality of coursework. Most had to do with wanting more opportunity to structure one's own learning through individualized courses and for-credit practicums. Graduates would have preferred more choices and fewer required courses.

Again, respondents mentioned the often-recurring theme that courses should include more experiential components. A wider course selection would have been desirable; while classes should be kept small if at all possible. Nine respondents found the curriculum too segmented, with little attempt to develop integrated course sequences. Accurate information about course selection is important. Five respondents said that the general quality of the coursework should be improved.

Specific courses that should be taught. Thirty-seven respondents made comments about specific courses that respondents felt should be offered in the psychology department at Loyola. Thirty-six separate courses or course sequences were suggested as being valuable additions to the program. Some respondents suggested several different courses as being important to offer to the graduates. The suggestions that were given follow:

Since so many psychologists eventually teach, a greater emphasis on the history of psychology and the psychology of man is needed. Providing courses in working with minority groups would be helpful. An increased number of behavioral courses is needed. Other suggested courses are: supervision of training psychologists; administration; developmental psychology; drug dependency; assertiveness training; expressing anger constructively; suicides; more clinical experiential

courses; a course on how physical diseases can present with functional-appearing symptomatology; intake interviewing skills and assessment interviewing; more courses in individual and group therapy; computer courses for those interested in clinical research, especially in learning to use the SPSS package; better statistics courses; seminar in the methodology and processes of teaching; application of research methods to behavioral science problems; specific research statistics courses for applied clinical problem solving; psychopharmacology; forensic psychology; community psychology; learning neo-analytic theory and applying it to on-going therapy and assessment cases; psychodynamic theory; comparative metapsychology; self-analysis; criminal and delinquent behavior; psycholinguistics; chemo-therapy; general physiology; neuro-physiology; communication disorders; a course in setting up a private practice; a required course for students in the clinical program in social psychology; the training of elementary adjustment teachers; and a course in family therapy.

As can be seen from the above list, a very wide variety of courses has been suggested, some of which have already been incorporated into the graduate program, but many of which have not.

Areas of training that should receive more emphasis. Forty-four comments were made about areas of training that should receive more emphasis. Graduates felt that a greater emphasis should be put on preventative mental health; the interrelationship of culture and personality; and child behavior problems. Psychologists need to be trained in specialties to prepare them for the realities of the market. For this purpose, there should be an improvement in the physiological/

neurological/biochemical coursework, since neuropsychology has become a much-needed specialty. In conjunction with an emphasis on neuropsychology, would be increased training in the use of contemporary experimental apparatus, such as EEG, EKG, EMG, biofeedback, and the computer simulation of cognitive processes. Increased training in the mathematical modeling of human behavior and performance is needed, with much more emphasis on quantitative methods. Also helpful would be a strengthening of the treatment of mental retardation in coursework and practicums. Another wide open area right now is the field of corrections; training in this area would open up more job possibilities for graduates. More emphasis should be placed on measurement and evaluation, with specific emphasis on educational administration, and measurement and evaluation as related to educational curricula. More coursework should be offered on learning and perceptual difficulties; this is another open area for job prospects. Training in forensic psychology, particularly in how to be an expert witness, was seen as increasingly important as more and more psychologists face the prospect of testifying in court. Training in consultation is important, as many psychologists eventually do consulting work in addition to their regular jobs. Two respondents suggested that psychologists should be trained for work in the human services field. The psychologist could be trained in some psychological specialty, but in addition he would learn administration, teaching, and evaluation for work in a whole continuum of care: mental health, retardation, alcoholism, corrections, and so on.

Finally, one of the most important attributes of a professional psychologist, and the hallmark of a true scientist, is the ability to think critically and creatively. Critical and creative thinking

can be developed through training in problem-solving and decision-making techniques.

Philosophy and structure of the program. Nineteen respondents made comments on the philosophy and structure of the program. These comments emphasized providing a broad, general background in both theoretical psychology and experiential opportunities. A more humanistic approach to psychology is also needed. A few respondents said the training had too much of a philosophical and scholastic emphasis, especially for a candidate from a Catholic undergraduate background. Conversely, four respondents said there should be a greater effort to integrate religious theory and practice with psychology.

Two respondents felt that the program should not train more PhD's for the purpose of entering academia. The direction of training should be in applied areas, and in the direction of practical experience in doing field work. Less stress should be placed on experimental courses for those interested in working with people. Three graduates felt the program was cold and impersonal, and would have welcomed more personal interest and attention from the faculty.

Personal growth experiences. Seventeen comments were made regarding the importance of personal growth experiences in the program. Most universities, including Loyola, are seen as not having touched on the vast field of personal growth. A lack of self-inspection of the validity of what we do is seen as a serious error. Possible remedies include placing all students in a year-long group experience. Several respondents felt that a personal group experience is the most crucial learning to be an effective psychologist. Several other

respondents felt that a requirement should exist that all clinicians who will do psychotherapy receive psychotherapy themselves.

Professional identity. Twelve respondents made comments about the quality of professional identity fostered by the program. The psychology program should train people to have professional characteristics: a good ability to relate to others; a commitment to people; an analytic attitude; willingness to learn new approaches; and a commitment to advancing psychology as a science and a profession. Several respondents said that students operated primarily out of fear. The psychology program could trust the students more and support them psychologically. Two much of the focus in the program was seen as emphasizing what was wrong and/or ineffectual in the work of the students.

Placement after graduation. Ten respondents said that more help with placement after graduation is needed. There should be a list of clinics and agencies locally and nationwide that seek graduates trained in the specialties offered at Loyola. Also, Loyola has not exploited the agencies where former clinical students now hold responsible positions, as places for clinical placement of students.

Community mental health. Nine respondents suggested that the faculty investigate community mental health centers for more extensive use in Loyola's training program, particularly for clerkships and internships. A seminar might be taught in program development and assessment of community needs and resources. Program emphasis could be placed on mental health programming, mental health economics (financing, costing, supply and demand), and mental health program evaluation. In relation to community mental health, more emphasis is needed in learning to deal with all ages. Family dynamics should be emphasized more,

and practicum settings should be more diversified.

Increased involvement in socially relevant issues. Eight respondents wanted to increase the emphasis on involvement with socially relevant issues and a sense of community.

Student applicants. Eight graduates made comments about student applicants to the program. They suggested better screening of student applicants, through personal interviews and testing of the applicants. Several of these respondents said the psychology program should look for creative, open, interesting people who want to study psychology, rather than simply very bright people with high scores on standardized tests.

Additional doctoral programs. Seven respondents suggested the development of additional doctoral programs: in Clinical Pastoral Counseling, Counseling Psychology, and School Psychology.

Restructuring of the experimental psychology program. Five graduates suggested changes in the Experimental Psychology program. The experimental program was seen as lacking in the number of graduate course offerings. Generally after the first year and a half, the experimental student is limited to taking independent study and research courses. A preponderance of these courses can lead to a narrowing of interests in the student. What is needed are more higher level course offerings beyond the survey type course. Another graduate took a different view of restructuring the program. He felt that the experimental program should have the addition of a few comprehensive proseminar type of courses, then, after suitable qualifying exams, get students deeply involved in research. A bare minimum of course work, in the form

of seminars, after the qualifying exams was seen as the best procedure by this graduate. Students should get involved in research that addresses current problems. One graduate wanted the experimental program to be made more oriented towards experimental learning, and also wanted more direct and immediate critique and supervision. Another suggestion was to make courses in psychological testing and therapeutic methods available to experimental psychology students.

Restructuring the counseling psychology program. Seven graduates proposed changes in the counseling psychology program, specifically to give counseling students the opportunity to take clinical courses, especially diagnostic testing courses and therapy courses, since counseling graduates in practice will be performing many of the same functions as the clinical graduates. Also, the counseling psychology program was seen as needing more of a practical research component. Too little emphasis was placed on observation and reporting.

Restructuring the clinical psychology program. Seven graduates proposed changes in the clinical psychology program. These were, first, to strengthen the research and experimental emphasis for clinical students, although this seems unfavored by the times. More faculty who are actually practicing clinicians are needed. This might take the form of having clinical psychologists as professors at Loyola, but working part-time in a hospital setting with whom or under whom practical experience could be had in that hospital setting under their supervision. Another suggestion was that courses like learning theory and personality be taught with application to clinical work.

Restructuring the social psychology program. Four comments were made regarding changes in the social psychology program. Faculty members are needed in social psychology who have a practical outlook and who deal with real-life applications of theories to problems, rather than engaging primarily in theoretical speculation and research. A training program might be set up in social psychology, in which students would have practicum experiences at ad agencies or consulting firms.

Diagnostic testing. Views on diagnostic testing were about evenly split. Four graduates felt that there was too much emphasis on diagnostic testing; three graduates felt that there should be more emphasis on diagnostic testing.

Doctor of psychology program. Four graduates suggested changing to a Doctor of Psychology (PsyD) program for the professional training program.

Student evaluations. Ongoing evaluations should be made of the students in line with their goals. Evaluations would suitably be made of students on the basis of their overall involvement and progress in studies, rather than on passing or flunking examinations.

More student responsibility and privileges. Graduates wanted more access to faculty-privileged areas, and more student power in the decision-making process: more student voice in curriculum planning; choice of courses; opportunity to dissect and learn alternative views; and student governance.

Thesis and dissertation. A respondent questioned whether, in the clinical field, it was necessary beyond the planning of the dissertation research, to be involved in the actual data collection, the statistics,

and so forth. He said, "The amount of time I invested appears wasted." Another graduate said that the dissertation should be modified. Dissertation supervision should include three or four students meeting with their committee en masse to provide support and a true learning of research techniques and problems.

Comprehensive examinations. Students should have the opportunity to partially define their own comprehensive exams, in the areas in which the student wants to be qualified. Less emphasis should be placed on the comprehensive exams.

Computers. The program should provide more training in utilizing computers for research.

Supervision. More direct therapy supervision should be given before the internship.

Library resources. More and better library resources should be available.

Foreign students. Foreign students need help in becoming oriented to American culture; they also need to be given extra help in understanding the concepts in class. Greater appreciation should be given to the cultural values of non-American people.

Relationships with faculty. The relationships between the student and his major advisor should be more clearly defined, and students should be kept in more regular awareness of their advisor's current opinion of them and their progress. Close, supportive relationships with faculty were seen as highly important. One recent graduate wrote,

> The close, supportive relationship with the professor whose assistant I have been for three years, has been perhaps the single most helpful influence in my years at Loyola. I believe such an association is often the difference between a successful graduate

career and an unsuccessful one. Of my acquaintances who have had difficulties in the program (more often Social and Experimental than Clinical), none had the personal attention and the knowledge that at least one individual cared about them and their progress. I realize that assistantships and advisor/advisee assignments are partly intended to serve this purpose, but often do not. How personal relationships with faculty members could be extended to more students is obviously a difficult problem, but I mention it because I think it is important.

Women students. A woman graduate raised the question of whether there have been a number of women graduates who, after some years of professional inactivity and child rearing, have returned to work. If this is a pattern that very many women follow, there is a need for a six months to one year program specifically designed to help them review and refresh clinical skills, and generally assist them in becoming current in their field.

Industrial psychology. Two respondents opted for the development of an industrial psychology division.

Social activities. Graduates wanted more informal social activities within the psychology department.

Miscellaneous. Finally, various miscellaneous suggestions for changes were given. The M.A. in psychology should not be given today, only the PhD, since employment possibilities for MA psychologists are so limited with a glut of PhD's on the market. More publicity should be given to the types of programs Loyola offers in psychology. Some of the "big names" at Loyola are virtually unknown at hospitals and mental health clinics in Chicago and Illinois. Graduates would appreciate more communication from Loyola after graduation, informing them of trends in the psychology program, news of faculty and graduates, and so on. This might be accomplished via a periodic newsletter. Last but not least, drop the foreign language exam!

CHAPTER VII

DISCUSSION

What are some of the more important changes to be made in graduate education in psychology suggested by the responses to this survey, and what are some of the directions that the profession will be taking in the near future?

Continuing Education

One trend that seems clear, both from the responses of the Loyola sample and in the literature, is the necessity for continuing education in order to avoid professional obsolescence, as well as to help facilitate career changes for psychologists wishing to prepare themselves for new functions.

The Loyola sample suggested that a "critical issues" seminar might be initiated, to keep graduates appraised as to what problems and issues are most salient in the field of psychology currently. In addition, many graduates felt the necessity of keeping up to date on foundation and government policies and programs, as well as innovative therapy modalities and administrative skills. A few graduates suggested periodic meetings of the entire body of psychology department graduates for workshops or special research meetings.

Lewin (1974) raises the issue that future psychologists will need to prepare themselves for the realities of a changing world: in addition to psychotherapy, diagnosis, and teaching, the future psychologist

will need to deal with effective industrial management of time and effort, as well as his own time and effort; school dropout rates, labor unrest, high divorce rates, and the emergence of a wide variety of minority power groups. Psychologists will need to be able to serve these groups, as well as the settings in which they will live, work, and spend their leisure time.

Blocker, Weitz, & Wallston (1976) conducted a survey of continuing education workshops for two succeeding years (1973 and 1974); the results of this survey are revealing of the changing pattern of interests and needs of psychologists. Topics of increasing popularity among students, faculty, and agency staff are applied workshops in family therapy, community psychology, and hypnotherapy. Topics of decreasing popularity include behavior modification, psychologists as agents of social change, group therapy, and Gestalt therapy.

Jones (1975) points out the need for continuing education for psychologists to prevent professional obsolescence. He notes that consumer pressure for better services is being applied through governmental agencies, suggesting that continuing education for psychologists may become mandatory in the not-too-distant future. For example, the American Association of State Psychology Boards is urging its member boards to implement continuing education requirements for license renewal. Some possible vehicles for continuing education might be formally organized and scheduled workshops offered by state psychological associations or other professional groups; university or professional school based programs; and self-directed study programs with reading lists, study guides, and objective examination, the results of which could be made available to state licensing boards at the discretion of the psychologist.

Ross (1974) notes that the American Board of Professional Psychology (ABPP) has established the National Academy of Professional Psychologists, whose aim is to help local and regional groups set up educational programs of continuing professional development.

Heck (1976), on the other hand, believes that since it is only a matter of time until a national health insurance plan becomes reality, the focus of mental health services will be shifted towards the individual consumer and away from government-funded service programs. These services will be regulated by exclusively medical Professional Service Review Organizations (PSRO's). Psychologists will need to learn to deal effectively with these organizations, and define their competencies independently of psychiatry, if they are to participate in the future delivery of mental health services.

The Scientist-Professional Model Versus the Professional School

Another issue that emerges from the Loyola sample as well as in the literature is a debate between the relative worth of professional schools granting a PsyD or equivalent, and graduate schools structured after the scientist-professional model and granting PhD's.

Only four respondents to the Loyola study specifically commented that the clinical program, at least, be changed to grant a Doctor of Psychology degree instead of the present PhD. Most of the respondents did not address themselves to this issue, but of those who did, the sentiment runs strongly in favor of retaining the scientist-practitioner model, but with more emphasis on practical experience and on integrating all coursework with practical experience.

Recent literature on this topic also runs strongly in favor of retaining the scientist-practitioner model for graduate training

(Freedman, 1976; Glickman & DiScipio, 1975; Leitenberg, 1974; Levis, 1974; Shemberg, Keeley, & Leventhal, 1976; Stricker, 1975). Two recent articles are in favor of expanding training for the doctor of psychology degree in professional psychology (Peterson, 1976; Proshansky, 1972).

Shemberg et al. (1976) surveyed the directors of clinical training of all psychology departments in the United States granting the PhD in clinical psychology; they found that clinical training maintains a strong orientation toward some form of the scientist-practitioner model, but there is a trend toward professionally oriented training among directors of programs that are less than 20 years old. With regard to master's level programs, directors are clearly uninterested in either developing or maintaining such programs. A substantial number of psychology departments, however, are engaged in subprofessional training at the undergraduate level.

Glickman & DiScipio (1975) argue for the necessity of the scientist-professional model in clinical training, and discuss how this model of training is being implemented at Fordham University. A cooperative academic/clinical arrangement makes possible the harmonization of school learning and real world experience. In view of this, they suggest that a training practicum aimed at integrating academic and research skills would be appropriate early in the psychology student's career. Leitenberg (1974) suggests that the PhD dissertation can be an outgrowth of practical, therapy-and-rehabilitation oriented research in actual clinical settings.

Freedman (1976) discusses some of the problems of an independent graduate school of psychology, particularly with respect to his own professional affiliation, the Wright Institute of California. Freedman

identified difficulties with relatively unstructured curricula; the divergent values of the widely heterogenous student groups; radical ideologies interfering with learning; and conflicts between finding employment and pursuing individual interests within the school.

Stricker (1975) notes that, when comparing the requirements for PsyD programs with PhD programs, there is no clear distinction in curriculum requirements between these two groups, which indicates that the reasons given for the PsyD degree, which are based on the inability of the PhD program to provide professional training, are spurious. Stricker also wonders what is the value of creating a new degree of unknown acceptability to the professional community, when the PhD is well accepted and respected by both other professionals and the general public. A strange-sounding degree will raise inevitable suspicious in an era of quackery in the mental health field, and will add little clarity of communication with the general public. Stricker argues that "before we accept the creation of a new degree, we must demand evidence that it will lead to benefits unattainable within the well-accepted and well-understood contemporary framework" (Stricker, 1975).

Peterson (1976) and Proshansky (1972), on the other hand, look at and question the fundamental assumptions underlying the training of graduate students for careers as professional psychologists, assumptions which have likewise been questioned by some of the respondents to this survey. One basic assumption underlying most PhD programs in psychology, according to these authors, is that there is a root model that is fundamental to the training of all psychologists, regardless of the student's interests, talents, or proclivities: that of the experimental research scientist. This model is reflected in the required courses of the

curriculum, the relative importance of various degree requirements, and the sine qua non of the student's experimental research scientist role, the research dissertation that in one form or another involves the experimental paradigm as the basis for data collection. In fact, a large portion of the doctoral research that is produced gets relegated to the file drawer or the thesis library shelf, and is not very good or significant. Additionally, less than half of all those individuals who get a PhD in psychology ever do another piece of research. Instead, the PhD degree could be given for scholarly achievement, not only as an experimental research-scientist, but also as a broad ranging theoretician, research administrator, university teacher, or community research consultant.

Improving the Quality of Teachers and the Graduate School Environment

The quality of teaching and the effect of the general graduate school environment on the students' performance also concerned the Loyola group. The Loyola group felt that teachers needed to be more diversified, as well as better prepared and trained. This might be accomplished by using professional consultants and trainers, to teach the faculty how to teach more effectively. Graduates felt that faculty were often not available outside of the set-up class time; that there was not enough faculty-student contact and openness, and not enough personal support given by the faculty. Some graduates would have appreciated some help in choosing advisors for their particular interests; others felt that not enough actively practicing psychologists were on the staff, who were in touch with contemporary issues and practice. A few graduates felt that teachers were often more threatening than helpful. A periodic review of teaching practices engaged in by both faculty and

students might be helpful in making the psychology program more responsive to the needs of the specific faculty and students involved at a particular time.

Baird (1976) describes differences and similarities in teaching approaches and departmental environments for five graduate departments of psychology. Like some respondents to the Loyola study, he suggests that graduate departments might analyze their teaching approaches and learning environments on a regular basis, for the purpose of selecting students who will be compatible with their programs, and to assess actual and proposed departmental innovations in terms of their student's and faculty's perception of whether the innovations have actually helped or even changed the experienced environment of the department.

Training Better Clinical Psychologists

The Loyola sample offered some suggestions for improving clinical training. The Loyola graduates felt that their clinical psychology department provided the foundation for a disciplined approach to problem-solving, through training in projective test administration, report writing, counseling, and interviewing techniques. The skills training program, aimed at personal growth through a group therapy approach, was considered to be particularly valuable. Graduates also found particularly helpful their experience in working with families and married couples in the Loyola Guidance Center. On the other hand, Loyola graduates also stressed that many therapy courses and experiences were too theoretical and not practical enough; overall, not enough practical clinical skills were taught. Respondents also felt that the therapy courses did not provide enough training in therapy techniques other than Rogerian or psychoanalytic. Respondents thought more diversity of clinical cases

was needed and more time needed to be spent in on-the-job training, working in the field. Practicum experience should begin in the very first year, and as students advance, they should have the opportunity to supervise other students. Better specification of the training responsibilities of both the practicum agency and the university are needed, to ensure that the practicum training is of the necessary quality. Graduates also favored strengthening of the research and experimental emphasis for clinical students.

Many of the suggestions of the Loyola sample are consonant with ideas presented by other researchers for improving clinical programs. Lovitt (1974) presented observations he has made about deficits in the skill development of clinical psychology graduate students, and consequently of clinical psychologists. The major objection Lovitt makes to current training models is that students are not exposed to patients in an acute personality crisis, and are not given primary responsibility for their diagnosis and treatment in training settings. As a consequence, trainees either experience much anxiety when actually forced to deal with these patients, which impedes their judgment; or have a false sense of being able to treat acutely disturbed patients, when in fact these patients were first carefully screened by supervisors and others. Lovitt also mentions the trainee psychologist being unable to deal with the total patient, including administrative and medical problems; being unable to use the mental status examination and clinical interviews for diagnosis and placement, instead needing to rely heavily on time-consuming psychological testing; and being unable to give practical, helpful feedbach to patients about their current problems and directions to move after their often brief hospitalizations. Student psychologists

also frequently are unable to give brief, crisis-intervention type therapeutic aid, often only being able to offer traditional, long term psychotherapy. Obviously, all of these issues need to be dealt with in graduate training programs.

Reisman (1975) makes the point that graduate schools should identify their theoretical orientation for therapy, to help students select schools that are congruent with their own philosophies of life. Students also need to be selected for given therapy orientations. Studies should be conducted for the identification of therapist characteristics associated with effectiveness in the use of a given method of treatment.

Rickard and Siegel (1976) found that a sample of clinical psychology PhD's who were exposed to a research-apprenticeship clinical training program, were publishing at a considerably higher rate than that typically reported for clinical psychologists in general. This was true both before they received their PhD's and after, and suggests that an orientation to research productivity should be shaped while the student is still in graduate school.

Training Better Researchers

Several Loyola graduates commented on the lack of adequate research facilities as well as the lack of emphasis on research in the entire program. Respondents also wished that the department showed greater consideration and offered more support and encouragement for graduate students' research. Research was seen as most meaningful when it involved field work in applied situations in a given graduate's particular area of specialization, whether clinical, counseling, social, experimental, or any other specialty. Many graduates wanted more opportunity to collaborate on research with the faculty. One suggestion as to how this might be

accomplished, was to design a Research Internship program, whereby students select a faculty member, design a study, carry it out under the supervision of the faculty member, and submit it jointly for publication if appropriate.

Another suggestion was the establishment of small groups of students to conduct small scale research projects, with the projects changing after a limited period. A procedure of this type could awaken interest in different areas, improve communication between students as well as between faculty and students, and give practice in research and gathering data. Still another possibility was assigning research internships on a rotation basis, for example, half a year in clinical, measurement, experimental, social, and so on.

Graduates strongly indicated that research courses should be taught by faculty actively involved in publishing research, should emphasize practical problems, and also emphasize sophisticated methodology and statistics.

Agreeing with the prevalent view of the Loyola sample, other investigators believe that training programs aimed at preparing effective applied researchers are needed. Ricks (1976) suggests that training needs include demystifying research techniques; effectively communicating research findings to non-researchers; becoming flexible and creative in using research designs and measures; preparation to become actively involved in the decision-making processes of organizations; learning to negotiate with agencies on the nature of evaluation being requested and its uses, in consideration of ethical obligations; and training in systems theory and practice.

One new type of training program, as proposed by Broskowski and Schulberg (1974), is a doctoral program in research and development. The R & D specialist would focus on applied research related to human services programs. Some proposed components of training R & D specialists should include training in the role of a change agent; training in research methodology including computer programming; program evaluation; and on-the-job practical applications of academic coursework.

Skadegaard & Grabelsky (1975), on the other hand, point out that the academic community's emphasis on producing graduate students thoroughly trained in research methodology, is at the expense of sound and detailed knowledge of theoretical systems of psychology and expertise at clinical work. They argue that too much of a research emphasis can produce in emerging psychologists apathy, sterility of thought, and a conflict between practical clinical values and scientific values.

Training Psychologists for a Career in Public Affairs

Many Loyola graduates wrote that interdisciplinary training for careers in community mental health or public health is very much needed, since the direction that much of applied and clinical psychology is currently taking is toward administration, program development, and the coordination of various social service organizations to aid the individual and community. Respondents suggested that community mental health centers should be investigated for more extensive use in clerkship and internship training. Program emphasis needs to be placed on mental health programming and evaluation and mental health economics -- cost, financing, supply, and demand.

Speisman (1968) and Vallance (1976) argue for the need of a graduate program designed to train people for public affairs careers. They

believe that the primary emphasis in training should not be on psychology, but rather on interdisciplinary training in public administration, social welfare, law, community organization, health services, and psychology. The reason for this emphasis is that most clinical psychologists eventually end up in administrative positions; as a consequence knowledge of community systems planning and development becomes of real practical importance. Brayfield (1976), similarly to Vallance (1976) also discusses the need for the creation of the public affairs psychologist. Psychologists are needed to evaluate and restructure programs in the areas of housing, transportation, urban affairs, and public affairs generally.

Proshansky (1972) also mentions the need for more systematic interdisciplinary training. For example, in the area of environmental psychology, students could take special courses in, and be involved in, research on urban planning, architectural design, and urban ecology.

This interdisciplinary approach will make the most sense if the organization takes place in terms of different problem areas. For example, a given social psychological program might have, in addition to a specialization in experimental small group research, other specializations focused on major social issues such as intergroup prejudice, deviant behavior and criminal justice, poverty and welfare, and others. The consensus seems to be that more interdisciplinary training is needed if PhD students are to operate in other roles and other settings than the university. For example, a social psychologist serving as a consultant for establishing community programs for reducing intergroup tension will have to have a broader knowledge, orientation, and expertise to function effectively in this respect than what he gets in the conventional

PhD program in social psychology.

Proshansky (1972) argues that psychology PhD programs in social, child, personality, clinical, and others have been purist in that, even when concern is with major social issues, these programs remain encapsulated from the real social settings in which the problems arise. The student's experience is more abstract than real. A solution would be to evolve cooperative relationships with the community, in which graduate schools would provide the community with the expertise of an interdisciplinary faculty, and the community in turn providing the graduate school with opportunities to involve students in community-based curricular, administrative, and research experience on a continuing basis. Proshansky (1972) believes that the only way to design research which is relevant and useful to the community, as well as scientifically important, is to make a long-term commitment to the community; to go in and really work, becoming permanent members of the team. Proshansky (1972) also sees psychology as having come of age to the point of justifying the existence of clearly professional programs in addition to the more traditional varieties. Different programs are needed for the different kinds of skills its graduates will need in order to function effectively in the particular roles being chosen by them.

CHAPTER VIII

SUMMARY

The discipline of psychology is rapidly growing and changing; therefore, it is worthwhile to periodically review existing trends. Kiesler (1976) and Peterson (1976) speak to the profession of psychology's need to describe itself, represent a point of view on funding of research and training, and emphasize its potential. The profession, conceivably through organizations like APA, needs to transmit facts about psychology to federal agencies, other funding bodies, and decision makers so that psychological knowledge and expertise can play a more plausible role at the national level. Kiesler (1976) states that "psychology cannot be taken seriously nationally without some active effort on our part to communicate to significant others what psychology is all about."

In addition, students contemplating entering careers in psychology need information about what psychologists do, how much they are paid, and directions that the profession is taking. Practicing psychologists, whether academic or applied, also have need of information regarding trends in the profession, in order to make informed plans for their futures and to educate themselves in areas in which their knowledge may be deficient. Directors of psychology graduate programs need feedback on whether what they taught their students has been helpful professionally, and what changes need to be made in graduate programs to make them more congruent with the actual demands placed on psychologists in their professional lives. Finally, psychologists might be presumed to be

just plain nosey about what their colleagues are up to.

For all of these reasons, a study was undertaken of all the graduates of the Department of Psychology at Loyola University of Chicago, for the years 1930 through 1974. Two previous studies of the Loyola graduate population were done by Medina (1958) and Kobler and Doiron (1968). The current study updates knowledge about the Loyola population, suggests trends by making comparisons with the two previous Loyola studies, and may be viewed as an indicator of issues affecting the profession at large. Although several surveys have been done in recent years on demographic characteristics of psychologists, two recent ones being those done by Kiesler (1976) and Garfield & Kurtz (1976), none have presented a precise analysis of graduates' evaluations of their training, in addition to studying relationships between degree status, sex, salary, gross income, employment setting, employment status, area of psychology in which the highest degree was received, major psychological area of work, years of experience, and age.

Method

The study employed a questionnaire which was sent out for the first time in June of 1974, after being critically reviewed by the director of the clinical psychology graduate program at Loyola University of Chicago, Dr. Frank Kobler. Design objectives for the questionnaire included the utility of the format for statistical tabulations of data about psychologists and the profession, including representations of the qualifications and interests of psychologists, so that file searches could be made for those having specified characteristics.

In its final construction, the questionnaire consisted of an introductory cover letter and twenty-one open-ended questions,

mimeographed on five standard-sized pages, with Loyola University letterhead on the first page. The areas covered included present location; past and present employment setting, location, and position title; whether in psychological or non-psychological positions; hours worked per week; income; number of years worked at each position; and the nature of the actual work activities. Respondents were asked for their date of birth, whether they were members of the clergy, and the degrees which they held whether from Loyola or elsewhere. Information was requested on professional affiliations, and whether the respondent was licensed or certified as a psychologist. A paragraph summarizing the activities that the respondent typically engages in during an average week was requested, as well as the psychological procedures that respondents employ. The respondent was asked to indicate whether his thesis or dissertation was ever published, what area of psychology he would classify it in, and to enumerate any subsequent research, whether it was published or not, and any research grants received or presentations before professional groups. Graduates were asked whether graduate students should have supervised experience in teaching and in administration. They were finally asked to give an overall rating of their training on a six-point scale, and to evaluate their training by enumerating what was helpful, not helpful, and changes they would like to see made in the program.

The names of all past graduates were collected from records kept in the Psychology Department Office at Loyola, and addresses were obtained from various sources, including the Alumni Master File Roster Report, psychology department files, faculty members, students, respondents who had kept in touch with their contemporaries, motherhouses and directors of religious orders, the Archdiocese of Chicago, and directories of various

professional associations, including most prominently the directories of the American Psychological Association and the Illinois Psychological Association. At least one tentative address per graduate was obtained.

Two follow-up letters were sent to encourage return of the forms, which were signed by the director of the clinical training program, and some of which carried personal notes written by him to the recalcitrant respondents. The first follow-up letter was mailed in August 1974, and the second was mailed in October 1974. The completed forms were received, tabulated, and analyzed with regard to quantitative and qualitative features by the author.

Personal and Professional Characteristics

A total of 726 advanced degrees (MA and PhD) were earned through the Department of Psychology at Loyola University from 1930 through 1974. Of these 726 degrees, 483 were MA degrees and 243 were PhD degrees. One hundred and forty-eight of the 243 PhD recipients also earned their MA degrees at Loyola University, meaning that a total of 578 individuals have earned the 726 advanced degrees.

Replies were received from 335 (58%) of the graduates. The original Loyola study done by Medina (1958) reported a return rate of 83%; the study done by Kobler and Doiron (1968) had a return rate of 63%. Information which could be incorporated into this report was received from all 335 of the respondents, but because of the open-ended nature of the questionnaire, different numbers of graduates responded to each of the variables that were established, which will be pointed out as it arises in reporting the results of this study.

A greater percentage (82.3%) of the PhD recipients responded than the MA recipients (66.3%). This return rate is similar to that reported by

Kobler and Doiron (1968) who had 83% of the PhD recipients respond, as compared to 47% of the MA recipients. Overall, 42% of all graduates from the department of psychology hold the doctorate, and 58% have the master's degree as their highest degree. Of the respondents, 59% possess the doctorate. An increasingly greater number of graduates for each ten-year period from 1930 to 1974 were granted both MA's and PhD's.

The sex ratio of graduate degree recipients in the Department of Psychology at Loyola University has changed markedly during different spans of time. From 1930 to 1936 all the graduates who received Master's degrees were women. Medina (1958) reported that up until 1954, 56% of the Loyola graduates had been men. This increasing percentage of male over female graduates continued to hold true at the time of the Kobler and Doiron study (1968) when they reported that 66% of the 343 graduates were men. For the forty-five year period 1930 through 1974, which the present study takes us to, men have received 73% (527) of all degrees and women have received 27% (199). When comparing the current proportion of men to women receiving advanced degrees to those of previous studies, the trend is for an increasingly greater proportion of men to receive advanced degrees. The respondents to this study are also representative of the total population of Department of Psychology graduates on the dimension of the proportion of men to women MA's versus PhD's.

An important aspect of the Loyola population is the high proportion of members of religious orders, both men and women, to the rest of the graduates. Of the 335 respondents, 103 (30.7%) are members of religious orders or are clergymen. The proportion of religious respondents in this current study is similar to the total proportion of religious graduates reported by Medina in 1958 (26%) and by Kobler and Doiron in

1968 (25%). Almost one-third of all master's degrees (32%) and nearly a quarter of all doctorates (20%) have been awarded to clergy. Female religious account for 9% of all MA's and 5% of all PhD's among the respondents, while male religious account for 23% of all MA's and 15% of all PhD's among the respondents.

Medina (1958), Kobler and Doiron (1968) and the present study all indicate that the average age at which Loyola's psychology graduates receive their advanced degrees has steadily declined since the first degrees were awarded in 1930. The mean age obtained in the present study for acquiring the MA at Loyola is 31.1 years; the median is 29 years and the mode is 25. For the doctorate, the mean age is 33.6 years; the median 32 years; and the mode 29 years. Interesting differences are found among the respondents to the present study when comparing those respondents who earned the MA only from Loyola, to those who later went on to also earn the PhD. The average age for receiving the MA degree among those respondents for whom that is the highest degree earned at Loyola, is 33.7 years. For those respondents who later earned the PhD, however, the average age upon receipt of the MA was 28.8 years. This suggests that those students who enter graduate school at a younger age tend to continue their education towards the PhD. Religious graduates, however, tend to receive both the MA and PhD several years later, on the average, than lay graduates. Kobler and Doiron (1968) speculated that this is due to the long periods of training which religious typically undergo before beginning graduate school, or alternatively that many religious begin graduate school after working in other positions.

The typical Loyola psychology graduate comes to Loyola from an undergraduate university in the Midwest, usually in the Chicago area.

Of the 313 respondents for whom information is available, 71 (23%) attended Loyola University as undergraduates. Thirty-two percent came from undergraduate colleges or universities in the Chicago area, and 46% came from Illinois. Other colleges that could be identified as Roman Catholic were the source of undergraduate training for 217 (70%) of the respondents. Again, the current data is comparable to the results reported by Medina in 1958 and by Kobler and Doiron in 1968. Medina (1958) found that Loyola University accounted for a third of the undergraduate degrees, and Kobler and Doiron (1968) found that 28% of their respondents attended Loyola University as undergraduates. As in the past studies, a significant number of Loyola graduates remain in Chicago or in the Midwest, the area from which they came. Twenty-one percent of all respondents live in the metropolitan Chicago area alone, and 49% live in Illinois. Another 18% live in the Midwest. But graduates also live in 33 states; and 21 graduates live in several foreign countries.

Loyola graduates belong to a total of 194 different professional organizations. The American Psychological Association claims the largest number of Loyola graduates, with 198 of the 335 respondents (59%) being a member at some level. The organization claiming the next largest number of respondents as members is the Illinois Psychological Association, with 76 members (22.7%), followed by the Midwestern Psychological Association, 40 members (11.9%); the American Association for the Advancement of Science, 19 members (5.7%); the Association of Humanistic Psychologists, 14 members (4.2%); and Psychologists Interested in Religious Issues, 10 members (3.0%). The most heavily joined societies reflect the concentration of Loyola graduates in the Midwest. Only 43 of the 335 respondents (12.8%) reported that they belonged to no organizations,

but 38 (11.3%) of the respondents did not answer this question, for a hypothetical total of 24.1% of all respondents belonging to no professional organizations whatever. The mean number of professional organizations that MA only respondents belong to is 1.45; while the mean number of organizations PhD respondents belong to is 2.87.

Of the total number of PhD recipients who responded to the questionnaire, 64.7% were licensed or certified as psychologists. Since 68.7% of the total number of PhD recipients received their doctorate in clinical psychology, by extrapolation the majority of the group that would be interested in licensing does seem to have their license to practice psychology. However, very few women are licensed, with respect to the total proportion of Loyola graduates that women represent.

Areas of Psychological Research

The major research conducted by a Loyola psychology graduate is still the thesis and/or dissertation; for 70% of the respondents, the thesis or dissertation is the only research conducted, as judged by reported published research. Of the 464 theses and dissertations submitted for advanced degrees in psychology at Loyola University over the past 45 years 84, or 18.1%, have been published. Analysis of the areas in which thesis and dissertation work was done shows that the clinical, personality, social, and experimental areas account for the bulk of the research done (40.0%, 17.9%, 13.0%, and 10.9%, respectively); for both ultimate MA and ultimate PhD recipients. There is also a definite tendency for graduates to be employed in areas that correspond to the areas in which they did their major research.

When research excluding the thesis and dissertation is considered, there have been 828 published articles written by 93 authors, which gives

a mean of 8.9 and a median of 4 articles per author. When the total number of respondents is considered, however, 828 articles represent the publications of the 335 respondents, which is 2.5 articles per respondent. Only twenty-seven percent of the respondents account for all the publication activity. Respondents who received a terminal master's degree, whether or not they published their thesis, had a much lower publication rate subsequent to their thesis research than respondents who received the doctorate: those with a terminal master's, who published their thesis had a subsequent publication rate of 0.29 articles per respondent; MA's who did not publish their thesis, 0.20 articles per respondent; PhD's who published their dissertation, 4.7 articles per respondent; PhD's who did not publish their thesis or dissertation, 3.67 articles per respondent subsequently.

Four hundred and fifty-three papers were presented by 105 individuals before professional groups or organizations, excluding papers presented concerning thesis or dissertation research, for a mean of 4.3 papers per author. Thirty-one percent of the respondents are responsible for all the papers presented before professional groups. PhD's who publish their thesis or dissertation are most likely to present papers before professional organizations, followed by PhD's who do not publish their thesis or dissertation, and graduates with terminal master's degrees, whether they publish their thesis or not.

Seventy-six respondents have received a total of 192 research grants and fellowships, a mean of 2.5 per recipient, and 0.6 grants per respondent to this survey. Twenty-three percent of the respondents are responsible for all the research grants and fellowships.

Fifty-six percent of the respondents felt all graduate students should have supervised experience in teaching; 23.9% of the respondents felt that graduate students should have experience in administration. Many respondents commented that such experience should be contingent upon students' interests, skills, and career goals.

Employment and Financial Aspects of Psychology as a Profession

The evaluation of the supply of psychologists in different specialty areas and their current professional activities is needed as a gauge for formulating training goals and recruiting practices. Information needed to help deans, department chairmen, professors in universities, and the psychologist who has finished or is finishing graduate school and wants to map out his career, make good choices includes knowing the number of available psychologists at various degree levels; their salaries by sex, degree status, age, and number of years of experience in the field; the relative number of psychologists in different fields of specialization and their salaries; the kinds of professional activities that psychologists engage in most frequently; and the employment settings in which they work.

One hundred and thirty-eight, or 88% of the 156 PhD respondents are employed either full-time, or full-time and part-time in psychological positions. In contrast, only 54, or 69% of the 78 MA respondents are employed either full-time, or full-time and part-time in psychological positions. Five PhD's and 10 MA's are employed at least full-time in non-psychological positions. When contrasting men and women graduates, 91% of the male PhDs and 72% of the male MA's are employed at least full-time in psychological positions; while only 79% of the female PhDs and 64% of the female MA's are employed at least full-time in psychological

positions.

A large number of psychology graduates are employed in more than one position. Of the 127 male doctorates, 89 (70%) hold two or more positions. Seventy-two percent of female doctorates, 53% of male MA's and 60% of female MA's hold two or more positions. Secondary positions tend to be such jobs as consulting, private practice, and administration. Mean salaries from the main current position was $20,081.51 a year for male doctorates; $17,344.90 for female doctorates; $13,828.87 for male MA's; and $9,803.64, for female MA's. Overall, the master's degree respondents earn an average of $7,000.00 a year less than the PhD respondents, and women earn somewhat less than men, in their main current positions. When income from all positions is considered (gross income), the mean gross income is $23,411.05 for doctorates, an average increase of nearly $4,000.00 per year over the salary from the main current position when all sources of additional income are taken into consideration. For MA's, mean gross income is $13,600.72 a year; this is $10,000.00 a year less on the average than the doctorates. Also, the master's recipients on the average pick up only an extra $1,000.00 a year in income over what they receive from their main current positions. At the doctoral level, a considerable difference exists between the gross income of men and women. Male doctorates have a gross income of $24,485.15, in contrast to female doctorates who have a gross income of $18,707.24. Male doctorates, both those working in the field of psychology and in non-psychological jobs, acquire much more money in the form of additional income from part-time jobs over and above their main current position than female doctorates do. The same relationship holds true at the master's level although less dramatically. The male MA recipients have a gross income mean of $14,975.28;

female MA's mean gross income is $10,686.64. Male respondents with either master's degrees or doctorates and who are employed in non-psychological positions earn much more money than their counterparts employed in psychological positions. No such clearcut relationship holds for women. The implication seems to be that if you are a man and have received only a master's degree in psychology, you are better off seeking employment in non-psychology related fields if you seek to maximize your income.

Twenty-eight percent of all male and female doctorates work in university settings, excluding medical schools; and twenty-three percent are employed in hospitals. Thus, over half of all doctorates are employed in academic positions in universities, or in hospitals. Female master's degree recipients are spread over the entire range of employment settings, without concentrations in any particular area. However, 26% of all male master's recipients are employed in religious institutions, with the rest being spread over all other employment settings. The large number of male MA's in religious institutions is due to the many priests who receive MA's in counseling and who later go back to their parishes.

Male respondents with doctorates make the greatest salary when they are employed by business or industry (mean of $34,000.00 a year), followed by employment in independent or group practice, two year colleges, consulting firms, and correctional systems. The settings in which the greatest number of male doctorates are employed, universities (excluding medical schools) and hospitals, pay a mean salary of only $18,567.40 and $18,945.87, respectively.

Female doctorates are employed in less varied settings than their male counterparts. The one female doctorate who has a private practice earns $25,000.00 a year. Women doctorates who work in four-year colleges

do much better than male doctorates who work in four-year colleges: women earn an average of $21,740.00 per year, while men earn only $14,041.70 a year. Except for the one female doctorate who works in a religious institution, the other employment settings pay women between $15,000.00 and $17,833.33 a year. Obviously, women doctorates who work in the same employment setting as male doctorates earn less money.

Looking at male respondents with terminal master's degree, well-paying employment settings range from private practice ($40,000.00 a year) through business and industry ($31,400.00 a year), through associations and societies, government agencies, regional school districts, and law enforcement agencies. The setting in which the greatest percentage of male MA recipients from the Loyola sample is employed, religious institutions, pays the worst: a mean of only $6,275.71 a year.

Female respondents with terminal master's degrees make the most income when they are employed in a government agency or in a business or industry ($20,000.00 a year). The next best paid group are those working for regional school districts, who make an average of $14,420.20 a year. Women with only master's degrees in other employment settings do relatively poorly, ranging from a mean of $10,000.00 a year for those working in four-year colleges, to only $3,133.33 a year for those working in religious institutions.

This study was also interested in how respondents tended to view themselves professionally. Consequently, they were asked to indicate their primary self-view from among several categories. A majority viewed themselves as clinical practitioners. Among male doctoral recipients, 39% identified clinical psychology as their major psychological area of work, followed by teaching, 24%; administration, 11%; research, 9%; and

private practice, 5%, with smaller numbers in other major psychological areas of work. The largest percentage of female doctoral recipients (45%) identified clinical psychology as their major psychological area of work. This was followed by teaching, 28%; research, 10%; administration, 7%; and counseling, 7%.

Twenty-five percent of male master's degree recipients identify clinical psychology as their major psychological area of work. Nineteen percent each identify administration and counseling as their major area of work. These are followed by teaching, 9%; research, 7%; vocational and educational guidance, 4%; industry and business, 4%; and school psychology, 2%. Thirty-six percent of women with master's degrees identify counseling as their major psychological area of work. This is followed by clinical psychology, 24%; research, 12%; vocational and educational guidance, 8%; and school psychology, 8%.

According to the 1972 APA study (Boneau and Cuca, 1974), psychologists spend 39% of their time in application and practice. The Loyola group spends an even larger amount of time in application and practice, with 51% identifying clinical, vocational and educational guidance, private practice, counseling, school psychology, neuropsychology, or rehabilitation psychology as their major psychological area of work. The trend clearly appears to be in the direction of greater and greater proportions of psychologists being engaged in application and practice, while fewer are engaged in teaching.

For the Loyola group, at the time of the study, male doctoral respondents had a median of 6 years of experience post-PhD; female doctoral respondents had a median of 4.5 years of experience post-PhD; male MA's, 4 years; and female MA's, 5 years. Salary tends to increase

for male doctorates from Loyola until about 10 years post-PhD, when the mean salary is $27,466.67. After that time, the mean salary begins to decline slightly. Salary for female doctorates is more variable than it is for male doctorates from the Loyola sample, although part of the variability may be due to the much smaller number of female doctorates (29 responses) than male doctorates (127 responses). However, except in one case, female doctorates with less than 10 years of experience are not earning mean salaries in excess of $20,000.00 a year, while male doctorates with more than 5 years of post-PhD experience are almost uniformly earning more than $20,000.00 a year. Salaries for men with master's degrees very generally tend to increase with number of years of experience post-MA; however, a great deal of variability exists. Men with master's degrees do not tend to have salaries or gross incomes in excess of $20,000.00 a year until 9 years post-MA. Data was available for only 25 women with terminal master's degrees. No clear relationship exists between number of years of experience post-master's degree for women and their salaries. However, no female with a terminal master's degree has a salary or gross income in excess of $15,000.00 a year who has not been employed at least 12 years post-MA. Both men and women with master's degrees and PhD's usually hit their earning peak in their late forties.

The graduates were asked to list the psychological procedures which they use regularly. Eighty-eight percent of the total group of respondents answered this question. Data indicate that the most frequently employed procedure for all groups is counseling and individual psychotherapy, used by 62.4% of the respondents. Respondents with the master's degree who are either religious or lay people, and doctorates who are religious,

employ these procedures more often than any others. The exception is lay doctorates, 71.0% of whom do consulting, in contrast to a relatively smaller group of 63% who are engaged in counseling and individual therapy. The next most frequently employed procedure is consulting, which 59.4% of all respondents claim to be engaged in. Approximately forty percent of all respondents indicated that they engaged in the practice of group psychotherapy; program development and administration; psychological testing and diagnosis; and the training and supervision of staff, trainees, and graduate students.

Research was named as a professional activity by about 20% of the master's-level lay and doctoral-level religious respondents. Research is engaged in most frequently by doctoral-level lay respondents (29%); but only 0.3% of the master's level religious respondents listed it as a professional activity. Professional and scientific writing was noted by 14% of the respondents overall as a professional activity. About 25% of all doctoral respondents listed it as an activity; while only 4% of the master's-level lay respondents and none of the master's-level religious respondents listed it as an activity. About 6% of all respondents were involved with the screening of seminarians and novices into religious life and with their counseling. Clinical interviewing was mentioned as a specific activity by only 6.6% of the respondents overall.

Attitudes Towards Training

In view of the controversies regarding the relative merits of the scientist-practitioner model versus professional school training, and the apparent widespread dissatisfaction with graduate training in psychology in general (Freedman, 1976; Glickman & DiScipio, 1975; Leitenberg, 1974; Levis, 1974; Peterson, 1976; Proshansky, 1972; Shemberg, Keeley &

Leventhal, 1976; Stricker, 1975), the responses of the Loyola group in terms of rating of their training was somewhat surprisingly positive. In response to a six-item rating scale on graduate training, ranging from "superior" to "poor", over half (59%) of the group labeled the training they received either "Excellent" or "Superior", just as they did in the 1958 study by Medina. The lowest two ratings of "Poor" and "Fair" received only 3% of the ratings. The graduates as a group clearly felt that their training was of a high quality. In addition, no matter whether the graduates were analyzed according to sex (male or female), degree status (MA only, PhD), or religious status (religious versus lay), no significant relationships emerged between these variables and rating of training.

The majority (97%) of our sample took advantage of the opportunity to offer comments on their graduate training -- what was helpful, what was not helpful, and changes that should be made. For the 307 graduates who made specific comments about the training they received, the number of comments made to particular subject matter was 2,059. The mean number of comments per person was 6.7, but ranged from one to as many as twenty-eight. Since the questions regarding attitudes on graduate training were open-ended, a precise analysis of the responses was not feasible. Also, the graduates who received degrees from Loyola over the course of the last 45 years were not commenting on the same graduate program: nonetheless, the issues, programs, and procedures which have come into prominence for the graduates in their current professional roles are significant insofar as they point out trends in the profession, areas that need revision, and information needed in the professional world that should be taught in graduate school.

For the question, "Keeping in mind the work that you now do as a psychologist and remembering how we at Loyola trained you, what did we do that was helpful?", 848 separate comments were made by 301 of the respondents. The most frequently mentioned aspect of training which was said to be helpful was the generally very sound coursework, and of the specific courses mentioned, training in diagnostic psychological testing and assessment was generally conceded to be most useful. Next most frequently mentioned helpful courses were therapy courses, both individual and group, followed by personality theory, abnormal psychology, counseling, statistics, and skills training courses. The good integration of practical experience and theoretical insight in the practicum courses and experiences was mentioned in 199 responses.

One hundred and eleven responses indicated that instructors were helpful and accessible. Supervision was mentioned in 65 replies as being helpful, and sixty respondents found their research experience to be helpful. Thirty-seven respondents made comments about the self-knowledge and self-improvement they gained while in the program at Loyola, and about the growth experiences they had. The experience at the Loyola Guidance Center was seen as being very helpful in nineteen responses; seventeen graduates commented on the practical clinical skills they were taught in the program. A few graduates mentioned several other areas of their training that were helpful.

For the question, "What did we do that was of little or no help?", 539 separate comments were made by the 335 respondents. Ninety-three respondents ignored the question altogether or gave vague answers that were not responsive to the question. Thirty respondents said that no changes needed to be made.

The most frequently mentioned aspect of training that was negatively criticized related to specific courses (134 responses). Most frequently mentioned were statistics, philosophically oriented courses, experimental psychology, various systems and theories courses, and academic therapy courses and diagnostic testing courses. Sixty-eight respondents felt the coursework was too routine, traditional, and conservative. A frequent comment was the lack of integration between theory and practice in many courses.

Fifty-four respondents mentioned a variety of problems with faculty. Most of these comments had to do either with personal problems particular graduates had with particular faculty members, or were complaints about the general quality of the teaching. Thirty-one respondents felt that there was not enough teaching of needed practical clinical skills and not enough clinical practice and experience. Sixteen respondents said that the foreign language requirement was not useful, in that they rarely, if ever, used the foreign language after passing the language exam. Fourteen responses were directed towards inadequacies in the counseling psychology program. Most of these respondents said more clinical experience was needed for counseling psychology students, since most of them would eventually be doing clinically oriented work. Eleven respondents felt that there was too much emphasis placed on the thesis and dissertation, at the expense of other needed supervision and training. Areas in which respondents felt training was needed included neuropsychology, physiological psychology, learning disabilities, community work, systems and politics of the profession, and school psychology, all with an emphasis on practicum work. A few respondents commented on the lack of adequate research facilities, and a lack of discussion of professional opportunities

and the mechanics of setting up a private practice.

Two hundred and seventeen respondents made 758 different suggestions about ways in which the department could be improved. One hundred and eight of these comments were regarding additional programs and seminars that respondents felt should be incorporated into the program. These included programs of visiting speakers, departmental colloquiums, "critical issues" seminars to keep graduates appraised as to what is going on in the field currently, a seminar on grant-writing, school psychology, survival and success in the professional world, marriage counseling, rehabilitation psychology, administrative skills, supervision of others, and neuropsychology.

Eighty-six comments were made in reference to practicum training and experience, and most of these comments indicated that more internship and practicum experience should be offered than is presently available. Ten of these respondents said that there should be better specification of the training responsibilities of both the university and practicum agency. Seventy-two respondents made comments about the faculty and the quality of teaching. Seventeen respondents suggested that teaching quality could be improved by using professional consultants and trainers, and 25 graduates expressed the need for more honest exchange of teachers and students. Sixty-four suggestions were made for improving the quality of the counseling and psychotherapy skills taught at Loyola, including more detailed exposition of different psychotherapeutic approaches and a closer alignment of these approaches with internship training, and more and better supervision in therapy.

Fifty-two graduates made comments about research; 33 of these comments indicated that more research activity and interest within the

department would be desirable, and more opportunities to collaborate on research with the faculty would be useful. Research courses also need to be taught by faculty actively involved in publishing research, and need to have more emphasis placed on sophisticated methodology and statistics.

Forty-eight responses suggested more interdisciplinary emphasis, including taking relevant courses at other universities when they are not offered at Loyola. Forty-seven respondents indicated the need for a greater orientation toward clinical work and the development of specific clinical skills. Forty-five comments were made about the quality of coursework. Most had to do with wanting more opportunity to structure one's own learning through individualized courses and for-credit practicums. Thirty-seven respondents suggested 36 separate courses that would be valuable additions to the program. Forty-five comments were made about areas of training that should receive more emphasis, including preventative mental health; the interrelationship of culture and personality; child behavior problems; physiological/neurological/biochemical coursework; computer simulation of cognitive processes and mathematical modeling of human behavior; mental retardation; corrections; learning and perceptual difficulties; and consultation. Nineteen comments emphasized providing a broad, general background in both theoretical psychology and experiential opportunities; 17 comments were directed towards increasing personal growth experiences. Ten respondents said that more help with placement after graduation is needed. Smaller numbers of respondents suggested specific changes in the experimental, counseling, clinical, and social psychology programs.

Summary and Conclusions

The current survey of Loyola University's advanced degree recipients in psychology indicates that, as in the past, the typical graduate comes to Loyola from a midwestern university and tends to settle in Chicago or the Midwest. The average age at which psychology graduates receive their advanced degrees continues to decline. Fifty-nine percent of all graduates belong to the American Psychological Association, the professional organization most frequently joined; the other most heavily joined societies reflect the concentration of Loyola graduates in the Midwest. Almost 65% of the PhD respondents were licensed or certified as psychologists; the majority of the group that would be interested in licensing does seem to have their license to practice psychology.

The major research conducted by a Loyola psychology graduate is still the thesis or dissertation; for 70% of the respondents the thesis or dissertation is the only research conducted. As in the past, thesis and dissertation research is oriented primarily to the clinical-personality area. A definite tendency exists for graduates to be employed in areas that correspond to the area of their thesis and dissertation research. Outside of the thesis and dissertation, only 2.5 articles have been published per respondent, and only 27% of the respondents account for all the publication activity.

A majority of respondents to the Loyola survey held more than one position. Mean salaries from their main current position was $20,081.51 a year for male doctorates; $17,344.90 for female doctorates; $13,828.87 for male MA's; and $9,803.64 for female MA's. Overall, the master's degree respondents earn an average of $7,000.00 a year less than the PhD respondents, and women earn somewhat less than men from their main

current positions. Over half of all doctorates are employed either in academic positions within universities or in hospitals. Master's degree recipients are spread over the entire range of employment settings, without concentrations in any particular area. The largest salaries are paid by business and industry, and private practice.

A majority of the respondents to this study viewed themselves as clinical practitioners, with over half identifying clinical, vocational and educational guidance, private practice, counseling, school psychology, neuropsychology, or rehabilitation psychology as their major psychological area of work.

The graduates were asked to list the psychological procedures which they use regularly. The most frequently employed procedure is counseling and individual psychotherapy, used by 62% of the respondents, followed by consulting, which 59% of all respondents claim to be engaged in. Research was named as a professional activity by only about 20% of all respondents.

The majority of the respondents (59%) viewed their graduate training as either superior or excellent. Respondents found their coursework generally excellent, and specifically the diagnostic testing courses to be very helpful. Instructors were seen as being helpful and accessible; supervision was seen as good, and many respondents felt they gained much self-knowledge while in the Loyola program.

The most frequently mentioned aspect of training that was negatively criticized was a variety of specific courses. Other respondents mentioned a variety of problems with specific faculty. Many respondents felt that there was not enough teaching of needed practical clinical skills and not enough clinical practice and experience.

A variety of additional courses and seminars were suggested for incorporation into the psychology graduate program, including programs of visiting speakers; "critical issues" seminars to keep graduates appraised as to what is going on in the field currently; grant-writing; school psychology; survival and success in the professional world; marriage counseling; rehabilitation psychology; administrative skills; supervision of others; and neuropsychology. Many respondents felt that much more research needs to be done in the department, including more opportunities to collaborate on research with faculty. Research courses also need to be taught by faculty actively involved in publishing research, and needs to have more emphasis placed on sophisticated methodology and statistics. Forty-eight responses suggested more interdisciplinary emphasis, including taking relevant courses at other universities when they are not offered at Loyola. As Kobler and Doiron (1968) suggested, the impact of recent changes in the department could be assessed by conducting a similar study with current graduate students, and comparing their responses with those of the respondents to this study.

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APPENDIX II

LOYOLA UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

Lewis Towers * 820 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago, Illinois 60611 * (312) 944-0800

June 1974

To: Former graduate students who have received the M.A. and/or the Ph.D. from the Department of Psychology, Loyola University of Chicago

From: Frank J. Kobler, Professor of Psychology, Director of Clinical Training

Greetings from the Department of Psychology. There are now 551 men and women who have received a graduate degree in psychology from Loyola since the first degree was awarded in 1930. Exactly 242 of these degrees have been the doctorate.

We are writing at this time for several reasons. One is to bring our address files up to date. Another reason is to determine in detail what our psychologists are now doing and how and if we helped them to do it. With such information we can evaluate and change where necessary our curriculum, staff, training procedures, student selection, etc. This will assist us in the improvement of the education of the future Loyola psychologists.

So please complete the following:

1. Name:

Address:

City, State, Country:

Telephone:

Date of Birth:

Religious or Lay?

Degrees (Area, Year, School from which received):

Bachelors:

Masters:

Doctorate:

Are you now pursuing a degree?

We also wish to know your present position or positions, employers, address, and the number of years at this position or type of employment. If you have several positions or means of employment, please indicate each one separately and the amount of time that you devote to each.

Example: 1) Chief Psychologist VA Hospital, Chicago, Ill. 40 hours, 1960-1974. 2) Consultant, Catholic Charities, Chicago, Ill. 5 hours per week, 1962-1974. 3) Lecturer, Loyola University, teach one course, Introductory Psychology, 1974. 4) Private Practice, 10 hours per week, psychotherapy only, 1965-1974.

2. Major Present Position

Position Title:

School, Agency, Company, etc.

Address:

Years in Position:

Salary:

Hours per week (be specific):

Major psychological area of work (e.g., clinical, vocational and educational guidance, teaching, research, industry and business, administration, private practice);

3. Additional Current Positions (use the space on the back of page two if more space is required):

Position Title:

School, Agency, Company, etc.:

Address:

Years in Position:

Salary:

Hours per week (be specific):

General psychological area of work:

4. Past Positions (use the space on the back of page two if more space is required):

Position Title:

School, Agency, Company, etc.:

Address:

Years in Position:

Salary:

Hours per week (be specific):

General Psychological area of work:

5. Professional Affiliations: (APA, IPA, etc.)

6. Licensed or certified as a psychologist in your state or country?

7. Please write a paragraph summarizing the things that you do in a typical week (e.g., administration; teaching; research or writing; professional activities such as assessment, testing, diagnostic work, psychotherapy, intervention, behavior modification, consultation). I will give you an example by writing about what I do. Write or type this on the reverse side of page three.

Most of my time I spend teaching two or three graduate courses, namely abnormal psychology, personality tests and the internship in clinical psychology. In connection with this I supervise the research of several graduate students. I also visit regularly as a consultant, several places to which we send our clinical trainees such as the VA, the State Mental Health Center, University of Illinois, the Chicago Alcoholic Treatment Center, etc. In addition, I am a consultant to the Archbishop of Chicago for the seminary training programs. One day a week I see private clients mostly for therapy but also for some diagnostic work. In addition, I publish, usually one scientific or professional article a year or work on writing a book. Finally, I am always on various committees both in the university and in the community, such as: The Board of Trustees of ABPP; the Chairman of the Illinois State Psychology Committee; The Chicago Commission on the Rehabilitation of Persons; and the University Committee on Faculty Appointments.

8. If relevant to your present position, what psychological procedures do you employ. Indicate the average time per week you spend in each of the following:

_____ Individual psychotherapy
_____ Group psychotherapy
_____ Consultation
_____ Psychological testing
_____ Other (specify)

Research

9. What was the title of your thesis and/or dissertation?

10. Was your thesis ever published? Your dissertation? If so, cite journal in which published.

11. What area would you categorize your thesis and/or dissertation in: child/developmental; clinical; experimental; social; personality, or other?

12. What other research have you conducted since your thesis or dissertation? Has any of this research been published? Cite publications. (Use the back of this page if necessary).

13. Have you presented any papers before a professional group? If yes, give the name of the paper and the organization.

14. Have you ever received a research grant or a research fellowship? If yes, please explain for what, from whom, and how much funding.

Teaching

15. Should all graduate students have supervised experience in teaching and in administration?

Evaluation of the Program

18. Keeping in mind the work that you now do as a psychologist and remembering how we at Loyola trained you, what did we do that was helpful? (e.g., coursework; research, practicum experiences, therapy courses, supervision, etc.) Use back of this page if necessary.

19. What did we do that was of little or no help? Use the back of this page if necessary.

20. What changes in the total training program would you propose to bring it in line with your present professional and work needs? (e.g., general quality; number and experience of the teaching staff; organized social activities; research activity and interest within the department; facilities for training and placement of the students; communications between faculty and students; desirability of interdisciplinary emphasis in training; therapy and practicum experiences; specific courses, etc.).

21. Overall rating of your training: superior, excellent, generally good, adequate, fair, poor.

These comments will be of great importance to us and to future Loyola psychology graduates.

With kindest personal regards,

Frank J. Kobler

Frank J. Kobler, Ph.D.

P.S. If you have a photograph of yourself and/or your family, please send it along.

P.P.S. We will send all of you a copy of our findings when they are completed.

LOYOLA UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

*Lewis Towers * 820 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago, Illinois 60611 * (312) 944-0800*

Department of Psychology

August, 1974

The initial response to the former graduate student questionnaires that we sent out in June was gratifying. However, our returns have been dwindling. We would like to hear from every one of our graduates, regardless of present occupation. We are interested in your present address, your present work whether psychological or not, and your personal evaluations. We hope that our results will not be systematically biased because certain categories of persons do not respond.

We are enclosing another copy of the questionnaire in case you have mislaid the original one we sent you. The task of organizing and analyzing the data will be an imposing one. We hope to get into full swing right away. Thank you very much for your understanding and cooperation.

Sincerely yours,

Frank J. Kobler

Frank J. Kobler, Ph.D.
Professor of Psychology
Director of Clinical Training

FJK/jkb

LOYOLA UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

6525 North Sheridan Road, Chicago, Illinois 60626 * (312) 274-3000

Department of Psychology

October, 1974

This is our second and final follow-up on the information questionnaire that we sent to all of our psychology graduates. Our response from our former students has been exceptionally good. Some of you, however, may have put aside or misplaced the questionnaire. We are, therefore, sending another copy and we ask that you complete and mail it to me. If the questions are in some way inappropriate, please send along your present address, job title, and job description.

Very truly yours,

Frank J. Kobler, Ph.D.
Professor of Psychology
Director of Clinical Training

APPROVAL SHEET

The thesis submitted by Janet Marie Kamer has been read and approved by the following committee:

Dr. Frank J. Kobler, Director
Professor, Psychology, Loyola

Dr. Homer H. Johnson
Professor and Chairman
Psychology, Loyola

The final copies have been examined by the director of the thesis and the signature which appears below verifies the fact that any necessary changes have been incorporated and that the thesis is now given final approval by the Committee with reference to content and form.

The thesis is therefore accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts.

March 14, 1978
Date

Frank J. Kobler
Director's Signature