DOCTORAL DISSERTATION SERIES
Publication No.: 11,344

AUTHOR: Melvin Jerome Ravitz, Ph. D., 1955
University of Michigan

TITLE: FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH THE SELECTION OF NURSING OR TEACHING AS A CAREER

University Microfilms, Ann Arbor, Michigan

FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH THE SELECTION OF NURSING OR TEACHING AS A CAREER

by
Mel Jerome Ravitz

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy in the
University of Michigan
1955

Doctoral Committee:

Professor Robert Cooley Angell, Chairman
Professor Lowell J. Carr
Assistant Professor Gerhard E. Lenski
Professor Rhoda F. Reddig
Assistant Professor Josephine J. Williams

FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH THE SELECTION OF NURSING OR TEACHING AS A CAREER

by Mel Jerome Ravitz

This study seeks to ascertain some factors associated with occupational selection. It investigates this problem by comparing 135 nursing students with 183 teaching students on occupational values and expectation of occupational satisfaction, on occupational attitudes of primary and peer group members, on work-related personal experiences and impressions of these experiences, and on several cultural-demographic factors: occupation of father, religious background, race, size and type of home community.

The data for this study were collected by questionnaires submitted to a representative sample of 87 freshmen and 83 sophomore nursing and teaching students at Wayne University and to 117 freshmen and 56 sophomore nursing and teaching students at Michigan State College.

As expected, nursing and teaching students each think the occupation they are planning to enter will provide them greater occupational satisfaction.

These students differ on the occupational values they esteem; for example, nursing students value being of service to people who need help and being physically active on the job whereas teaching students emphasize expressing their own ideas and imagination on the job, good working hours, and working with children. This difference on occupational values suggests that they play a part in influencing career selection.

At the next level of analysis it is found that some value differences are related to differences between nursing and teaching students on work-related personal experiences and impressions of these experiences. For example, girls who spent any time as a patient in a hospital are apt to value expressing their own ideas and imagination on the job, being one's own boss on the job, and working with children. Those who have a favorable impression of their previous schooling experience value working with children, and expressing their own ideas and imagination.

It is also found that the attitudes of parents and peers of nursing and teaching students differ regarding these two occupations. More parents and peers of nursing students than of teaching students strongly favor nursing as a career choice for their daughters.

Some of the most striking findings show that coming from a business class background, being Jewish, and coming from an urban or large city background are all associated with selection of teaching as a career, and that the opposites of these cultural-demographic factors are related to choosing nursing.

Aware of differences between nursing and teaching students on both parental and peer group member attitudes and work-related personal experiences and impressions of these experiences, the effort is made to relate these to differences on the cultural-demographic factors. Several such significant relationships are discovered. These cultural-demographic factors are also linked with differences on occupational values. This suggests that the cultural-demographic factors operate either through the parental and peer group members' attitudes and the personal experiences and impressions to develop these occupational values or that they operate through some other agents to produce these value differences and ultimately differences in occupational selection of nursing and teaching.

Several social factors: occupational values, parental and peer group members' attitudes, work-related personal experiences and impressions of these experiences, the cultural-demographic factors, are thus found linked to each other and to the selection of nursing and teaching. The association of these factors suggests that recruiters of nursing and teaching students focus on those societal sub-groups whose value structures encourage entry into the respective occupations. These associations suggest also some of the key situations and persons who influence occupational decision-making. Finally, vocational guidance counselors are reminded of the importance of occupational values which are often deeply grounded in peoples' cultural-demographic backgrounds.

PREFACE

The author cannot fill the several pages necessary to name all the persons who contributed their time, their patience, and frequently their ideas to help produce this research report. Specifically, however, mention must be made of those who came to the author's aid at critical moments in his project. These include: Dr. Edgar A. Schuler, Dr. Albert J. Mayer, Dr. Guy L. Swanson, Dean Katherine Faville, Professor Florence Kempf, Professor Troy L. Stearns, Dr. Luker, Dr. Doris Cline, and others too many to mention.

My doctoral committee members in particular merit much praise for steering me away from whatever pitfalls I may have missed, as well as for their patience and positive suggestions, most of which are incorporated in the project and the report. I should like to record my thanks and appreciation to them--And especially to the committee chairman--inasmuch as this appreciation may not have been amply forthcoming in the press of getting the project and the report completed.

My deep appreciation too to Mrs. Mary Patterson for her excellent job of typing this final manuscript; also to Mr. Gernard Sidler for delineating the charts.

Finally, acknowledgement is made to my family, particularly to my wife, who shared for the usual number of years

the doctoral degree tensions and difficulties, and gave constant encouragement to offset them.

Whatever there is to criticize in the present effort must, of course, be attributed to the author himself.

Detroit, Michigan
July, 1964
M.J.R.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
PREFACE.	ii
LIST OF TABLES	viii
LIST OF CHARTS	xi
Chapter	
I. STATEMENT OF PROBLEM AND PREVIOUS RESEARCH . .	1
Introduction and Problem Statement	1
Research on Occupational Attitudes and Values	7
Research on Attitudes of Primary and Peer Group Members.	22
Research on Work-Related Personal Experiences and Impressions and Occupational Selection.	24
Cultural-Demographic Factors as Inhibiting Agents	25
Research on Cultural-Demographic Factors and Occupational Selection	27
Other Research on Occupational Selection . .	33
Occupational Selection as a Sociological Problem.	42
II. THEORETICAL CONSIDERATIONS	44
Values and Attitudes as Related to Behavior	44
Primary and Peer Group Influences Related to Occupational Values and Attitudes	47
Work-Related Personal Experiences and Impressions and Values and Attitudes	50
Cultural-Demographic Factors and Attitudes of Primary and Peer Group Members and Work-Related Personal Experiences and Impressions of Experiences	51

TABLE OF CONTENTS, Continued

Chapter		Page
	Specific Theoretical Orientation: Statement of Theories, Hypotheses, and Explorations.	52
III.	METHODS.	60
	The Questionnaire.	60
	Sample Selection	63
	Procedures of Analysis	66
	Development Plan of Analyses	68
	Causality.	71
IV.	RELATIONSHIP OF OCCUPATIONAL SELECTION TO EXPECTATION OF OCCUPATIONAL SATISFACTION AND TO OCCUPATIONAL VALUES	75
	Occupational Selection and Expectation of Occupational Satisfaction.	75
	Occupational Selection and Occupational Values	79
V.	OCCUPATIONAL SELECTION AND ATTITUDES OF PRIMARY AND PEER GROUP MEMBERS AND WORK-RELATED PERSONAL EXPERIENCES AND IMPRESSIONS OF THESE EXPERIENCES.	89
	Occupational Selection and Attitudes of Primary and Peer Group Members	90
	Occupational Selection and Work-Related Personal Experiences and Impressions of These Experiences.	96
	Occupational Values and Work-Related Personal Experiences and Impressions of These Experiences.	100
	Occupational Values and Work Experience in the Health Field	100
	Occupational Values and Impression of Work Experience in the Health Field	103
	Occupational Values and Impression of Work Experience in the Education Field.	106

TABLE OF CONTENTS, Continued

Chapter		Page
	Occupational Values and Impression of Previous School Experience.	108
	Occupational Values and Any Time Spent as a Hospital Patient.	113
	Occupational Values and Impression of Time Spent as a Hospital Patient	116
VI.	CULTURAL-DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS AND OCCUPATIONAL SELECTION	121
	Selected Cultural-Demographic Factors and Occupational Selection.	121
	Occupation of Father as a Cultural-Demographic Factor.	135
	Size of Community as a Cultural-Demographic Factor.	143
	Type of Community as a Cultural-Demographic Factor.	149
	Race as a Cultural-Demographic Factor	154
	Religious Status as a Cultural-Demographic Factor.	160
	Jewish Religious Background as a Cultural-Demographic Factor.	167
	Residual Characteristics as Cultural-Demographic Factors	175
VII.	SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS	176
	Summary and Interpretation of Major Findings.	176
	Significance of Findings for Social Theory. .	187
	Significance of Findings for Social Practice.	189
	Significance of Findings for Social Research.	192
APPENDICES		
I.	SAMPLE QUESTIONNAIRE.	196

TABLE OF CONTENTS, Continued

Chapter		Page
II.	SAMPLE LETTER TO STUDENTS.	208
III.	INDEX OF EXPECTATION OF OCCUPATIONAL SATISFACTION.	209
IV.	TABLES SHOWING ATTITUDES OF PRIMARY AND PEER GROUP MEMBERS TO SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL VALUES	214
V.	SELECTED QUESTIONS AND NUMERICAL SUMMARIES . .	226
BIBLIOGRAPHY		245

LIST OF TABLES

Table		Page
1.	Number and Percentage of Nursing and Teaching Students by Educational Institution Attending and Class Level.	67
2.	Percentage of Nursing and Teaching Students by Expectation of Occupational Satisfaction	76
3.	Mean Percentage Score of Nursing and Teaching Students by Selected Occupational Values	78
4.	Percentage of Nursing and Teaching Students by Occupations Providing Opportunity to Achieve Selected Occupational Values	81
5.	Occupational Opportunity Percentage Summary Score of Nursing and Teaching Students by Selected Occupational Values	86
6.	Percentage of Nursing and Teaching Students by Selected Attitudes of Primary and Peer Group Members Toward Nursing or Teaching	91
7.	Percentage of Nursing and Teaching Students by Fathers' School Years Completed.	93
8.	Percentage of Nursing and Teaching Students by Work-Related Personal Experiences and Impressions of These Experiences	97
9.	Percentage of Nursing and Teaching Students by Work Experience in the Health Field and by Selected Occupational Values	101
10.	Percentage of Nursing and Teaching Students by Impression of Work Experience in the Health Field and by Selected Occupational Values. . . .	104
11.	Percentage of Nursing and Teaching Students by Impression of Work Experience in the Education Field and by Selected Occupational Values .	107
12.	Percentage of Nursing and Teaching Students by Impression of Previous School Experience and by Selected Occupational Values.	109
13.	Percentage of Nursing and Teaching Students by Any Time Spent as a Hospital Patient and by Selected Occupational Values	114

LIST OF TABLES, Continued

Table		Page
14.	Percentage of Nursing and Teaching Students by Impression of Time Spent as a Hospital Patient and by Selected Occupational Values.	117
15.	Percentage of Nursing and Teaching Students by Selected Cultural-Demographic Background Factors.	124
16.	Percentage of Nursing and Teaching Students by Mothers' Previous Occupational Activity.	129
17.	Number of Nursing and Teaching Students by Occupation of Father and by Fathers' School Years Completed.	133
18.	Percentage of Nursing and Teaching Students with Selected Attitudes, Experiences, and Impressions Favorable to Nursing or Teaching by Occupational Class	137
19.	Percentage of Nursing and Teaching Students Who Value Selected Occupational Values by Occupational Class	140
20.	Percentage of Nursing and Teaching Students with Attitudes, Experiences, and Impressions Favorable to Nursing or Teaching by Size of Home Community	145
21.	Percentage of Nursing and Teaching Students Who Value Selected Occupational Values by Size of Home Community.	147
22.	Percentage of Nursing and Teaching Students with Attitudes, Experiences, and Impressions Favorable to Nursing or Teaching by Type of Home Community	151
23.	Percentage of Nursing and Teaching Students Who Value Selected Occupational Values by Type of Home Community.	152
24.	Percentage of Nursing and Teaching Students with Attitudes, Experiences, Impressions Favorable to Nursing or Teaching by Race	156
25.	Percentage of Nursing and Teaching Students Who Value Selected Occupational Values by Race .	158

LIST OF TABLES, Continued

Table		Page
26.	Percentage of Nursing and Teaching Students with Attitudes, Experiences, and Impressions Favorable to Nursing or Teaching by Religious Status. .	162
27.	Percentage of Nursing and Teaching Students Who Value Selected Occupational Values by Religious Status	164
28.	Percentage of Americans of Various Major Religions by Occupation and by Social Class.	166
29.	Percentage of Nursing and Teaching Students by Religious Status and by Selected Cultural-Demographic Factors.	167
30.	Percentage of Nursing and Teaching Students with Attitudes, Experiences, and Impressions Favorable to Nursing or Teaching by Religious Background	168
31.	Percentage of Nursing and Teaching Students Who Value Selected Occupational Values by Religious Background	172
32.	Percentage of Nursing and Teaching Students by Home Location in State of Michigan and by Size and Type of Home Community	174
33.	Percentage of Nursing and Teaching Students by Fathers' Union Affiliation and Occupational Class of Father.	174

LIST OF CHARTS

Chart		Page
1.	Presumed Causal Connection of Factors. . . .	69
2.	Summary of Significant Relationships	119

CHAPTER I

STATEMENT OF PROBLEM AND PREVIOUS RESEARCH

Introduction and Problem Statement

"The long arm of the job" reaches out and touches heavily every dimension of our lives.[1] Our occupation supplies us with appropriate roles for behavior, identifies us in a society grown anonymous, controls us in a society where the primary agencies of control have been weakened, provides us with sustenance in the complex web of specialized activities.

The centrality accorded occupational status in our

---

[1]Cf. Robert S. and Helen M. Lynd, Middletown and Middletown in Transition (New York: Harcourt Brace & Co., 1929 and 1935 respectively) for two studies that take as their point of departure differences in type of occupation. Also, Dewey Anderson and Percy E. Davidson are quite clear in their evaluation of the importance of occupation: "Occupation provides income, influences the location of residence, develops working habits and makes associations and companionships." Ballots and the Democratic Class Struggle (Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1943), p. 106. E. T. Hiller writes: "Next to age and sex, occupation appears to be the most general basis on which rights and duties are assigned." Social Relations and Structures (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1947), p. 479. Finally, the remarks of Cecil C. North and the late Paul K. Hatt are forthright: "A man's job--occupying nearly one third of his daily life--is more than just a means of livelihood or an outlet for creative energy; it is a vital influence on his existence even beyond working hours. His social position, his economic welfare, and even his daily habits are all determined by the kind of job he holds." "Jobs and Occupations: A Popular Evaluation," Opinion News (Sept. 1, 1947), p. 3.

lives implies that the selection of an occupation is of momentous significance for the individual and for his society. In our American society every man must select an occupation sometime in his late adolescence or early adulthood. Traditionally the male sex has been expected to carry out the various occupational roles of our society. However, increasingly, as our social system becomes more and more equalitarian, women are entering the various fields of work. This means that they too are faced with the same necessity that has perplexed and still perplexes their brothers: the necessity to select from a welter of occupations the one they wish to enter.[1]

In some societies, of course, this necessity to select an occupation does not exist, either for men or for women. In the past, for example, there have been societies where occupational selection was severely limited by the nature of the social system. Ginsburg stresses the existence of this type of social structure:

> There are societies in which there is no occupational choice. This is true of a primitive society where the division of labor is based solely on sex, and status in the political or religious organizations is determined by inheritance or age. In more complex

---

[1]It should be pointed out that in one sense occupational selection is meaningful only for persons who seek careers of some kind and who prepare intentionally in advance to enter these careers. Many people simply have had to take the nearest available job because of economic pressure on them; this extreme necessity cannot be construed as occupational selection in the sense of relative choice. Lloyd Reynolds and Joseph Shister have done a penetrating study of how workers find jobs. This process is often quite casual and cannot be spoken of as selection in the same way that one selects and prepares for any of the professions or for an occupation for which he feels some kind of "calling." Job Horizons (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1949).

> societies a stable caste system provides another example. Here not only religious but social sanctions may compel the sons to follow in the footsteps of their fathers. The estate system of the middle ages is another example. The serfs had little freedom of occupational choice, but they did have some; a few were able to enter the church or run away to the towns.[1]

Moreover, from what accurate information we can gather about the social structure and opportunities in the totalitarian countries of the modern world, we may suggest that in these countries too the necessity for the individual to select an occupation has been reduced and sometimes removed.[2] These totalitarian governments insist on assigning the individual to the occupational post in which it is believed he will make the greatest contribution to his society.

We must thus clearly recognize that occupational selection does not concern all people everywhere. It is only since the rise of capitalist enterprise that individuals on a large scale have been called on to select their own occupations. Prior to that, even in our own society of the eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries there was very little actual opportunity for selecting an occupation. The society then was primarily rural and agricultural, and sons tended to carry on the farm tasks of their fathers. In other instances, sons became lawyers, ministers or doctors, often following the family dictates to pursue the same occupations as

---

[1]Eli Ginsburg et al., Occupational Choice (New York: Columbia University Press, 1951), p. 1.

[2]See especially Alex Inkeles, "Stratification and Mobility in the Soviet Union," American Sociological Review, XV (August, 1950), 465-79.

their fathers. It was only with the expanded division of labor attending the development of capitalist industrial enterprise that the stage was set for the possibility of much individual occupational selection.

We have suggested how great is the importance of his occupation for the individual. All that he possesses, everything that he aspires to become, and to possess and to achieve, in brief everything that happens to him, his wife, and his family will be influenced by the nature of the job he selects.

The ramifications of the individual's occupational selection for the society are likewise vast and numerous. Society, of necessity, is concerned with filling the various positions in its specialized occupational system. The occupation the individual enters can affect the equilibrium of that occupational system. If, for example, two vital occupations are equally in need of personnel, and if many persons enter one occupation while few select the other, the society is confronted with the need to encourage entry into the less attractive occupation. Society and the individual are both affected by the occupational selection made by members of the society.[1]

---

[1]E. T. Hiller has this to say about the relationship of the individual and his job with the society: "Accordingly, one's vocation makes one a connecting point in, and an expression of, a larger unity. Each specialty promotes certain values for everyone. But no one can specialize unless everybody else in turn carries on his own specialty. Individuals may or may not see that their occupations are part of an interdependent system." Social Relations and Structures (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1949), p. 483.

In the United States we have tended to regard the area of occupational selection as one wherein the individual was completely free to decide for himself what occupation to enter. Indeed, it is a cardinal belief of Americans that the individual can work hard and diligently, and by these means can become anything he chooses. The doctrine of uninhibited individualism continues to captivate many Americans. Still strong is the belief that the factors that may obstruct the individual do not really amount to very much against the drive of "will power" and "character." The Horatio Alger stories have not really disappeared from current American folklore; only the name of the hero has been changed. Ask almost any man or woman and he or she will quickly enumerate the names of his or her particular folk heroes who "made the grade." Not infrequently the person will, with due modesty, mention himself as an example of one who freely selected an occupation and "made good" at it. In no area of human behavior is this faith in the possibility of the individual to make his own decision more pronounced than in the area of occupational selection.

Perhaps a brief comment from one of many popular vocational guidance books will suffice to indicate an aspect of this widespread belief in free occupational choice. The foreword of one of these books states:

> This book was written for the express purpose of bringing you the proof that success is within the grasp of all of us, and that the means thereto lies

within ourselves. It is divided into three parts--FIND YOURSELF--FIND YOUR JOB--FIND SUCCESS.[1]

This outlook is duplicated in most of the popular books on vocational guidance that the investigator examined. It is also found in the attitudes of ordinary individuals in the society, both in their conversation and in the books and magazines written by and for them. With little effort it would be possible to cull from the folklore and the literature many other comments that emphasize the popular belief in free occupational selection.[2]

If it is true that people decide capriciously what careers they are going to enter, then any hopes of developing scientific generalizations in this area are doomed; then we cannot expect to discover any really basic social factors associated with selection of an occupation; then occupational selection is based on the chance whim, fancy and personal inclination of the individual, and any attempt to find uniform characteristics associated with persons in the same occupation is fruitless.

A basic working assumption underlying this study is

---

[1] Esther Eberstadt Brooke, Guide to Career Success (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1947), p. ix.

[2] That admirable chapter in the Lynds' second volume, which is called "The Middletown Spirit," includes a list of the shibboleths many Americans live by. We find here such convictions as the following: "That the poor boy to president way is the American way to get ahead." "That a man really 'gets what is coming to him' in the United States." "That any man who is willing to work hard and to be thrifty and improve his spare time can get to the top. That's the American way and it's as true today as it ever was." Middletown in Transition (New York: Harcourt Brace & Company: 1935), Chap. XII.

that the popular belief in completely free occupational selection is untrue. No attempt is made here to enter the controversy involving free will and cultural determinism. The assumed viewpoint is simply that some factors outside the individual influence his occupational decision.

If, then, for purposes of this study, we assume that the individual is not wholly free to select just any occupation at random, or rather, that the individual is not wholly free to wish to enter just any occupation, a legitimate question arises: what are some of the social factors associated with selection of an occupation?

This study seeks to develop an answer to this question by comparing two groups of students: one group enrolled in the nursing curriculum and the other group enrolled in the teaching curriculum. Originally the intention was to study intensively only nursing students and to compare them with students preparing for all other kinds of occupations. This, however, became impossible because of the difficulty of securing an adequate sample of other types of students. The decision was finally made to emphasize the general process of occupational selection as the main point of the project and to use students from only two occupations: nursing and teaching. This is what has been done in the research reported here.

Research on Occupational Attitudes and Values

At the start of this century Barnes considered the nature of children's occupational ideals and attitudes. He

was one of the forerunners of what would be termed today a socio-psychological approach to occupational selection. Using simply the two following questions: "What would you like to do when you grow up? Why?", Barnes pointed to the various attitudes toward occupations that children held. He even attempted to go beyond simple attitude studies to show as one of his conclusions that class differences determine the child's attitude to the several fields of work.[1]

Following immediately in Barnes' footsteps, Wykoff wrote an article in the same vein, asking essentially the same questions of more than a thousand children from selected schools in New York, New Jersey, and Massachusetts. Some of the respondents' statements to Wykoff's questions imply interesting attitudes toward playing the role of the teacher; these are some of the children's comments explaining why they would like to be teachers:

Rose: Therefore I would have a grate deal of knowledge.

Edna: Because you need not be any trouble to your mother and have a pleasant life.

Maude: If I was not a cranky one.

Maggie: Because I could show little girls how to do things.

Lucile: Because I like to write and correck spelling and ritnmetic.

Sophie: Because I can hit the boys when tney are bad.[2]

---

[1]Earl Barnes, "Children's Ideals," Pedagogical Seminary and Journal of Genetic Psychology, VII (1900), 3-12.

[2]A. E. Wykoff, "Children's Ideals," Pedagogical Seminary and Journal of Genetic Psychology, VIII (1901), 482-94.

Other studies of a similar kind continued to probe the area of children's ideals. Chambers conducted his study in Newcastle, Pennsylvania, among 2,500 pupils in the city's schools, all of them under the high school level. The teachers were informed of the project in advance and their cooperation was elicited in administering the questionnaires simultaneously as part of a regular classroom assignment. Chambers modified the earlier used questions somewhat, asking: "1. Write your name and age at the top of your paper. 2. Write an answer to this question: What person of whom you have heard or read would you most like to be? Why?" His responses from 2,350 usable returns indicated a multitude of tnings; among the more interesting conclusions he reached were these: that fewer than one per cent of the children had no ideal at all; that little children tended to specify as ideals persons they were acquainted with, but that this tendency changed rapidly as the children grew older; that although teaching proved to be a popular vocation, teachers were not popular as ideals; that little children gave no reason or at best a very vague one for their preferences; that children were less influenced in their choices of ideals than was generally believed and that their choices apparently came from "the real fibers of their nature as genuinely as did those of adults."[1]

Goddard, a few years later, used the same questions as Barnes in a study of lower class children in Goettingen,

---

[1]W. G. Chambers, "The Evolution of Ideals," Pedagogical Seminary and Journal of Genetic Psychology, X (1903), 101-43.

Germany, where he found that a higher percentage of children than in the American studies gave as their reason for choosing an occupation the belief that they would then have power to do things and that they would have material possessions. Goddard plausibly attributes the high percentage in this instance to the strictly lower class background of the children studied.[1]

Hill in 1911 did a similar study with the same questions, and with the general conclusion that children are different in their occupational attitudes because of different influences exerted upon them.[2]

Two years later, Gilbertson reported a Swedish study of children's ideals done by Georg Brandell of the University of Uppsala. This study was made in the common schools of Gothenburg, Sweden, in September, 1911, using a question similar to that employed in the earlier studies. The following questions on a small slip of paper were given to 889 male and female children between the ages of eight and fifteen: "What person (man or woman) whom you have seen, about whom you have heard, spoken, or about whom you have read would you most like to resemble? Why?" The teachers here too administered the questionnaire. Throughout this study the author endeavored to compare his findings with those reported by Barnes, Chambers,

---

[1]H. H. Goddard, "Ideals of a Group of German Children," Pedagogical Seminary and Journal of Genetic Psychology, XIII (1906), 208-20.

[2]D. S. Hill, "Comparative Study of Children's Ideals," Pedagogical Seminary and Journal of Genetic Psychology, XVIII (1911), 219-31.

and Goddard. In their answers the Swedish children rated intellectual and artistic qualities higher than did the English, Prussian, or American children. Material considerations and such values as fame, honor and social position they rated lower.[3]

At this point in the literature there appears a twenty-year gap in the concern with occupational attitudes. The next reference to these attitudes, though in a much different formulation, occurs in an article by Beynon. He interviewed over a thousand Detroit Hungarians in his inquiry into occupational succession. Among other things, he discovered that Hungarian migrants, who were occupationally frustrated in Detroit, gave to their children idealized descriptions of their old-world occupations.[2]

Gasca, in a study read only in abstract, apparently used designs of some sort, perhaps pictures of people or situations, to inquire of school boys their attitudes and ideas of certain groups such as merchants and employees. By means of what seems to be a projective technique, he found their ideas and attitudes highly conventional and stereotyped--"collective images" he called them, in the Durkheimian tradition.[3]

---

[1]C. N. Gilbertson, "A Swedish Study of Children's Ideals," Pedagogical Seminary and Journal of Genetic Psychology, XX (1913), 100-06.

[2]E. Beynon, "Occupational Succession of Hungarians in Detroit," American Journal of Sociology, XXXIV (March, 1934), 600-10.

[3]D. P. Gasca, "Collective Ideas and Knowledge of Trades and Professions in School Boys: A Study Conducted Using Designs," Riv. Psicol., XXXIV (1943), Abstracted in Psychological Abstracts.

Though further information about this last study is not available in English, mention can be made of another study currently being conducted at the University of Michigan in Ann Arbor by the Bureau of Psychological Services. This study too plans to employ the projective method of showing pictures of nurses in different situations in order to secure the interpretations of student nurses in a series of extensive interviews. The aim of the study is to discover the motives of nursing students in entering that occupation and to relate these motives to personality structure. Together with the pictures and interviews, a short check-off type of questionnaire will be used. Moreover, it is planned to carry on the same kind of investigation with other types of students besides those in nursing.[1]

In addition to these mental images of occupations, children also pick up in the course of their socialization certain sets of values which they are taught to accept as important in selecting an occupation.

Kimball Young, for example, presents some interesting non-experimental material. On the basis of various case studies from his own files collected over a long period of teaching and counseling, he emphasizes the importance of family influence in the formation of occupational values:

> The framework of one's vocation is the result not alone of economic opportunity but of values laid

---

[1]This information was secured by personal interview with Mr. Edward Furst of the Bureau of Psychological Services, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, February 10, 1953.

down for the child in the family and neighborhood.[1]

An early experimental study was conducted by Hurlock and Jansing. In addition to asking name, age, and parents' occupations, they asked the following questions of 1,132 Negro and white boys and girls in the fourteen to eighteen age bracket in Kentucky and in New York City schools:

1. What vocation or profession would you <u>like most</u> to follow? Give reason for your choice.
2. What vocation or profession are you most likely to follow? Explain why you expect to follow it.
3. What vocation or profession do your parents want you to follow? Why?

The teachers were also to use a four-point scale to rate these children on their scholastic abilities. In the second part of question two "almost everyone" explained why tney could not follow the choice specified in the first question. It is not made clear in tnis study whether "almost everyone" refers to those who specified a different vocation for the second question or whether it refers to the fact that "almost everyone" believed they would be unable to follow their first preference. Boys and girls of both racial groups gave as their reason for selecting occupations the answer that tney "like it"; the answer given the next most important was "money" for the boys and "fitted for it" for the girls.[2]

---

[1]Kimball Young, <u>Social Psychology</u>, (2nd Ed.; New York: Crofts, 1946).

[2]E. B. Hurlock and C. Jansing, "Vocational Attitudes of Boys and Girls," <u>Pedagogical Seminary and Journal of Genetic Psychology</u>, XLIV (1934), 175-91.

An excellent study designed to discover the prestige of various occupations was conducted by Bowden, Caldwell, and West. They wrote out eight statements, all alike in thought content, but reportedly made by different occupational types: lawyers, doctors, ministers, businessmen, engineers, professors and educators, public officials, and leading citizens. Respondents, who were junior and senior high school students and college students from Florida to California, were asked to state which of the recommendations they believed should be followed and why they thought so. They were also to state their age, sex, school grade or class. To maintain a non-biased approach the eight statements were rotated permitting sixteen different forms of the same questionnaire to be administered. It was found that more mature students were influenced by the prestige of the professional and civic types while the less mature students were influenced by emotional elements involved in the statements themselves.[2]

In the Spring of 1939, Stevens drew up a representative list of vocations which college trained women tended to follow. This list was presented to students at an Eastern women's college, who were asked to make three ratings of the vocations: (1) according to its contribution to society, (2) according to its financial return, (3) according to its social

---

[1]Probably "mature" in terms of higher grade level, but this is not stated in the article.

[2]A. O. Bowden, F. F. Caldwell, and G. West, "A Study of Prestige," American Journal of Sociology, XXXIV (September, 1934), 193-203.

prestige. They were also asked to pick and rank five vocations they would prefer provided they had the necessary personality and training. Finally, they were asked to rank the three vocations they might probably follow. The girls rated the occupations stressing the importance of three values: contribution to the society, financial return and social prestige, in that order.[1]

In a questionnaire listing of 120 occupations given to 1,486 eleventh and twelfth grade boys in Erie, Pennsylvania, E. W. Nick found that they were interested mainly in becoming accountants, aviators, and aeronautical engineers. Though the boys were asked only for their first, second, and third choices, and not for their reasons, the author interprets the distribution of replies as stemming from the glamour of the occupations selected as well as from a current advertising campaign to recruit accountants. There were also advertising lures that influenced a high proportion of the boys to check "Diesel engineer."[2]

Turning now to studies of teaching and nursing specifically, we find that Herlinger asked 160 high school senior girls of Mt. Lebanon, Pennsylvania, to state why they would not want to become teachers. Implicit in these replies are the occupational values these students esteemed. Twenty-three

---

[1]R. B. Stevens, "The Attitudes of College Women Toward Women's Vocations," Journal of Applied Psychology, XXIV (1940), 615-27.

[2]E. W. Nick, "High School Boys Choose Vocations," Occupations, XX (1941-42), 264-69.

girls mentioned the general term "social reasons" and particularized by pointing to the following factors: "teaching too regulated and monotonous," "want variety and freedom," "teaching too restricted," "too boring to teach over and over every day," and "do not like teachers generally."[1]

Another study that used this negative approach to positive values was conducted by Hood at Northern Montana College. The students, sixty-eight of them, were also asked to list the reasons why they thought teaching disadvantageous. The breakdown of the responses of the ten most important reasons is as follows:

No income during summer	65
Isolation in rural areas	60
Lack of personal freedom	51
Too much preparation required	36
Low salaries	33
Teachers are overworked	30
Community does not appreciate teacher's efforts	23
Job is insecure	21
Marriage often forbidden	16
Community looks down on teachers[2]	11

In 1946 the Metropolitan School Study Council studied the attitudes of 2,706 high school students from forty-seven schools in five states. The aim was to discover the attitudes of these students toward teaching as a career. Ninety-four per cent of the sample selected were not planning to enter teaching; 6 per cent were planning to teach. Among their reasons for wanting to become teacners this latter group indicated:

---

[1]H. V. Herlinger, "And Gladly Teach," Occupations, XXIII (1944-45), 147-51.

[2]C. E. Hood, "What's the Matter with Teaching?," Clearing House, XIX (1944), 227-31.

Teaching is interesting work
Education is important
Intellectual pursuits are enjoyable
Teaching affords security
Teaching is a respected profession

Those not planning to teach emphasized the following disadvantages:

The teaching profession lacks security
Teachers are not respected
Preparation requires too much time and money
There are too many unhappy and incapable teachers in the classrooms now
Teaching is dull and monotonous[1]

This study was conducted by using an extensive questionnaire with opportunity for the students to express their reasons for deciding to enter teaching or for deciding not to. The very fact that there are conflicting reasons presented indicates that different people hold different attitudes and values regarding the teacher. It may possibly be, as Richey and Fox[2] suggest, that this difference of opinion is due to lack of adequate information particularly on the part of those who did not elect teaching because of one or another of the disadvantages mentioned.

In 1948, these authors themselves, Richey and Fox, through the English Department at Indiana University submitted an anonymous questionnaire of some length to 969 men and women

---

[1]Metropolitan School Study Council, Education Dynamics Committee of 1946-47, A Study to Discover the Attitudes of High School Seniors, Teachers, and Parents toward the Profession of Teaching, (New York: Metropolitan School Study Council, 1947), pp. 36.

[2]Robert W. Richey and William H. Fox, An Analysis of Various Factors Associated with the Selection of Teaching as a Vocation, Bulletin of the School of Education, XXIV, Indiana University, p. 43.

students, 91 per cent of whom were freshmen, and the otner 9 per cent scattered among the other three class levels. This total was divided into three categories on the basis of their desire to enter teaching: Group 1 consisted of 46 men and 54 women who were "decidedly yes" in their plan to enter teaching; Group 2 consisted of 105 undecided men and 69 undecided women; Group 3 consisted of those who answered "decidedly no"; there were 490 men and 205 women in this group. The values of these students, both explicit and implicit, can be seen from the following findings: Group 1 members gave tne following reasons for deciding to enter the teaching profession:

10% Good salary
10% Desire for working with young people
10% Social service opportunities
10% Good vocational prestige, personal satisfaction
8% Stimulating working conditions and environment
7% Steady employment, retirement status
7% Opportunity for outside work and recreation
7% Variety of interesting and pleasant activities
7% Opportunities for self-improvement, advancement
7% Liking for the work
4% Social contacts
4% Athletic coaching opportunities
3% Need for teachers
7% Miscellaneous, unclassified

Group 3 members on the other hand gave the following reasons for deciding not to enter the teaching profession:

23% Low salaries as compared with other professions
10% Little or no appeal
8% Restricted personal life,
8% Routine, dull, monotonous duties
6% Another vocation preferred
5% Little or no chance of advancement
5% Too much patience, responsibility
4% Long hours including extra duties and community work
4% Lack of confidence and qualifications
3% Low prestige, respect, social status
21% Miscellaneous, unclassified[1]

---

[1] Ibid., p. 59.

On this questionnaire too the students were permitted an open-ended question to indicate the reasons for their decisions.

Turning to studies made of nursing, we find only a few crude ones of any use in this research. Most studies of nurses have concentrated on the personality characteristics of nurses, or on the job requirements of a career in nursing, or on recruitment propaganda.[1]

Few studies of nursing have inquired directly into the values deemed important by prospective nursing students or by nurses. Few studies have concerned themselves with the attitudes of nurses or students toward the profession, except in the most general fashion. One study that indirectly gives a clue or two to interests of nursing candidates is that reported by Anderson and McManus. They secured a sample of 106 records selected at random from those of 800 nursing candidates. These records were carefully studied with respect to education, vocational experience, and individual activity.

---

[1]Cf. for example the following: Emilie G. Sargent, "Nursing, A Service to Humanity," School and College Placement, (Dec. 1947), pp. 5-10; Nursing Information Bureau, Nursing, A Profession for College Women, (New York, 1943); A. Petrie and Murial Powell, "Personality and Nursing: An Investigation into Selection Tests for Nurses," Lancet, CCLVIII (1950), 363-65; Lily Mary David, The Economic Status of Registered Professional Nurses: 1946-47 (Washington, D.C.: United States Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: 1948); Albert Ellis and Earl Fuller, "The Sex, Love and Marriage Questions of Senior Nursing Students," Journal of Social Psychology, XXXXI (1950), 209-16; Rachel McManus, The Effect of Experience on Nursing Achievement, (New York Bureau of Publications: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1949); "Educating Adolescents to Become Nurses," American Journal of Nursing, XXXXVII (1947).

The results indicate that the average nursing candidate first thought of becoming a nurse when in grammar school or in junior high school. Seventy per cent claimed to have planned a high school program for nursing requirements. English was the subject liked best by 51 per cent of these girls, biology was best liked by 42 per cent, and chemistry by 48 per cent. The fathers of these girls were engaged in trades and manufacturing rather than in the professions.[1]

In 1943, a British team of investigators inquired into the attitudes toward nursing of nursing students, working women, and secondary school girls. A schedule was used in interviewing the sample of 490 nursing students, 1,967 working women, and 354 secondary school girls. A summary of the advantages these three groups saw in nursing is presented below. The figures represent percentages:

	Student Nurses	Working Women	School Girls
Useful, worthwhile	25	38	45
Career, regular work	17	12	5
Can get on	15	3	4
Meet people, see life	14	9	18
Varied, not boring	8	13	13
Useful in marriage	5	17	14
Miscellaneous, other	16	8	2

A summary of disadvantages also tells something about the important values associated with nursing:

---

[1]M. H. Anderson and R. L. McManus, "Interests of Nursing Candidates: The Pattern of Interests and Activities of 800 Pre-Nursing Students," American Journal of Nursing, XLII (1942), 555-63.

	Student Nurses	Working Women	School Girls
Lack of freedom	20	8	9
Long hours, night duty	20	27	25
No room for other interests	15	5	1
Bad pay	11	20	22
Hard work, long training	7	19	28
Can't live at home	7	6	5
Miscellaneous, other	20	14	9

These findings above[1] correspond in general with the investigator's own unpublished data on the advantages and disadvantages of nursing by over a thousand Michigan nursing students.[2]

Having now examined some of the studies relating to occupational selection and occupational attitudes and values, it is pertinent to point to a major methodological failing that seems to pervade them all. In passing it may be well to note that a weakness of some of these studies is the small number of cases included in the sample. The basis of the major failing, however, lies in the approach employed in these studies: all attempt to find answers to the question of why children (adolescents) wanted to enter certain occupations or professions. In this attempt they all assumed that the children or the adolescents could provide direct answers which could be statistically tabulated and tested. This approach, of course, assumes the ability of the individual child or

---

[1]K. Box and E. Croft-White, Recruitment to Nursing, (London: Division of Ministry of Information, 1943), pp. 14-16.

[2]Data gathered by questionnaire from over a thousand freshmen nursing students in Michigan Nursing Schools: 1951-52.

adolescent to assess his own experiences and to sift out from these the relevant factors that precipitated the decision to choose a particular occupation or occupational model. Such an assumption bespeaks a general naivete about the human mental processes. Ginsburg has a short paragraph based on consideration of Paul Lazarsfeld's Jugund und Beruf in which he summarizes Lazarsfeld's position:

> Karl Bueler's theory of motivation had demonstrated that the statistical analysis of stated reasons or motives for vocational preferences or choices would prove inadequate for studying the choice problem. He emphasized that every act or decision has a history and is always a combination of internal and external factors. A mere tabulation of "reasons" for the choices of children therefore carries with it, rather than eliminates, the arbitrary element in the selection of motives. Children cannot possibly evaluate the exceedingly complex matrix of experiences which must have entered into their decision-making, especially since they are not even conscious of some of the most potent factors in their own background.[1]

It may be presumed that this statement in application to children applies almost as fully for adolescents and adults, inasmuch as some of the same mental pitfalls face them.

Research on Attitudes of Primary and Peer Group Members and Occupational Selection

The importance of parents in the process of occupational selection has been recognized and stressed by several authors. Peters, on the basis of a simple check-off device of arbitrarily selected factors, concluded that parents were the most influential factors in determining occupational

---

[1]Eli Ginsburg et al., Occupational Choice, (New York: Columbia University Press, 1951), p. 16.

choices of high school students.[1] Richey and Fox also indicate clearly in their study that "these students were more influenced by their parents than by any other persons in making their vocational selections."[2] Sparling found that of the 46.9 per cent of the students who admitted to being influenced by other persons 44.2 per cent specified immediate family as the agency influencing choice.[3] And Ginsburg also clearly recognizes the important role parents play in the selection process.[4] These conclusions are also supported by the investigator's own preliminary study. In particular he found that mother's favorable attitude to nursing was important in influencing girls to enter upon a nursing career.[5]

All of the studies cited above likewise indicate that friends and relatives are important too in influencing occupational selection, though not as important as parents. It is from these friends and relatives, both in and out of the particular occupation, that students gather occupational information, and are thus influenced toward or away from an occupation. To point more directly to the possible source of the

---

[1]E. Peters, "Factors Which Contribute to Youths' Vocational Choice," Journal of Applied Psychology, XXV (1941), 423-30.

[2]Richey and Fox, op. cit., p. 48.

[3]E. J. Sparling, Do College Students Choose Vocations Wisely? (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1933).

[4]Ginsburg, op. cit., pp. 234ff.

[5]Data gathered by questionnaire from over a thousand freshmen nursing students from Michigan Nursing Schools: 1951-52.

influence, attention here is focused on "best boy friend's and best girl friend's" attitude to both nursing and teaching. It has seemed reasonable to include these close friends as members of the primary group which surrounds the individual.

Research on Work-Related Personal Experiences and Impressions and Occupational Selection

The literature suggests few hypotheses involving the factors of occupational work and related experiences and impressions. Richey and Fox indicate the importance of work experience as a factor influencing selection of teaching:

> Those who selected teaching as a profession had more experience of teaching nature than those who had decided not to become teachers.[1]

On the other hand, Bateman found that:

> students who do not work tend to select occupations which are more consistent with their interests (as measured by the Kuder Preference Record) than do students who are working.[2]

This latter conclusion may be due precisely to the influence which the work experience has on occupational selection, temporarily blinding the individual to a clear recognition of his own interests.

No study discovered called attention to the importance of other related occupational experiences as possible important factors influencing choice. Nevertheless, Richey and Fox, for example, do point to the teacher as a significant source of

---

[1] Richey and Fox, op. cit., p. 48.

[2] R. Bateman, "Effect of Work Experience on High School Students' Vocational Choice," Occupations, XXVII (1949), 453-56.

such occupational influence.[1] On the basis of this single reference it seems reasonable to assume that the general school experience may have impressed some students as either favorable or unfavorable and therefore may have been important in directing them into the teaching field. Likewise, too, the experience of being a patient in a hospital may have impressed some students as favorable and may have been important in channeling them into the nursing field.

Cultural-Demographic Factors as Inhibiting Agents

Before directing our attention to the cultural-demographic background factors: race, religion, nationality, occupational class, community size, we ought to recognize that some of these factors can play two roles in the process of occupational selection. All of them can function both in influencing the development of occupational attitudes and values, and also in preventing entrance into or curtailing membership in an occupation. For example, belonging to a particular race may influence the development of distinctive occupational attitudes and values through persistent interaction with other members of that race. On the other hand, membership in a particular race may also serve to prevent entrance into particular occupations. Actually, however, in this study, none of these cultural or demographic factors seems to operate, at least directly, in this inhibiting manner. Neither the Colleges of Education nor Nursing at either Wayne or Michigan State

---

[1]Richey and Fox, op. cit., p. 24.

prohibits entrance of students because of race, religion, occupational class, nationality, community size. Some schools, of course, do have restrictions or "quotas" based on racial and religious considerations.[1]

Other factors than the social and demographic ones can also serve to prevent entrance into or curtail membership in an occupation. Obviously, intelligence and academic grade average, both in high school and afterwards, may operate to keep people out of certain occupations or to remove them once they have entered. These factors are not important enough here to analyze in the present comparison. We may assume that only a very tiny percentage, if any, of the nursing and teaching students in a college training program have been prevented by academic grade or intelligence from entering the opposite occupation from the one they are presently preparing for.[2]

We know too that persons with other handicaps will also

---

[1]See especially Arnold Forster, A Measure of Freedom (Garden City, New York: Doubleday and Co., 1950), passim.

[2]Support for this assumption is provided by the fact that students are admitted to the two schools only if they have been recommended by their respective high schools or if they have qualified by entrance examination. In the case of the nursing students entrance is directly to the School of Nursing; in the case of teaching students entrance is to the Liberal Arts College and then after two years to the College of Education. It is difficult to appraise exactly the relative scholastic abilities of these two groups inasmuch as their academic routes are different. It may be relevant to note that girls interested in nursing careers but lacking an adequate scholastic average to enter the college degree program may achieve a diploma as a registered professional nurse by entering one of many hospital schools of nursing. In effect, this may drain off from the college program girls who might weaken the overall academic average.

automatically be eliminated from entering certain occupations. Persons equipped with artificial limbs are prevented from entering occupations requiring extreme physical activity and exertion. Persons who are pnysically weak are thereby prevented from becoming wrestlers, boxers, professional football players, weightlifters. People with allergies may be prevented from entering occupations where dust, gas, fumes, or some other substance is present.

These possible inhibiting factors are mentioned only in passing to make clear that they were recognized as factors which might on occasion play a large role in the process of occupational selection or more correctly occupational elimination.

Research on Cultural-Demographic Factors and Occupational Selection

Aware now that some of these social and demographic factors may have a twofold function, we may specify some of the studies which have suggested them as important in understanding the different occupational tendencies of nursing and teaching students.

Studies of occupational class in the United States have tended to be general in scope. Many of them offer support for the general contention that class position exerts influence on the formation of occupational attitudes and values, but none provides evidence that nursing students or teaching students come from any particular level of the society. We must turn elsewhere to find even the few available fragments. Birdwnistell points out that upper, middle, and lower income

levels tend to view nursing in somewhat different fashion. The most favorable picture of the nurse is found among the lower income level.

> In the terms of W. Lloyd Warner's system, the nurse comes from the top of the upper lower class and the bottom of the lower middle class. To be somewhat more traditional, in terms of parental occupation, she tends to have parents who were skilled workers, plumbers, railroad workers, skilled craftsmen, government employees, skilled factory workers, or farmers, who were semi-successful or successful. There is, besides, one other major source of students. This is the small town middle income grouping. From this source come the daughters of managers of small stores, dentists, doctors, ministers and teachers, as well as from the group described above.[1]

If nurses come from these segments of the society, where do teaching students come from? Richey and Fox suggest that teachers too come from about the same income levels. They point out:

> Those whose parents had incomes in the lower brackets (under $3,500) showed more tendency to prefer teaching than did those whose parents had incomes in the upper brackets.[2]

Moreover, in terms of occupation of the father, they point out:

> Those whose fathers were farmers, skilled or unskilled laborers, or school teachers or administrators appeared to be more interested in teaching as a profession than those whose fathers were in other occupations.[3]

Further evidence suggesting that although there are

---

[1]E. L. Birdwhistell, "Social Science and Nursing Education: Some Tentative Suggestions," Fifty-fifth Annual Report of the National League of Nursing Education, (Livingston, New York: Livingston Press, 1949), pp. 315-28.

[2]Richey and Fox, op. cit., pp. 16-18.

[3]Ibid.

different occupational attitudes and values that arise out of different class backgrounds, nurses and teachers tend to be drawn from roughly the same socio-economic categories, is provided by Boynton and Woolwine's study. They questioned 2,361 girls between the ages of 13-19 on their first and second occupational choices and on their occupational expectations. They also inquired into the girls' economic background, dividing them into four economic groups. Thirteen occupations received 87 per cent of the first choices. Nursing and teaching were both among the first seven of these thirteen occupations. When broken by economic group, 84 per cent of the lowest economic group gave first choice to one of the first seven occupations as compared with 57 per cent of the highest economic group. Only 4 per cent of the lowest group chose one of the last six occupations listed as compared with 23 per cent of the highest group.[1]

Anderson and McManus also have some evidence along the same line. Selecting a sample of 106 from among the records of 800 nursing candidates they found that the fathers of these girls tend to be in the trades and manufacturing rather than in the professions.[2]

Even less information is available to suggest anything about the significance of racial background in moving girls

---

[1]P. L. Boynton and R. D. Woolwine, "The Relationship between the Economic Status of High School Girls and Their Vocational Wishes and Expectations," Journal of Applied Psychology, XXVI (1942), 399-415.

[2]Anderson and McManus, op. cit., pp. 562-63.

into nursing or teaching. Dean Katherine Faville of the Wayne College of Nursing has pointed out that, even after that College was established on a non-discriminatory basis, Negro girls were extremely reluctant to apply for admission. The Dean even had to visit several Detroit Negro leaders to emphasize that the College was open to all qualified students. Nevertheless, the response was not overwhelming.

A finding by Hurlock and Jansing indicates that:

> race and environment affect students' selection. For example, Negro boys and girls choose teaching because as a race these people consider it a position that gives prestige.[2]

Flowerman stresses the importance of religious background when he explains that Jews see certain occupations as desirable and others less desirable.[3]

E. L. Brown provides us with one of the few particular clues available. She comments that Jewish girls do not seem to enter the nursing profession in any sizable numbers. She is concerned about this, but does not explain it.[4]

It is a reasonable hunch too that girls from such a religious background as Christian Scientist are unlikely to enter nursing, whereas they may enter teaching. And girls

---

[1]Personal interview with Dean Katherine Faville of the College of Nursing, Wayne University, Detroit, Michigan, January, 1953.

[2]Hurlock and Jansing, op. cit., p. 190.

[3]Samuel Flowerman, "Should Jews Change Their Occupations? A Rational Approach to the Maldistribution Problem," Commentary, III (1947), 320-28.

[4]Esther Lucile Brown, Nursing for the Future (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1948).

from those religious denominations which actively support many hospital training schools, Catholic, Lutheran, and Methodist, may be more inclined than others to view nursing in a favorable light.

No data exist which suggest clearly that degree of religious participation is an important factor moving girls into nursing or teaching. However, certain historical information may be sufficient to suggest the relevance of this factor. We know, for example, that teaching has been primarily a secular occupation longer, in the sense that training is usually in a secular college or university and that the job itself is usually carried out in a public school system. Nursing, on the other hand, is an occupation with a long religious heritage. Many hospitals are still supported by religious denominations and the nursing function itself is carried on in the hospital, and if the girl wishes, in a hospital of the religious denomination she prefers. Besides, the nursing task seems to many to be closer the healing ministrations religious participants may consider as important and necessary works.

No studies are available which suggest that nationality background of nursing and teaching students is a significant factor to consider in this investigation.

A few studies are available, however, which suggest the relevance of community size as a factor in the occupational selection process. Menger, for example, in a questionnaire administered to 19,000 school children of all grades, asked: "What vocation do you expect to follow? What is your age, sex,

grade?" She found little difference between rural and urban children, except that rural children chose farming and nursing more often than urban children.[1] Sisson studied the personal record folders of 951 freshmen boys and girls at Louisiana State to discover if there were any significant differences in the occupational preferences of city, town, and farm students. His conclusion is:

> That urban or rural residence is one of the important factors conditioning the vocational choices of college freshmen. However, actual sophomore registration shows that students from farms prefer agricultural courses and urban students prefer professional or art courses.[2]

E. C. Hughes cautiously suggests the limited possibility of analyzing occupational selection in terms of rural-urbaness. "The country," he says, "furnishes the ministers for the city."[3] North and Hatt point to the difference in occupational ratings on the basis of type of place: urban-rural.[4]

Simmel in his consideration of the mental life of the great city clearly implies a vast difference between rural and

---

[1]C. Menger, The Significance of Vocational Choices of School Children and College Students, (New York: privately, (1932).

[2]E. D. Sisson, "Vocational Choice of Students from Cities, Towns, and Farms," School and Society, LIV (1941), 94-96.

[3]Everett C. Hughes, "Work and the Self," Social Psychology at the Crossroads, ed. by J. Rohrer and M. Sherif, (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1951), pp. 313-23.

[4]Cecil North and Paul Hatt, "Jobs and Occupations: A Popular Evaluation," Opinion News, (Sept. 1, 1947), passim.

urban outlook on practically everything.[1] Veblen too suggests a set of rural values that differ markedly from the urban values[2] that Louis Wirth, for example, mentions.[3] And T. Lynn Smith makes no bones about indicating that the village in America is the arena of rural-urban conflict, implying that there are differences in outlook.[4] And finally, Centers finds differences between rural and urban dwellers on the cultural norms, rationalizations, and stereotyped beliefs thought to be held by all Americans.[5]

Other Research on Occupational Selection

Studies that were the sources of some of the factors included in this investigation have now been considered. It seems necessary to discuss at this point some of the other studies and general theories in this sphere of occupational behavior, even though they are not specifically important here.

This task has been eased somewhat by the brief summary of such literature presented in Ginsourg's book.[6] This book

---

[1]Georg Simmel, "The Metropolis and Mental Life," in Kurt H. Wolff (ed.) The Sociology of Georg Simmel (Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press, 1950), pp. 409-424.

[2]Thorstein Veblen, Absentee Ownership and Business Enterprize in Recent Times (New York: Viking Press, 1923).

[3]Louis Wirth, "Urbanism as a Way of Life," American Journal of Sociology, XLIV (July, 1938), 1-24.

[4]T. Lynn Smith, "The Role of the Village in American Rural Society," Rural Sociology, XII (March, 1942), 10-21.

[5]Richard Centers, "Attitudes and Belief in Relation to Occupational Stratification," Journal of Social Psychology, XXVII (1948), 159-85.

[6]Ginsburg, op. cit., pp. 249-53.

is one of the latest that deals with the problem of occupational selection. Though the work appears to be methodologically weak, it does contain some excellent insights as well as a rather interesting hypothesis about the course of occupational choice.

In a field dominated by practical tests and check-off questionnaires, this book formulates the hypothesis that the selection of an occupation is not a single decision, but rather a process involving a series of decisions beginning early in childhood and crystallizing at about the age of 19 or 20. Moreover, it is argued, this choice process cannot be reversed inasmuch as, in most instances, time permits one to train for only one occupation in a lifetime. Still further, the hypothesis asserts that inasmuch as an individual must consider many factors in making his occupational decisions, the final selection is invariably a compromise for the individual.

Certainly this is a convincing statement of the process whereby the individual makes his occupational choice. However, it does not seem remarkably novel. We have known for a long time that every decision depends on preceding decisions, and that there is rarely an end to choosing. We have known too that the cost of training as well as the cultural urgency to be on one's own make occupational choice largely an irreversible decision. Regarding the third element of the hypothesis: compromise, this too is not a new notion. We have often been reminded of the gap that exists between aspiration and possibility of achievement. We have come to recognize

that in such situations the individual is apt to lower his aspiration in order to exist in the practical workaday world. Indeed, in discussing compromise one may repeat the obvious cliche that all living is a compromise, at least for the idealistic individual. And certainly youth in its dreams of occupational triumph is idealistic. It is only to be expected that these dreams will often be punctured for very many young people in our society, with varying degrees of frustration and unhappiness resulting from the necessary compromise.

Despite these shortcomings, Ginsburg is to be commended for stating his hypothesis. What he has not done systematically, however, is to consider the various factors that influence the choice process. Granting with him and others that choosing an occupation is a continuous, on-going process, we have yet to isolate some of the basic factors influential in moving different individuals in different occupational directions. The author does briefly consider four institutional factors: culture, family, education, and vocational guidance counselor as pressures that have exerted influence on the individual in determining his occupation. However, the mention of these factors is cursory and incidental to the elaboration of the hypothesis. No attempt is made to evaluate the significance of these several factors, nor is the effort made to point in the direction of a hypothesis to explain the factors influencing selection. Essentially Ginsburg's is a developmental study of how and when individuals choose their occupations. Only in passing does it mention the why or causal factors.

Another methodological failing of this book involves the use of this developmental approach. Anxious to discover how individuals made occupational decisions, but unable to spend a period of several years interrogating the same subjects as they grow up, the author utilizes the compromise design of studying several different age categories at the same time, on the assumption that this sequence of several age levels approximates the developmental cycle of one group of persons studied over a span of years.

However, for a problem as complex as that of occupational choice, such an assumption must be questioned on the ground that there may be important changes in the continuity of the choice process when different individuals are scrutinized. Different persons begin to crystallize their selection at different times; to study several persons of different ages on the assumption that one is learning about the occupational process in the individual is a procedure of doubtful merit.

Particularly is this weakness emphasized when we recognize that the total sample consists of only sixty-four boys of but one income bracket, divided into groups of eight age intervals of two years. This sample seems very slim on which to base more than impressionistic guesses about the nature of the occupational selection process. Besides, we may note that the interviews were wholly unstandardized leaving the interpretation of the data vague and shaky with little possibility of uniform and statistically meaningful findings.

No summary of previous work in the field of occupational choice would be complete without consideration of other theories. We are indebted to Ginsburg's study[1] for reference to the accident theory and the impulse theory.

The accident theory attributes occupational choice to a sheer accident in the chain of factors external to the individual. Something happens, and he finds himself in a particular job; he does not know why he chooses the occupation he does; he is simply subject to chance factors beyond his control to which he can do nothing but respond the way he does. One may question whether this explanation is really a theory, but if it is and if it were a correct one, then any endeavor to ascertain the factor or factors related to occupational choice would, of course, prove fruitless, inasmuch as the individual himself, and probably observers too, cannot be expected to understand the significance of the factors involved. The individual's mere statement of these factors as "accidental" affirms this.

While the scientist must recognize the existence of temporarily unexplainable or "accidental" factors, he cannot proceed in any other way then to assume the regularity and uniformity of human events and seek to ferret out the causal and associated factors.

The impulse theory of occupational selection has been promulgated mainly by those with a psychoanalytical bent; accordingly it reflects the disposition of that school to

---

[1] Ibid., pp. 18-25.

explain human events through unconscious forces, instincts, or impulses. The illustrations mentioned by Ginsburg clarify the nature of this impulse theory. For example, in his attempt to prove the relationship between the internal impulse and occupational selection, Ernest Jones tells of the child who had:

> shown an unusually strong interest in the act of micturition, in the guidance of the flow, in the force of it, and so on. When a little older he was passionately fond of playing with streams and puddles. He is now a well known engineer and has constructed a number of canals and bridges.[1]

Another psychoanalyst, Gregory Zilboorg, relates a patient's childhood empnasis on bowel movements to his becoming a "successful businessman dealing in bathroom and toilet fixtures."[2]

James Clark Moloney has likewise suggested that there exists a relationship between certain fundamental forces or impulses and selection of the occupation of policeman.[3]

Criticism of this impulse theory may begin by pointing out that the particular individuals cited may or may not have had the specific impulses mentioned. No proof of that is offered. Moreover, we may also suggest that bridge builders

---

[1]Ernest Jones, "The Significance of Sublimating Processes for Education and Re-education." In his Psychoanalysis (New York: William Wood and Co., 1923), pp. 601 ff.

[2]Gregory Silboorg, "The Problem of Constitution in Psychopathology," Psychoanalytic Quarterly, III (1934), 360 ff.

[3]James Clark Moloney, The Magic Cloak--A Contribution to the Psychology of Authoritarianism (Wakefield, Mass.: Montrose Press, 1944).

and all dealers in toilet fixtures cannot be presumed to have these same impulses. Besides, we may inquire why these particular occupations should be singled out for entry? Why did not the persons in question enter other occupations similarly connected with their supposed impulse? Certainly it is farfetched to argue a particularistic relationship between these specific occupations and the supposed impulses of these persons. These comments serve perhaps to stress that a few instances of relationship between supposed impulse and seemingly related occupational choice do not constitute an adequate basis for a theory of occupational selection. Among other things, such a "theory" fails to consider the impact of culture on occupational selection. For example, in those cultures where the status of bridge builder is unknown, what would the person with strong interests in micturition do? This impulse theory of occupational choice must be dismissed.

Another theory of occupational choice, closely related to the impulse theory, is that considered by Roe. She gave Rorschach tests to a group of artists and a group of paleontologists, and on the basis of the responses, outlined an hypothesis of occupational selection. Using the terms "autonomous drives" (the need to master the environment) and "homonomous drives" (the urge to fit into superindividual categories), Roe suggests that:

> men whose autonomous drives are strong but not markedly so, whose intellectual make-up tends to the relatively greater dominance of non-verbal ability, and whose homonomous drives seem to find satisfaction in empathy with ideas, with symbols of things rather than in the things themselves, are

> men who are well suited to the pursuit of science and likely to be attracted to it. In the other group, where the homonomous drives seem to be very much stronger, but in whom the major need is for empathy with the world outside, with things rather than with people or with people as a special sort of thing, we find the artists.[1]

This theory is simply a special extension of the impulse theory. The criticisms leveled against it apply to this autonomous-homonomous hypothesis as well. Besides, we may also criticise here the broad generalization in which findings from a small group of artists and paleontologists are extended to "artists and scientists" in general.

It may be well to note that the seeds of another type of theory of occupational selection lie in the thinking of some of the constitutional anthropologists such as Sheldon[2] and Hooton.[3] Implicit in some of their research, especially Sheldon's, is the notion that certain body types behave in particular ways. Specifically, Sheldon has suggested this about the juvenile delinquent, and there is a hint that he plans to seek an anatomical type among doctor and psychiatrists. It is too early to criticise specific findings, but past experience with theories based on constitutional types in other areas, notably crime and mental illness, have proved unfruitful.

One other theory that deserves some treatment here is the theory of "interests." Strong especially has popularized

---

[1]Anne Roe, "Personality and Vocation," Transcript of New York Academy of Science, IX (1947), 257-67.

[2]W. H. Sheldon, The Varieties of Human Physique: An Introduction to Constitutional Psychology (New York: Harper & Bros., 1940).

this approach, and indeed, his "Interests Test" is widely used by occupational guidance counselors.[1] Much of the literature on occupational selection is keyed to this "interests" concept. For example, we are vaguely told that "interests" of a person influence his occupational selection. We then find innumerable studies made to ascertain just what "interests" lead in what occupational directions, whether "interests" are really related to consequent occupational choice, and which "interests" are more important. Strong has devoted many years to an attempt to standardize these "interests" into a tool for vocational counselors.

Little attention has been paid, however, to the more basic sociological questions concerning occupational choice: why do people have the "interests" they do, what "interests" characterize different social types, what is the relationship of "interests" to social values?

Indeed, there are even more forceful criticisms of the "interests" approach to occupational choice. Gardner Murphy puts the issue squarely: "It is widely recognized that one's interests change more often than one's "values." Interests may vary and change depending on the circumstances; values are much more enduring, usually developing throughout one's early and later life and persisting thereafter unchanged for the most part. Murphy provides a good example to show the difference between "interests" and "values":

---

[1] Edward K. Strong, Vocational Interests of Men and Women (Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1934).

> I am interested in the program of a music recital because the Tchaikowsky that is to be played satisfies my own value; an extraordinary variety of programs may interest me so far as they are related to the value in question. Instantly upon hearing the great conductor cannot lead or that the favorite pianist is ill, I lose interest in the sheet of paper announcing the program; the value is unaffected, but the piece of paper before me has lost its conditioned connection with the value... Interests change rapidly as the mode of satisfying needs varies.[1]

Furthermore, in analyzing this "interest" approach, we may suggest that people do not always pursue even their own "interests." It seems a naive notion of the old utilitarian school to believe that people act in terms of such a pleasure principle as "interest." This is not always so, as sociologists have been able to explain. People will and sometimes do act against their pleasure or "interests" in order, for example, to achieve group values which they have internalized.

Occupational Selection as a Sociological Problem

In all these numerous studies of different aspects of occupational selection, two things seem quite clear: few sociologists have concerned themselves with this area of behavior, and few of the studies have attempted systematically to inquire into the values and the cultural-demographic background factors possibly related to such career selection. These are probably interwoven consequences. Surely, had sociologists interested themselves in occupational selection as a significant dimension of human behavior there would have been a deeper concern with values and cultural-demographic

---

[1]Gardner Murphy, Personality (New York: Harper & Bros., 1947).

factors. Perhaps three reasons for this lack of concern have been the assumption that the problem was essentially a psychological one, the acceptance of the pervasive popular estimate of occupational selection as a choice the individual himself was free to make, and the awareness of the tremendous complexity of the research design necessary to cope with this area.

Some exceptions to the general statement that sociologists have ignored this area must be cited: Gist,[1] Fauman,[2] Young.[3]

As these men and others have suggested, the behavior of occupational selection is at least as much a sociological problem as a psychological one. The problem is preeminently sociological because there is evidence that social factors are related to the decision process. Granting the necessity for psychological investigation of this area of behavior, there still remain the basic and unresolved questions for the sociologist to tackle: what social, cultural, and demographic factors account for the differences in psychological orientation of people choosing different occupations? What social, cultural, and demographic factors explain differences in attitude and value of persons in different occupations?

---

[1]Noel Gist and C. D. Clark, "Intelligence as a Factor in Occupational Choice," American Sociological Review, III (October, 1938), 683-94.

[2]S. Joseph Fauman, "The Factors in Occupational Selection among Detroit Jews," (Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Dept. of Sociology, University of Michigan, 1948).

[3]Young, op. cit., passim.

CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Values and Attitudes as Related to Behavior

A basic social-psychological concept: "attitude" is classically defined by Thomas and Znaniecki as:

> ...a process of individual consciousness which determines real or possible activity of the individual in the social world.[1]

It is understood that an attitude has an object, either inside or outside the individual. It is clear too that a social attitude is not directly seen, but is inferred either from behavior itself or from the individual's symbolic expressions. The attitude is not to be confused with behavior itself, but is simply the tendency to behave. If a person's social attitude is known, it may be possible to tell in advance how he will behave under certain conditions. The relationship between attitude and behavior is theoretically at least very close. When we find that an attitude toward a specified behavior pattern conforms with the actual behavior, we have succeeded in showing the intimate relationship of attitude and behavior.

---

[1]William Issac Thomas and Florian Znaniecki, The Polish Peasant in America (New York: A. A. Knopf, 1927), pp. 22 ff.

Sometimes, however, it happens that the attitude follows the behavior and serves as a rationalization of it. In other words, a person may have a certain attitude, then for compelling reasons act contrary to the attitude, after which he may alter his attitude to justify or rationalize his behavior. It is extremely difficult in every instance to determine clearly whether the attitude precedes the behavior or vice versa. We cope with this difficulty in this project, with regard to expected occupational satisfaction and actual entry into an occupation. It is often difficult to know which came first. Furthermore, it must be recognized that social attitudes merely suggest general tendencies to act and do not determine individual behavior in any given situation. Within the framework imposed by the attitude, usually there are many possibilities for actual individual behavior.

We have mentioned that attitudes have objects; one has an attitude toward something, and that attitude is either favorable, unfavorable, or some shading between. Social values are the objects of social attitudes. Thomas and Znaniecki define a social value as:

> Any datum having an empirical content accessible to the members of some social group and a meaning with regard to which it is or may be an object of activity.[1]

The two concepts: attitude and value are thus tied together. In a certain sense then, the values one holds are the goals of his overt behavior. These are the ends which the individual has established, usually in some hierarchy, as the

---

[1] Ibid., p. 21.

factors of importance in his life and actions. Values, then, too are intimately related to behavior. Ordinarily we may assume that people will behave in terms of the values they cherish. If they wish to achieve something they consider valuable or important or desirable, then ordinarily we may expect that their behavior will be guided by these values. Only under extreme conditions does the individual behave contrary to his values, although it is not at all uncommon for one to pursue a lesser value because he believes he cannot achieve the greater one. Nevertheless, the greater value still remains as an ideal to be sought and perhaps eventually attained.

Indeed, if we know a person's values, we know not only his expected behavior, but we know too his general social attitudes. Some of the literature on social values and social attitudes suggests the interchangeability of these concepts. Murphy, for example, in discussing the classification of values reminds us:

> Attitudes are present dispositions which have developed through a long and complex process. Like all behavior they are motivated, and they are adjustments to present situations. On all three counts they remind us directly of values; indeed, the more closely they are regarded, the more difficult it is to find any essential difference between values and attitudes. Current practise makes a convenient distinction in terms of the symbolic machinery expressive of the two; inwardly one pines for his old home, valuing it above his present home, but outwardly he expresses the attitude, as when he symbolizes verbally the fact that Centerville is a "dear old place." The value is conceived to be the value of which the attitude is the conditioned verbal expression... Value and attitude can be distinguished only by a convenient surgical operation whose utility is subject to doubt.[1]

---

[1] Gardner Murphy, Personality: A Biosocial Approach to Origins and Structures (New York: Harper & Bros., 1947).

It is not our purpose here to explore in detail all of the implications of these two concepts. Blumer[1] and Strauss[2] are among those who have done this. Although the concepts "value" and "attitude" are difficult to operationalize, a strong strand of social psychological theory suggests that they are related to behavior. Indeed, there is the clear implication from one of Murphy's quotations that occupational attitudes and occupational values are related to occupational tendency; speaking of the Allport-Vernon tests, he states that there is evidence that "students of arts are higher than students of business and engineering on theoretic and estnetic value."[3]

Primary and Peer Group Influences Related to Occupational Values and Attitudes

One of the most widely accepted social-psycnological principles is that human beings are born without either values, norms, ideas, attitudes, impressions or experiences. They enter the world conceptually or culturally naked. Values, attitudes, impressions are acquired by humans through the process of symbolic interaction with other people, and with general and particular experiences. Charles Horton Cooley with his formulation of the primary group concept pioneered

---

[1]Herbert Blumer, An Appraisal of Thomas and Znaniecki's the Polish Peasant in Europe and America, Social Science Research Council, Bulletin no. 44 (1939).

[2]Anselm Strauss, "The Concept of Attitude in Social Psychology," Journal of Psychology, XIX (April, 1945), 329-39.

[3]Murphy, op. cit., p. 284.

in emphasizing the key function of this primary unit in the socialization process.[1] Likewise with George Herbert Mead,[2] Jean Piaget,[3] W. I. Thomas[4] to name but a few who expanded our knowledge of how values, norms, attitudes, ideas, and impressions develop in humans.

Experimental studies that have followed the lead of these pioneering insights confirm the influence of people in shaping values and attitudes. Sherif especially in a carefully formulated experiment has demonstrated group influence on the formation of attitudes, values, norms.[5]

Lazarsfeld, in an interesting panel investigation of Erie County, Ohio, has pointed out the impact people have on people in changing political attitudes and voting behavior.[6]

Horowitz in his multi-method study of the development of prejudice in children has shown that children's prejudices arise from contact with attitudes of prejudice held by those

---

[1]Charles Horton Cooley, Social Organization (New York: Scribner's Sons, 1911).

[2]George Herbert Mead, Mind, Self and Society (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1934).

[3]Jean Piaget, The Moral Judgement of the Child (London: K. Paul, Trench, Trubner and Co., Ltd., 1932).

[4]William Isaac Thomas, The Unadjusted Girl (Boston: Little Brown and Co., 1923).

[5]Muzafer Sherif, "Group Influences upon the Formation of Norms and Attitudes," in Guy E. Swanson, Theodore M. Newcomb, and Eugene L. Hartley, Readings in Social Psychology, Rev. Ed. (New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1952), pp. 249-63.

[6]Paul Lazarsfeld, The Peoples' Choice (New York: Duell, Sloan and Pearce, 1944).

around them.[1]

Freud[2] and his followers[3] have emphasized the significance of the family in personality development, and we know that the attitudes and values so formed by this family influence have a long and vivid history in the subsequent behavior of the child and the adult.

More recently we have had interest in the impact the peer group makes upon the individual in developing his attitudes and values. McKay has suggested that attitudes and values are effectively transmitted by this peer group agency.[4] Likewise, Piaget,[5] Riesman,[6] and Bossard[7] have indicated their conviction that this peer group constitutes a major socializing agency. Indeed, as the focus of direction swings from what he calls "self" to "other," Riesman sees it as an increasingly effective agency. The investigator himself has had

---

[1]Eugene Horowitz, "Development of Attitudes toward Negroes," in Swanson, Newcomb and Hartley, op. cit., pp. 491-501.

[2]Sigmund Freud, Totem and Taboo (New York: Moffat, 1918). English translation by A. A. Brill.

[3]John Carl Flugel, The Psycho-analytic Study of the Family (London: Hogarth Press and the Institute of Psychoanalysis, 1926).

[4]Henry D. McKay, "The Neighborhood and Child Conduct," in Ronald Freedman's, Principles of Sociology (New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1952), pp. 525-35.

[5]Piaget, op. cit., passim.

[6]David Riesman, The Lonely Crowd (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1950).

[7]James Herbert Siward Bossard, Sociology of Child Development (New York: Harper & Bros., 1948).

occasion to document the importance of the peer group in developing values and attitudes.[1]

Thus, there is a clear recognition, both in social psychology and in sociology, of the significance of primary group relationships in the socialization of the individual, in his development of attitudes, values, and ideas, and in the subsequent structuring of his personality.

Work-Related Personal Experiences and Values and Attitudes

In addition to the importance of primary and peer group member attitudes in the formulation and maintenance of values and attitudes, L. G. Brown contends that unique experiences which the individual encounters likewise help mold attitudes and values.[2] As one of the textbook writers who adopted Brown's statement of unique experience emphasizes, it is the actor himself who defines situations thereby permitting almost any situation to be considered unique by some people and emphasizing that the impression of the experience is the significant aspect.[3] Indeed, this is saying no more than what Thomas explained about the "definition of the situation."[4] Thomas, however, emphasized the primary group as the cradle

---

[1]Murray Seidler and Mel Jerome Ravitz, "A Participant Study of Peer Group Influences," (Unpublished paper presented at the Ohio Valley Sociology Meetings, Columbus, Ohio, April, 1953).

[2]Lawrence Guy Brown, Social Pathology (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1948).

[3]John Cuber, Sociology: A Synopsis of Principles (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1951).

[4]Thomas, op. cit., pp. 42-43.

of these "definitions." Brown, on the other hand, points to the not-necessarily-primary group experiences of the individual as also important. The implication is simply that no two experiences are really alike or are experienced alike.

Cultural-Demographic Factors and Attitudes of Primary and Peer Group Members and Work-Related Personal Experiences and Impressions of Experiences

A substantial body of theory exists suggesting the relationship of various cultural-demographic factors to experiences, impressions of experiences, and attitudes of primary and peer group members as well as their behavior. Innumerable sociological studies have been made of the relationship of occupational class to a gamut of human actions. Allison Davis, in one of these studies, argues that the various social status systems are actually significant sub-cultures in which the members of the society are differently reared.[1] If this line of reasoning is sound, and some evidence suggests it is,[2] then certainly we are warranted in thinking that the occupational outlook of the members of the different occupational levels is apt to differ. Indeed, Bennett and Tumin, in their encyclopedic text, plainly assert:

> It makes one wonder whether America can be said to have a culture at all rather than a large number of intersecting and overlapping subcultures--ethnic,

---

[1]Allison Davis, "Socialization and Adolescent Personality, in Swanson, Newcomb and Hartley, op. cit., pp. 520-31.

[2]Martha Erickson, "Social Status and Child Rearing Practice," Ibid., 1st ed.; pp. 494-501.

religious, class, organizational, communal, and regional.[1]

On the basis of these assumptions we attempt to suggest there that racial categories, religious groups, rural-urban groups, as well as occupational class levels possess some of the characteristics of the sub-culture.

Specific Theoretical Orientation: Statement of Theories, Hypotheses, and Explorations.

The general theoretical outline just given underlies the specific empnasis of this study. This emphasis is to explain the differences in occupational selection of nursing and teaching students at two large universities in Michigan.

In attempting to explain this difference within the framework of the preceding theoretical viewpoints, certain general possibilities recommend themselves as plausible. These are stated as theories and are subject to further test by the data that were gathered and analyzed.

Before presenting these theories, we may note an obvious relationship we shall examine, but one which is not really a theory: the relationship between occupational selection and expectation of occupational satisfaction. It seems plausible to suggest:

1. that nursing students are more likely than teaching students to have a greater expectation of satisfaction as a nurse, and
2. that teaching students are more likely than nursing students to have a greater expectation of satisfaction as a teacher.

---

[1]John Bennett and Melvin Tumin, Social Life: Structure and Function (New York: A. A. Knopf, 1948).

The first of the general theories we present is that differences between nursing and teaching students are associated with differences between them on occupational values.

The procedural or metnodological task is to uncover tne relevant values of tne students questioned and to compare tnem. This theory will be supported if it is found that nursing or teaching students esteem one or more values in significantly greater proportion than the other group.

In addition to this theory, there is another series of possible relationships to explore. However, existing knowledge does not permit any statement of their nature. This study may cast light on the relationship of occupational selection to the several occupational values:

A. Meeting people from all walks of life

B. Expressing one's own imagination and ideas

C. Getting practical training while learning

D. Good working hours

E. Having long vacation periods each year

F. Being one's own boss on tne job

G. Having a wide variety of different activities on the job

H. Meeting interesting men on the job

I. Being physically active on tne job

J. Earning a good starting salary

K. Traveling around the country while on tne job

L. Advancing to a better paying job

M. Being of direct service to people who need help

N. Having people look up to one

O. Getting a job quickly and easily if one ever has to return to work

P. Working with children

Q. Learning skills that will be helpful as a wife and mother

R. Leading one's personal life without interference

The second of these theories is that differences between nursing students and teaching students in occupational selection are associated with differences between them in attitudes of primary and peer group members and/or in personal experiences or impressions of these experiences.

Support for this theory will be provided if it is found that either of the two groups of students was exposed to a particular kind of attitude of primary or peer group members or to a particular kind of work-related personal experience in a significantly greater proportion than the other.

Some specific hypotheses formulated in conjunction with this general theory are:

That nursing students are more likely than teaching students to have:

1. Mothers with favorable attitudes to nursing
2. Fathers with favorable attitudes to nursing
3. Other relatives who do not disapprove of nursing
4. "Best" boy friends who have favorable attitudes toward nursing
5. "Best" girl friends who have favorable attitudes toward nursing
6. Had occupational experience in the health field
7. Favorable impressions of previous health work experience
8. Spent time as a patient in a hospital

9. Favorable impressions of time spent as a hospital patient

That teaching students are more likely than nursing students to have the same parental and peer group members' attitudes favorable to teaching, and also, to have:

1. Had occupational experience in the educational field

2. Favorable impressions of previous educational work experience

3. Favorable impressions of previous school experiences

The third of these general theories is that differences between nursing and teaching students on occupational values are associated with differences between them on attitudes of primary or peer group members and/or on work-related personal experiences or impressions of these experiences.

Confirmation for this theory will result from data showing nursing or teaching values significantly related to appropriate attitudes, experiences, or impressions.

Though no specific hypotheses stem from this theory, we may suggest as subject to exploration the whole series of relationships between each of the several occupational values and each of the attitudes of primary and peer group members and each of the work-related personal experiences and impressions of these experiences.

The fourth general theory is that differences between nursing and teaching students in occupational selection are associated with differences between them in the cultural-demographic factors.

This theory will be supported if it is found that being

a nursing student or being a teaching student is significantly associated with one or more of the cultural-demographic factors.

The fifth general theory is that differences between nursing students and teaching students on occupational values are associated with differences between them on the cultural-demographic factors. This theory requires knowledge of the background characteristics of the students. Evidence in support of this theory will be revealed if it is found that occupational values on which nursing and teaching students differ are significantly associated with one or more cultural-demographic factors on which they also differ.

Some specific hypotheses are stated regarding the nature of these cultural-demographic relationships.

1. That persons who value the following factors are more likely than those who do not value these factors to come from rural, small town, non-Jewish, working class, working class religious, non-Negro backgrounds:

   Meeting people from all walks of life
   Physical activity on the job
   Advancing to a better paying job
   Getting a job quickly and easily if one ever has to return to work
   Being of service to people who need help

2. That persons who value the following factors are more likely than those who do not value these factors to come from urban, big city, Jewish, business class, business class religious, and Negro backgrounds:

   Expressing one's own ideas and imagination on the job
   Having good working hours
   Being one's own boss on the job
   Having people look up to one
   Working with children

In addition to these specific hypotheses we may suggest

as subject to exploration, the relationships between the cultural-demographic factors: race, religious status, size and type of home community, occupational class, and each of the following value factors:

Getting practical training while learning
Having long vacation periods each year
Having a wide variety of different activities on the job
Meeting interesting men on the job
Earning a good starting salary
Traveling around the country while on the job
Learning skills that will be helpful as a wife and mother
Leading one's personal life without interference

The sixth general theory is that differences between nursing students and teaching students on primary and peer group members' attitudes and/or on personal experiences or impressions of such experiences are associated with differences between them in one or more of the cultural-demographic factors. This theory will be supported if it is found that any of the attitude, experience, or impression factors on which nursing and teaching students differ is also significantly associated with any of the cultural-demographic factors on which they differ.

The following specific hypotheses are offered for investigation:

1. That persons whose primary or peer group members' attitudes are favorable to nursing (or persons who have siblings in the field) are more likely than those whose primary or peer group members' attitudes are not favorable to nursing (or persons without siblings in the field) to come from rural, small town, non-Jewish, working class, working class religious, non-Negro backgrounds.

2. That persons whose primary or peer group members' attitudes are favorable to teaching (or

persons who have siblings in the field) are more likely than those whose primary or peer group members' attitudes are not favorable to teaching (or persons without siblings in the field) to come from urban, big city, Jewish, business class, business class religious and Negro backgrounds.

3. That persons with work experiences in the health field and those with favorable impressions of these experiences are more likely than those without these experiences and impressions to come from rural, small town, non-Jewish, working class, working class religious, non-Negro backgrounds.

4. That persons with work experiences in the education field and those with favorable impressions of these experiences are more likely than those without these experiences and impressions to come from urban, big city, Jewish, business class, business class religious, Negro backgrounds.

At this point it is proposed to end the investigation without further inquiry into the derivation of the several cultural-demographic factors. Indeed, if we assume that these factors really represent aspects of the culture, then in one sense, there are no further factors we can explore. We reach a point where a different type of investigation is necessary if one wishes to uncover the explanation of differences between nursing students and teaching students on these cultural-demographic factors. Doubtless it is possible to suggest or surmise that some of these factors are responsible for differences on others. Race, for example, may help account for economic differences. Economic differences may certainly account for union affiliation differences. These and other such relationships are not suggested by specific hypotheses; for the most part they will not be investigated, although there

is some speculation about them at appropriate places throughout the study.

CHAPTER III

METHODS

The Questionnaire

Inasmuch as the data for testing the several theories and hypotheses were not available, it was necessary to gather them. A choice had to be made between the interview or the questionnaire approach as the appropriate instrument for this research. Because neither much money nor much time was available to permit the careful interviewing of the few hundred girls in the sample, and because many of the questions were such that they could be answered readily, the questionnaire method was finally decided upon.

The questionnaire itself was developed after the usual series of trials and modifications; it was constructed on the basis of a considerable amount of background reading and much formal and informal exploration of the subject with both nursing and teaching students and other kinds of students.

Four main types of questions will be found in the questionnaire; the first type is the broad, open-ended question designed to permit the respondent fullest leeway in expressing her own thoughts on the reasons and explanations for her selection of the professional field she is in rather than another. The very first question is an example of this type: "How did you happen to get interested in teaching/nursing?" These

questions were included also to allow opportunity for checking on other, more restricted answers.

A second type of question aimed at discovering the respondent's evaluation of a series of occupational values and also at the respondent's evaluation of the better occupation to secure these values. These questions were in list form with the respondent asked simply to indicate the degree of her evaluation.

The third type of question included sought to tap the respondent's estimate of her primary and peer group members' attitudes toward the occupation she was preparing for; it also sought to assess the respondent's occupational experience background and to secure some measure of the respondent's impression of these experiences. These questions were usually short and usually involved a multi-point scale for measurement.

The last type of question to be found in the questionnaire dealt with the background characteristics of the respondent: such things as father's occupation, religious preference, race, home-town, nationality, age, time of occupational decision. These questions too were brief and often adhered closely to the standard U. S. Census wording.

It was believed, after suitable pre-test, that these kinds of questions would provide the information necessary in order to test the several theories and hypotheses.[1]

In selecting the questionnaire method the investigator

---

[1]See Appendix I for a complete copy of the questionnaire.

was aware that the mere direct inquiry: "Why did you become a nurse or a teacher?" could not evoke replies that could be taken at face value. On the other hand, however, such replies might reveal much about the culture from which the respondent came. These replies might also be significant when checked against other kinds of information, especially that of an objective character, such as father's occupation, religious background, race, attitudes of friends and associates, type of personal experiences and impressions of these experiences. Even these data, however, could not answer the "why" of occupational selection, for any specific individual. To secure the answer to this question would necessitate one of two courses: either to devise an instrument to record the impact each experience makes on the individual and the direction it moves him or else to resort to the retroactive method of psychoanalysis in the search to dredge up the individual's past experiences.

An alternative to both of these, and one which is more feasible even though it does not provide us with knowledge of specific individuals, is to seek to discover whether in the background of those who have already made an occupational selection there occurs any particular clustering of factors that essentially and uniformly differ from the clustering of factors associated with persons who have made a different occupational selection. Such an inquiry must consider all types of possibly related factors: genetic, psychological, cultural, demographic. This kind of approach to the basic question

of why people select a particular occupation cannot, of course, tell the cause of any particular selection; it can, however, suggest with a probability that increases as our number of cases expands, the factors that appear relevant in such selection. This is the kind of approach that is being used increasingly in the study of crime and delinquency, among other fields. As a matter of fact, Reckless recommends precisely this approach:

> Gradually it should be possible to compute the categoric crime risks for any area of consistent and uniform coverage. If causative studies cannot solve the riddle of WHY people become violators, actuarial methods should at least be able to predict what categories of people are a high or low risk for getting involved in crime.[1]

Taft also implies that this is a feasible approach to the study of criminal behavior:

> By collecting similarities in behavior and correlated similarities in associated conditions in a large number of cases we may approximate combination of factors which will constitute criminogenic processes. Not only do the same factors repeat themselves, but clusters of factors are also repeated. Fortunately similar conditions, similar clusters of factors--repeat themselves in the story of crime with sufficient frequency to justify a coming science of criminology.[2]

Sample Selection

Two samples were drawn from each of two universes of students: Wayne University in Detroit and Michigan State

---

[1]Walter Reckless, "The Sociologist Looks at Crime," The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, CCXVII (Sept., 1941), 76-83.

[2]Donald Taft, Criminology, 2nd Ed. (New York: Macmillan Co., 1950).

College at East Lansing.[1]

These universes consisted of freshmen and sophomore female nursing and teaching students from both schools. Freshmen and sophomores only were included rather than senior college students because it was desired to have the students as close to their time of entrance as possible. It was felt that there would be less chance for other attitudes to develop and thus alter the reliability of the responses. Ideally, the universe should consist of only first semester freshmen; this was not feasible inasmuch as there were not enough of them.

The nursing student sample consisted of almost the total number of freshman and sophomore students at both schools. Of the seventy such students enrolled at Wayne, sixty-three completed the questionnaires, giving a percentage of 90.0; at Michigan State, seventy-two out of eighty-three replied to the request for information for a percentage of 86.8. The total nursing student sample consisted of 135 girls. There is no reason to suspect that the girls who did not reply to the repeated notes and questionnaires were in any serious way different from the girls who did reply. All the nursing students were regularly enrolled in the nursing program of four years' duration, leading to the degree of Bachelor of Science in Nursing.

The teaching students were secured in different ways

---

[1]Both schools are very large in size of enrollment. Wayne is a typical urban university in the heart of Detroit, while Michigan State is a state college with a large campus located in the center of Michigan.

at the two schools. At Wayne the teaching students were secured by selecting at random four Social Science classes, in which most freshmen teaching students are enrolled. Only full-time matriculated students were added to the pool of students. Though some few sophomores were secured in this way too, most of them were located by referring to the class lists of the Social Science classes for the semesters ending January, 1952, and June, 1952. From these class lists of students presumed to consist predominently of sophomores, every fifth name was selected in systematic fashion. Again, only full-time matriculated students were considered. There were sufficient names included so that even with the necessary eliminations there were thirty-five sophomores and fifty-three freshmen from Wayne, a total of eighty-eight.

At Michigan State it was simpler to secure the proper sample of freshmen and sophomore teaching students. All of the first and second year teaching students were clustered in a series of classes, several of which were selected at random and the students in these classes questioned. A total of 100 matriculated full-time teaching students responded.

Inasmuch as the questionnaire was practically self-administering, it was given to most of the students through the several instructors of the classes. This was possible for the nursing students at Wayne and for the teaching students at Michigan State. It was partly possible for the teaching students at Wayne; the freshmen were reached in this way but not the sophomores. It was totally impossible, as it turned out, to use this method for the nursing students at

Michigan State.

Where the questionnaires were not administered in the classroom, they were mailed to the individual students, along with an accompanying letter.[1] Several mailings were necessary in some instances to secure the response we did.

For a mailed questionnaire the response was excellent. About 85 per cent of those who received mailed questionnaires replied. The response may be attributed to two main things: the letter requesting cooperation mentioned the name of the Director of Nursing Education at Michigan State, who endorsed the study; and the nursing students and teaching students themselves manifested considerable interest in the whole project.

Although it may be thought desirable to have a slightly higher percentage of replies, it was felt that the sample secured in the fashion outlined was as representative as could be obtained under rather difficult academic circumstances. To the extent that this sample failed to meet ideal standards of sample selection, we must be cautious in generalizing the findings.

Table 1, shown on page 67, shows the distribution of girls by schools attending and by class levels.

Procedures of Analysis

Inasmuch as the characteristics under investigation are non-quantitative ones, they are analyzed by the methods of contingency. We are interested simply in ascertaining the

---

[1] See Appendix II for this letter.

TABLE 1

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF NURSING AND TEACHING STUDENTS BY EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTION ATTENDING AND CLASS LEVEL

Educational Institution	Nursing Students						Teaching Students						All Students	
	Freshmen		Sophomores		Total		Freshmen		Sophomores		Total			
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Michigan State College	48	35.5	25	18.5	73	54.0	69	36.7	31	16.4	100	53.1	173	53.5
Wayne University	34	25.2	28	20.8	62	46.0	53	28.2	35	18.7	88	46.9	150	46.5
Total	82	60.7	53	39.3	135	100.0	122	64.9	66	35.1	188	100.0	323	100.0

existence of the several relationships inquired into. Most of the attributes were cast into dichotomies; therefore only four-fold type tables were necessary. The null hypothesis was tested for each of these associations, using the test of the significance of the difference between proportions ($P_1 - P_2$) and in some instances the test of the significance of the difference between means ($M_1 - M_2$).

Arbitrarily and conventionally, each relationship was deemed significant if the probability that it was due to chance was rejected at the .05 level of confidence.

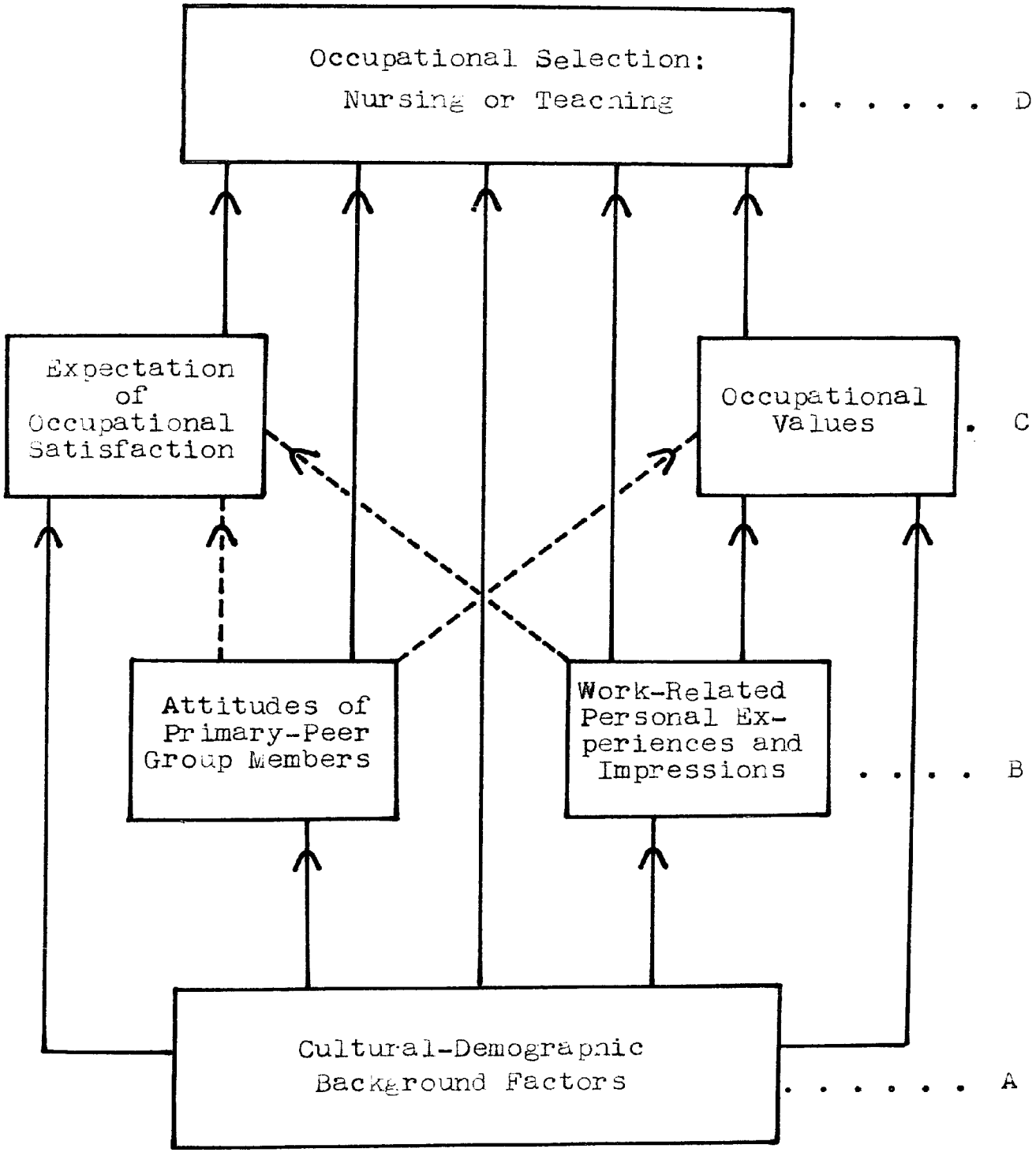
Development Plan of Analyses

Since several theories and hypotheses are involved in our research and since we consider many different factors and their various relationships, we state explicitly the order of the presentation of these relationships and their analyses. We show in simple graphic form what we consider the logical flow of the several factors and their relationships. (See Chart 1, page 69).

The direction of relationship in the above graphic formulation moves from bottom to top, the lower factor(s) presumed to be a "cause" of the one(s) above. If we observe the letters to the right of these four clusters or factors, we can readily suggest what sets of relationships are examined and in what order this examination unfolds in the following pages.

CHART 1

PRESUMED CAUSAL CONNECTIONS OF FACTORS



The broken lines connecting factors represent uninvestigated relationships. Expectation of occupational satisfaction was early found to be similar to occupational selection and thus no other factor was actually examined in relationship to it. The attitudes of primary and peer group members were general occupational attitudes and therefore it was not reasonable to develop the relationships between them and the several occupational values. All of the unbroken lines represent relationships that were investigated in this study.

To follow the organization dictated by the several general theories seemed a reasonable procedure. No organizational scheme seemed apt to be more coherent than this; its use permits the opportunity not only to examine the relationships, but also to watch them unfold in fairly logical sequence.

Obviously no attempt is made here to suggest that the order of steps through which we here progressed is the precise order of steps through which the investigator traveled in his research. It is conceded that his inquiry was a much more unorganized venture than appears here; several times, for example, it was necessary to retrace steps and start in new directions to seek explanations of the findings. As Jahoda, Deutsch, and Cook make clear, the order of presentation of a social science report is rarely the order of the research process.[1]

It is believed simplest to begin with the end result:

---

[1]Marie Jahoda, Morton Deutsch, and Stuart W. Cook, Research Methods in Social Relations (New York: Dryden Press, 1951), Vol. 1.

occupational selection, and work backwards to the factors associated with this selection. Thus, the first set of relationships analyzed are those of C to D.[1] These are found in Chapter IV. The next set of relationships examined are those between B and D. These are found in Chapter V. Also in Chapter V are the relationships of B to C. Chapter VI considers the relationships of A to D, A to C, and A to B.

Causality

At this point it must be made explicit that although causality is inevitably implied by the several relationships, no absolute insistence on unilateral causality is anywhere intended. The data used here do not lend themselves to such an analysis. For one thing, they are too thin to be subjected to the partial association analyses indispensible to a thoroughgoing consideration of causality. Secondly, there is not sufficient information on the time sequence of the various factors to permit us to assert unmistakably that one factor preceded another. To secure that kind of information, a panel study is necessary, or at very least, a full-scale intensive interview.

Some meager evidence of time sequence is provided by the responses to question 47: How old were you when you first decided to become a nurse/teacher?[2]

---

[1] See Chart 1 showing connections of factors.

[2] See Appendix V, question 47 for number of different responses.

Evidence from this question shows the median occupational decision age of nursing students to be in the 13-15 age categories while that of teaching students is in the 16-18 age category. This evidence is used again at several points in the study. Nevertheless the reader is reminded that these intimations of causality are largely speculative inferences rather than proven relationships.

Accordingly, inasmuch as ours is not formally a study designed to ferret out causality, we do the next best thing possible: we seek to approximate the partial associations with the data available, and without making the mistake of thinking that our approximations represent the real partial associations. Indeed, there is prominent and responsible precedent for this type of substitute analysis. Stouffer and associates in the American Soldier volumes resorted to this type of what Lazarsfeld and Kendall call "abbreviated interpretation."[1]

In carrying out this abbreviated type of interpretation it is necessary to show that each of the factors is associated with each other. To put this another way: where there exists a relationship between factor A and factor B, it is then necessary to see whether any C factor is related to both A and B. The introduction of the C factor is often referred to as the introduction of the "third or test" factor.[2]

---

[1]Paul Lazarsfeld and P. Kendall, "Problems of Survey Analysis," Continuities in Social Research, ed. by Robert Merton and Paul Lazarsfeld (Glencoe: Free Press, 1950), p. 160.

[2]Ibid., p. 149.

However, even when these third factors can be introduced and are found significantly related to both factors of the first association, we must still remember that we do not actually see what happens to the partial associations, nor do we know whether the relationship is complete or incomplete. We only infer that the relationship exists and that it is either a direct causal relationship, an indirect causal one, or a spurious relationship.

In short, even knowing that any third factor is significantly associated with each of the two factors in the original association does not tell us in what way it is associated. It may be associated as the intervening factor, in which case it will, in time sequence, follow the factor considered as the cause in the original relationship and precede the factor considered as the effect in that relationship.

On the other hand, this third factor may be associated with the two factors of the original association as an antecedent factor, in which case it will, in time sequence, precede both factors of the original association. The problem of the sequence of the factors cannot be resolved by any known statistical procedure. Knowledge of the time order of the relevant factors must be gained from the source of the data: from the questionnaire, from the interview, from the panel inquiry, from the records, etc. As Lazarsfeld and Kendall remark:

> It is very difficult to answer these questions of time sequence with the materials of only one

survey. But it is possible that in some cases clues to the time order will be found.[1]

In this study we are interested in the time order of the several factors, but only in a secondary fasnion. Often we are content to show that the third factor is associated with the two factors in the original association, either as an intervening factor, in which case causality may be the nature of the original relationship (although indirectly), or as an antecedent factor, in which case the nature of the original relationsnip is revealed as spurious. In either case, however, our main point is made, inasmuch as there is association of the third factor with each of the two ends of the original relationship. Finally, it is possible that the original association itself is valid and thus directly causal, in which case, the repeated introduction of all possible third factors does not alter that relationship.

---

[1] Ibid., pp. 142-43.

CHAPTER IV

RELATIONSHIP OF OCCUPATIONAL SELECTION TO EXPECTATION OF OCCUPATIONAL SATISFACTION[1] AND TO OCCUPATIONAL VALUES

Occupational Selection and Expectation of Occupational Satisfaction

Though it was not stated as a general theory, the probability was suggested earlier of a significant relationship between occupational selection and expectation of occupational satisfaction. Table 2 shows this relationship.

Table 2 shows clearly that being a nursing student is associated with expecting satisfaction as a nurse and that being a teaching student is associated with expecting satisfaction as a teacher. These findings lend support to Bogardus'[2] notion of occupational distance, which suggests that persons in an occupation tend to view it as higher in prestige and importance than other occupations. This attitude may account for the high percentage of both nursing and teaching students who

---

[1]Expectation of occupational satisfaction was determined from the responses to question 12 of the questionnaire: Which of the following best describes your present feeling: (1) I would probably be much more satisfied as a teacher than as a nurse, (2) somewhat more, (3) equally satisfied with both, (4) somewhat more satisfied as a nurse than as a teacher, (5) much more as a nurse.

[2]Emory Bogardus, "Occupational Distance," Sociology and Social Research, XIII (1928), 73-81.

TABLE 2

PERCENTAGE OF NURSING AND TEACHING STUDENTS BY EXPECTATION OF OCCUPATIONAL SATISFACTION

Degree of Satisfaction	Nursing Students		Teaching Students	
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Much more satisfied as a teacher than as a nurse.....	1	.8	156	83.9
Somewhat more satisfied as a teacher than as a nurse.....	0	.0	16	8.6
Equally satisfied as a teacher or as a nurse.....	3[a]	2.3	11	5.9
Somewhat more satisfied as a nurse than as a teacher.....	13	9.8	3	1.6
Much more satisfied as a nurse than as a teacher.....	116	87.9	0	.0
No answer	2[b]		2[b]	

[a]It may be noted that none of the three girls now enrolled as nursing students who would be equally satisfied as a nurse or a teacher has committed herself to a particular field of nursing. When asked, they all indicated that they did not know as yet. It may well be that these girls will combine both careers by teaching nursing.

[b]For those not answering question 12 an index of occupational satisfaction (see Appendix III) was used to assign them a score and include them in the study.

see the occupation they are training for as the one from which they expect greater satisfaction. Yet, though occupational distance may operate here, it is less apt to be important than where many occupations are presented for comparative ranking.

Table 2 shows that three nursing students and eleven teaching students felt both nursing and teaching would provide them the same degree of occupational satisfaction. The proportion of these "neutral" teaching students is more than twice that of "neutral" nursing students, suggesting that fewer nursing students than teaching students are undecided in their occupational choice.

A few persons did not answer question 12. For them other information on the questionnaire provided a substitute index of this expectation.[1]

Table 2 confirms our recognition that nursing students and teaching students differ from each other on the occupation they expect will provide them satisfaction.

From this point on, the factor "expectation of occupational satisfaction" is not considered separately. Inasmuch as it is so closely related to occupational selection itself, it is simply assumed whenever we consider a relationship involving occupational selection.

---

[1]An explanation of the rationale for the Index, the steps involved in its development, together with a table showing the distribution of nursing and teaching students by expectation of occupational satisfaction using this Index can be found in Appendix III.

TABLE 3

MEAN PERCENTAGE SCORE OF NURSING AND TEACHING STUDENTS BY SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL VALUES

Occupational Values	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
	Mean Per cent Score[d]	Mean Per cent Score[d]
Meeting people from all walks of life	26.8	15.8[c]
Expressing one's own ideas and imagination	1.5	11.8[c]
Getting practical training while on the job	3.0	5.1
Good working hours	3.2	8.5[b]
Long vacations each year	.7	1.6
Being one's own boss on the job	1.2	3.9[b]
Wide variety of activities on the job	18.2	16.1
Being physically active on the job	7.2	1.4[c]
Meeting interesting men on the job[a]	1.4	.2[b]
Good starting salary	3.5	4.7
Being able to travel around the country on the job	2.3	1.5
Advancing to a better paying job	7.0	2.5[c]
Being of direct service to people who need help	65.8	29.4[c]
Having people look up to one	.9	2.6[b]
Getting a job again quickly and easily if the need arises	17.7	9.2[c]
Working with children	9.4	60.7[c]
Learning skills useful as a wife and mother	26.6	21.8
Leading one's personal life without interference	2.7	2.4

[a]The total number of cases involved in this difference is so small (10) that it does not seem reasonable to consider it hereafter.

[b]Difference is significant at the .05 level of confidence.

[c]Difference is significant at the .01 level of confidance.

[d]The several values were scored on the basis of answers to the eighteen parts of question 13. (See Appendix I for full

Occupational Selection and Occupational Values

The first general theory suggests that occupational selection is related to one or more occupational values. Table 3 shows the evidence for this.

Table 3 reveals how nursing students and teaching students differ in their estimates of the several occupational values. Originally we had no sound basis for hypothesizing regarding these values and occupational selection; now we may suggest some hypotheses. Teaching students consider five values more important than do nursing students: expressing ideas and imagination; good working hours; being one's own boss; respect from people; and working with children. Nursing students consider six values more important than do teaching students: meeting people; physical activity; chance to meet interesting men on the job; chance for advancement; service to

---

questionnaire.) Respondents were asked to indicate their first most important, second most important, and third most important values. They were then to specify all other values they deemed important. It was found that some teaching students and more nursing students did not follow directions; these girls indicated more than the three requested top preferences. To use the questionnaires at all it was necessary to devise a system whereby no respondent would have more than six points in her evaluation of the several values. Those persons who marked all eighteen values as their "most important" were assigned a point score of 3.0 for their first preference, 2.0 for their second preference, and 1.0 for their third. Other ways of answering question 13 were similarly handled, with no one having more than a total of 6.0 points. Thus, no one had undue influence in the calculation of the mean scores. It should be mentioned too that the several point scores were converted to percentages; 3.0 points became 100 per cent, the most one could give to any particular value; other points also assumed appropriate percentages. These several percentage scores for each value were summed and the mean percentage score found.

mankind; and chance to return to work.[1]

At this point it is interesting to observe Table 4 which shows what nursing students and teaching students consider their best chances of securing these values.

From Table 4 we see that on only two of these values, being one's own boss and working with children, do nursing students and teaching students disagree as to the occupation which provides the better chance for value achievement. Both agree that nursing provides the better opportunity to meet people from all walks of life, though teaching students believe much more than nursing students that nursing better provides this opportunity. More nursing students seem to think that both occupations offer an equal chance.

There is fair consensus regarding teaching as the better avenue through which to express one's own ideas and imagination. Some nursing students, however, prefer to believe that nursing is the superior outlet for such expression.

Most teaching students and nursing students agree that teaching is the occupation that offers good working hours, although some nursing students consider nursing desirable in this respect.

Nursing students and teaching students do not agree which occupation provides the better chance to be one's own

---

[1]Hereafter the seven values on which nursing and teaching students do not differ significantly are dropped from the study; only the ten values on which they differ significantly are considered in future chapters. Whenever they are considered, they will be grouped and referred to as "nursing values" and "teaching values."

TABLE 4

PERCENTAGE OF NURSING AND TEACHING STUDENTS BY OCCUPATIONS PROVIDING OPPORTUNITY TO ACHIEVE SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL VALUES

Selected Occupational Values	Nursing Students			Teaching Students		
	Occupations providing opportunity					
	Nursing	Equal	Teaching	Nursing	Equal	Teaching
(Nursing values)[a]						
Meeting people from all walks of life	27.4	71.9	.7	47.6	43.8	8.6
Being physically active on the job	25.9	72.6	1.5	53.8	40.3	5.9
Advancing to a better paying job	38.1	59.0	3.0	46.2	29.3	24.5
Being of direct service to people who need help	22.2	77.8	0.0	64.2	33.1	2.7
Getting a job again quickly and easily if necessary	42.5	57.5	0.0	77.5	9.1	13.4
(Teaching values)[a]						
Expressing one's own ideas and imagination	23.9	3.0	73.1	4.5	0.0	95.5
Good working hours	25.9	5.2	68.9	9.1	2.1	88.8
Being one's own boss on the job	54.5	4.5	41.0	33.5	2.1	64.4
Having people look up to one	68.9	21.2	9.8	74.9	7.5	17.6
Working with children	56.3	4.4	39.3	18.7	0.0	81.1
(Other values)[a]						
Getting practical training while on the job	40.7	59.3	0.0	70.4	25.3	4.3
Having long vacations each year	6.7	1.5	91.8	3.8	0.0	96.2

TABLE 4--Continued

Selected Occupational Values	Nursing Students			Teaching Students		
	Occupations providing opportunity					
	Nursing	Equal	Teaching	Nursing	Equal	Teaching
Wide variety of activities on the job.....	32.1	65.7	2.2	53.2	11.3	35.5
Meeting interesting men on the job..	40.6	57.1	2.3	31.0	66.8	2.1
Good starting salary.....	58.0	25.2	16.8	47.3	18.1	34.6
Being able to travel around the country while on the job.....	40.3	56.7	3.0	48.1	27.6	24.3
Learning skills useful as a wife and mother.....	15.6	84.4	0.0	75.8	11.8	12.4
Leading one's personal life without interference.....	58.2	25.4	16.4	50.8	17.8	31.4

[a]Nursing values are those which in Table 3 were associated with being a nursing student; teaching values are those associated with being a teaching student; other values are those on which no significant differences were found.

boss on the job. Each category of girls thinks its own occupation is superior in providing opportunity here. This disagreement may be due to the fact that the girls considered different aspects of these two occupations in making their evaluations.

There is fair agreement that being physically active on the job is not better achieved in teaching, though there is disagreement as to whether nursing better provides this value or whether both occupations offer equal opportunity.

Both nursing and teaching students think nursing provides a good chance to advance to a better paying job, although more teaching students than nursing students think teaching too provides a good chance here. More nursing students are inclined to say that the occupations are equal on this value.

There is very close agreement that nursing is the better occupation if one wants to meet interesting men on the job.

On the chance to serve directly people who need help both nursing students and teaching students believe nursing offers a better chance. Some nursing students think both occupations offer equal opportunity. Most teaching students plainly think nursing offers the better opportunity with only a third suggesting that both occupations offer the same chance.

Both agree that nursing offers the better chance to have people look up to one.[1]

---

[1]This may be one of the most alarming findings of this study for parents, school board administrators, and teachers themselves. The fact that in the opinion of a large number of these girls, nursing students and teaching students alike,

Somewhat similar is the agreement suggested by the data on getting a job quickly and easily if the need arises.

Curiously, while teaching students are in general agreement that teaching is the better avenue through which to work with children, nursing students seem to think that nursing is better here, though many of them admit that teaching is good in this respect too.[1]

Scanning the columns of figures in Table 4, a few general uniformities seem apparent. On every value more teaching students than nursing students think teaching offers the better chance of achieving that particular value. On every value more nursing students than teaching students believe that both occupations offer equal opportunity. Interpreting these uniformities we may suggest that more nursing students are apt to doubt that their occupation provides the better chance for the achievement of these values. Fewer teaching

---

teaching does not offer an opportunity for prestige even as high as that of nursing provokes serious consideration of the way in which teachers are dealt with in our society. What ought to be done to change the prestige status of the teacher, so that it is at least equal to that of the nurse, is a basic question that may have to be resolved if the teaching profession is to continue to attract persons of ability and zeal.

[1]The above summary of Table 4 provides many clues to those administrators in both nursing and teaching who are concerned about increasing the number of recruits to their profession. These clues are especially salient when both nursing students and teaching students agree on the occupation that provides a particular value. It would seem to be important that these administrators take seriously the picture of nursing and teaching provided by the information above. For, even if this picture is a slightly inaccurate one of either or both occupations--as it may be on some of these values--still this picture is what these girls believe and there is little reason to doubt that these beliefs strongly mold their occupational behavior.

are doubtful about which occupation provides the better chance.

Perhaps teaching students are more likely than nursing students to think in terms of extremes, whereas nursing students are more prone than teaching students to say that both alternatives are equal, rather than choose one or the other as better.

If this were a study focusing on the personality traits of these girls, we might suggest that nursing students are more inclined to be cautious, conservative, middle-of-the-road than are teaching students, who are capable of movement to the extremes of selection. Whether this is a clue to suggest that nursing students are more in need of vocational direction than teaching students, or whether this suggests that nursing students are more aware of the occupational realities than teaching students, or whether it suggests that teaching students are more able to make decisions, or whether it suggests something else will have to await a further probing of this area.

Another interesting way to examine how these two groups of students assess the achievement opportunities of nursing and teaching is shown in Table 5. This table is based on the last one, but it shows the result of the effort to summarize the six columns into somewhat simpler form. As a first step in this effort, all the "equals" were eliminated. Then, for both nursing and teaching students, the attempt was simply made to see which occupation was considered to offer the better

TABLE 8

OCCUPATIONAL OPPORTUNITY PERCENTAGE SUMMARY SCORE[a] OF NURSING AND TEACHING STUDENTS BY SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL VALUES

Selected Occupational Values	Nursing Students' Summary Score	Teaching Students' Summary Score	Difference between Nursing and Teaching Students
(Nursing values)[b]			
Meeting people from all walks of life...	26.3	39.0	-12.7
Advancing to a better paying job.....	35.1	21.7	13.4
Getting a job again quickly and easily if necessary.....	42.5	64.1	-21.6
Being physically active on the job.....	24.4	47.9	-23.5
Being of direct service to people who need help.....	22.2	61.5	-39.3
(Teaching values)[b]			
Having people look up to one.....	59.1	57.3	1.8
Good working hours.....	-43.0	-79.7	36.7
Expressing one's own ideas and imagination.....	-49.2	-91.0	41.8
Being one's own boss on the job.....	13.5	-30.9	44.4
Working with children.....	17.0	-63.4	80.4
(Other values)[b]			
Meeting interesting men on the job.....	38.3	28.9	9.4
Wide variety of activities on the job...	29.9	17.7	12.2
Being able to travel around the country while on the job.....	37.3	23.8	13.5
Leading one's personal life without interference.....	41.8	19.4	22.4
Getting practical training while on the job.....	40.7	66.1	-25.4

Selected Occupational Values	Nursing Students' Summary Score	Teaching Students' Summary Score	Difference between Nursing and Teaching Students
Good starting salary.....	41.2	12.7	28.5
Learning skills useful as a wife and mother.....	15.6	63.4	-47.8
Having long vacations each year.....	-85.1	-92.4	7.3

[a]To determine the occupational opportunity percentage summary score an arbitrary positive or negative weight was assigned to each of the occupational achievement alternatives; nursing was weighted +1, teaching -1, and equal opportunity was assigned a weight of zero. Table 4 shows the percentage scores which were used to secure the figures for Table 5. In Table 4 under the nursing students column nursing was assigned a positive weight while teaching under that column was assigned a negative weight. Under the teaching column, teaching was accorded the negative weight again, and nursing the positive one. Thus, for the first nursing value, Meeting people from all walks of life, under the nursing students column the preference for nursing of 27.4 per cent was weighted + and the .7 preference for teaching was weighted -1. Then one was subtracted from the other to produce the occupational opportunity percentage summary score. Finally, the difference between these two summary scores was computed. In every instance, the equal opportunity alternative was ignored.

[b]Nursing values are those which in Table 3 were associated with being a nursing student; teaching values are those associated with being a teaching student; other values are those on which no significant differences were found.

achievement opportunity. Nursing was arbitrarily assigned a positive valuation and teaching a negative one. Simple subtraction provided a positive or negative percentage score for each group for each value. These percentage scores were finally subtracted from each other to secure an overall degree of difference factor, which expresses the combined estimate of nursing and teaching students of the occupation more apt to provide achievement opportunity.

As Table 5 shows, nursing and teaching students are in greatest agreement on the achievement opportunity provided by having people look up to one. This is a value both agree will be found in nursing.

Other values are ranked in order of the degree of difference in the estimates of nursing and teaching students.

Careful scrutiny of Tables 4 and 5 has revealed some of the differences and some of the uniformities in the responses of nursing students and teaching students to this question of opportunity of value achivement. Table 3 has shown some of the occupational values on which these two groups of girls differ; this provides further support for the first general theory and also permits the development of additional specific hypotheses relating occupational selection to occupational values.

CHAPTER V

OCCUPATIONAL SELECTION AND ATTITUDES OF PRIMARY AND PEER GROUP MEMBERS AND WORK-RELATED PERSONAL EXPERIENCES AND IMPRESSIONS OF THESE EXPERIENCES

Our attention now focuses on the second general theory. It may be recalled that this theory suggests the possibility that differences between nursing students and teaching students on occupational selection can be explained through the differences between these two groups of girls on either attitudes of primary group members or on work-related personal experiences or impressions of these experiences or on both. To support this theory and the specific hypotheses related to it involves a series of steps. First, it is necessary to show what we find when we scrutinize the association of occupational selection both with attitudes of primary group members and with work-related personal experiences and impressions of these experiences. Second, it is necessary to show what we find when we examine the association of occupational values with both attitudes of primary group members[1] and with work-related personal experiences and impressions of these

---

[1]Theoretically, it seems reasonable to investigate possible relationships between attitudes of primary and peer group members and the several occupational values held by the girls. This was done (See Appendix III) but was not included in the body of this report, because it seemed illogical to

experiences.

Occupational Selection and Attitudes of Primary and Peer Group Members

Table 6 shows how nursing students and teaching students differ on the several attitudes of primary and peer group members.

Some of these findings support the second general theory and several of the specific hypotheses; they also correspond with previously cited findings of some other investigators,[1] who inquired about nursing students and teaching students separately. These other studies show that parents, siblings, relatives, friends, in varying degrees and combinations are significantly associated with occupational selection. All of the significant findings in Table 6 jibe too with the theoretical literature of Cooley, Mead, Piaget, and Thomas who suggest that the attitudes of primary and peer group members influence the orientation of social behavior.

Scrutiny of Table 6 reveals six of the twelve factors on which nursing and teaching students do not differ significantly. These six factors, however, are important in that

---

assume that general attitudes of these primary and peer group members are associated with specific occupational values held by the girls. No evidence was secured for this study of the specific occupational values of the several primary and peer group members. Simply to infer these specific occupational values of the primary and peer group members from the attitudes attributed to them by the nursing and teaching students does not seem acceptable.

[1]The findings referred to here are those mentioned in Chapter I. It is important to note that the investigator is aware of no previous studies like this one, either in design or in the particular occupational groups compared.

Selected Attitudes of Primary and Peer Group Members	Nursing Students		Teaching Students	
	Number Answering[a]	Per cent of Those Answering[a]	Number Answering[a]	Per cent of Those Answering[a]
(Attitudes favorable to nursing)				
Mothers' attitude	134	92.5	187	79.7[d]
Fathers' attitude	129	87.6	181	67.4[d]
Best boy friends' attitude	134	81.0	121	57.9[d]
Best girl friends' attitude	124	91.1	162	75.3[d]
Relatives' attitude[b]	133	82.0	185	84.9
Sisters (brothers) in nursing	134	5.2	186	7.9
(Attitudes favorable to teaching)				
Mothers' attitude	134	88.1	186	90.0
Fathers' attitude	128	72.7	181	85.6[c]
Best boy friends' attitude	84	69.5	121	77.0
Best girl friends' attitude	123	74.0	164	82.9
Relatives' attitude	133	89.5	187	89.3
Sisters (brothers) in teaching	134	8.2	187	17.1[c]

[a]In tables 7 and 8 also, number refers to number answering each question and per cent refers to per cent of those answering who possess the particular characteristic.

[b]Represents attitudes of relatives who did not disapprove of the occupational selection.

[c]Difference is significant at the .05 level of confidence.

[d]Difference is significant at the .01 level of confidence.

they constitute negative cases of our theory.

Speculation is essential why "mother's attitude to teaching" and "best boy friend's attitude to teaching" and "best girl friend's attitude to teaching" are not important factors in differentiating between nursing and teaching students.

The issue seems to be this: what is there about mothers of nursing students which enables them to accord teaching as favorable an evaluation as the mothers of teaching students? Why do their husbands not share this evaluation and likewise view teaching in the very same light as do the fathers of teaching students?

Answers suggested to these questions involve the assumption that the longer people stay in school, the greater the likelihood that they will have a favorable impression of school and teachers.[1] These answers also involve recognition that fathers of teaching students have in general slightly more education than fathers of nursing students. Table 7 makes this clear at every educational level.

The difference in degree of schooling completed by fathers of nursing students and teaching students may help

---

[1]This assumption is unsupported by specific empirical data, but it seems reasonable to suppose that those persons who remain in school beyond the point where they are legally required to do so, those especially who go to college, are persons who view education in a favorable light. We may suggest too that many persons who failed to continue in school, either because of their own disinclination to continue or because of circumstances, often view higher education as impractical and specifically view teachers as people who could not "make the grade" in the workaday world.

TABLE 7

PERCENTAGE OF NURSING AND TEACHING STUDENTS BY FATHERS' SCHOOL YEARS COMPLETED

Fathers' School Years Completed	Nursing Students		Teaching Students	
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Any high school completed.....	88	68.2	141	78.3
High school or more completed.....	70	54.3	109	60.6
Any college completed..	44	34.1	65	36.1
Four years or more of college completed...	19	14.3	41	22.0

account for the difference in paternal attitude toward these two occupations.

If, for at least the lower middle class and below, we assume that wives are slightly better or at very least as well educated as their husbands,[1] then it may explain why more mothers of nursing students than fathers have a favorable attitude to teaching. Together with the first assumption, it may help explain why mothers of nursing students as well as mothers of teaching students both view teaching as a desirable occupation for their daughters to follow.[2] Other factors, which we

[1]Margaret Mead states, "The American wife is expected to be educated, as well educated although not as highly trained as the husband, for there is more expectation that he will have a special money-bringing skill than she will." "The Contemporary American Family as an Anthropologist Sees It," American Journal of Sociology, XIII (May, 1948), 458-59. One may suspect that Dr. Mead is talking primarily about the middle class family. It may well be that among lower class families it is the wife who has been able to stay in school somewhat longer and thus receive the better academic education. Besides, we may note, it is the woman who is more apt than the father, to identify with the teacher who, in most instances, is also a woman.

[2]If we consider the educational achievements of the

examine later, act differentially on parents of nursing students and teaching students to pressure the former to view nursing favorably and the latter to view it unfavorably.

The same kind of interpretation cannot be used to explain why both more best boy friends and more best girl friends of nursing students than had been expected have favorable attitudes toward teaching. Although it is true that these best boy and girl friends of both nursing and teaching students probably have about the same degree of schooling, and may therefore be expected to show the same general favorableness toward teaching, this is not so. More teaching students than nursing students have a favorable impression of their previous schooling experiences. This may apply with almost equal validity to the boy and girl friends of these students.

It may be that best boy and girl friends of nursing students evaluate teaching as favorably as best boy and best girl friends of teaching students because, like the nursing students themselves, they are, in general, of a working class background,[1] while the teaching students are of a business class background. Thus, best boy and girl friends of nursing

---

mothers and fathers of both nursing and teaching students on a continuum ranging from "least" to "most" education completed, we would probably find that fathers of nursing students were at the "least" extreme, while mothers of teaching students were at the "most" extreme. This latter would be true if we excluded the professional and technical training that the fathers of teaching students probably have. Though it is hazardous to venture the above ranking, it seems probable that the fathers of nursing students would have the least formal education of all.

[1]See Chapter VI for the relationship of the cultural-demographic factor occupational class to occupational selection.

students are apt to consider both nursing and teaching as rather high in prestige status and, accordingly, deem both occupations acceptable choices for their friends. Best boy and girl friends of teaching students, however, are apt to be more selective in the occupations they rank high in prestige and acceptability. While teaching is considered an acceptable occupation for their friends, nursing is not, for a variety of reasons we will explore later.

A word or two of speculation may be spun about the lack of significant association between "having sisters or brothers in nursing" and occupational tendency. A likely explanation relies on the principle that if the number of persons possessing a given attribute is very small, there is apt to be little difference apparent between the groups on that attribute. And, indeed, nursing and teaching students have only seven and fifteen siblings respectively in nursing or preparing for a nursing career. This number is so small that permits significant testing is difficult.

Some further comment is called for too, if we are to round out our speculation. No significant difference is found between nursing and teaching students on either "relatives' disapproval of nursing" or "relatives' disapproval of teaching." The explanation for this lack of association lies perhaps in the changed nature of the American family. These findings on the relationship of relatives' occupational values and occupational tendency fit well with what we know about the transformation of the American family. The family has changed from an extended type in which relatives were an integral part

the conjugal type family consisting principally of parents and children, with relatives, if any, borne as an inconvenience to be endured until they can be conveniently and conscientiously disposed of.[1] Removal of these relatives from the household has minimized their influence. This decline of the importance of relatives is apt to be felt equally by both nursing and teaching students. The data show this to be true.

Occupational Selection and Work-Related Personal Experiences and Impressions of These Experiences

Table 8 sets forth the several relationships of occupational selection to the various work-related personal experiences and impressions of these experiences.

Table 8 makes clear that nursing and teaching students differ significantly on seven of the nine experience factors. As expected, work experience in the health field, favorable impression of that experience, spending any time as a patient in a hospital, and a favorable impression of that hospital stay, all are significantly associated with occupational selection. Likewise with work experience in the education field except Sunday School teaching, favorable impression of work

---

[1]Robin Williams points out that, "the immediate father-mother-children family tends to be the effective residence, consumption and social unit. No extended kin-groupings are of more than negligible importance in these respects . . . even grandparents in the home, once more or less taken for granted, has become unusual." American Society: A Sociological Interpretation, (New York: A. A. Knopf, 1951), pp. 47-48. Also, William F. Ogburn and Myer F. Nimkoff state, "Two-thirds of families (1948) had no adult relatives (18 years old or older, other than the head or his wife) living with them." Sociology (2nd ed.; Cambridge, Massachusetts: Houghton, Mifflin Company, 1951), p. 474.

TABLE 9

PERCENTAGE OF NURSING AND TEACHING STUDENTS BY WORK-RELATED PERSONAL EXPERIENCES AND IMPRESSIONS OF THESE EXPERIENCES

Work-Related Personal Experiences and Impressions	Nursing Students		Teaching Students	
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
(Health work-related personal experiences and impressions)				
Work experience.....	134	30.6	186	15.1[a]
Favorable impression of work experience.....	37	94.9	17	63.0[a]
Any time spent as a hospital patient.....	132	59.1	183	68.3[b]
Week or more spent as a hospital patient.....	132	30.3	183	27.9
Favorable impressions of time spent as a hospital patient...	72	93.0	99	73.7[a]
(Education work-related personal experiences and impressions)				
Work experience.....	134	50.7	187	59.4
Work experience except Sunday School teaching.....	25	27.1	62	41.2[b]
Favorable impression of work experience.....	40	63.5	98	95.1[a]
Favorable impression of previous school experience.....	74	74.6	154	92.2[a]

[a]Difference is significant at the .01 level of confidence.

[b]Difference is significant at the .05 level of confidence.

rience in the education field, and favorable impression of vious school experience. It is interesting to note that time spent as a hospital patient is positively associated being a teaching student rather than a nursing student. unexpected relationship is examined in detail on page 115.

An explanation is appropriate here regarding those two factors on which nursing and teaching students do not differ significantly.

We find that association of "education work experience" and occupational selection is not significant in Table 8. However, that same table shows that many nursing students gained their work experience in the education field through Sunday school teaching or supervision.

Among nursing students about two-thirds of those with work experience in education gained it in Sunday School. Fewer than half of the teaching students gained their educational work experience through Sunday School; thus, the lack of difference between these two groups of students can be traced back to the greater participation of nursing students as Sunday School teachers.

With the above adjustment made, the relationship between definitely significant in the direction expected. This greater participation of nursing students as Sunday School teachers is understandable given the data of occupational church affiliation, community background and religious background of these girls. It seems reasonable to assume that girls living in rural communities, those from a working class background, those from a working class religious

background are more apt to participate as Sunday School teachers or aids than are those coming from the opposite segments of the society. This is true mainly because of the lack of professional religious instruction that we may expect to find in those segments of the society the above-mentioned characteristics describe.

Finally, we may say a last word about the lack of significant difference between nursing and teaching students on the factor "week or more as a hospital patient." Here again the economic background of the two sets of girls, plus their community type background serve best to explain this lack of association. It seems reasonable to assume that both nursing and teaching students are equally prone to the kinds of severe ailments, sicknesses, and accidents that require prolonged hospitalization. This fact accounts for the lack of difference between them on "week or more as a hospital patient." When a girl gets so sick hospitalization is essential, she goes to the hospital whatever her occupational tendency or occupational class. And she remains there until her condition permits her to return home.

This section of the chapter has shown support for at least part of the second general theory and several of the specific hypotheses pertaining to attitudes of primary and peer group members and work-related personal experiences and impressions of such experiences.

Occupational Values and Work-Related Personal Experiences and Impressions of These Experiences

In this section and the five to follow we turn to the relationships between work-related experiences and impressions of such experiences on the one hand, and occupational values on the other. Guided by clues from the social psychological literature and from some empirical studies in the area of vocational counseling and applied psychology,[1] it is suggested that these work-related experiences and impressions tend to influence these girls' occupational values. In line with this theory these occupational values may act either as intervening or as antecedent or subsequent factors, and thus cast additional light on the relationship between occupational selection and work-related personal experience and impressions of such experiences.

Occupational Values and Work Experience in the Health Field

We begin with the first of the experience factors on which nursing students and teaching students differ significantly: work experience in the health field.

The question we raise here is whether any of the several occupational values can contribute to our understanding of the relationship of occupational selection to work experience in the health field. Table 9 was set up to answer this question. It shows what values are associated with work experience in the health field.

---

[1] See Chapters I and II.

TABLE 9

PERCENTAGE OF NURSING AND TEACHING STUDENTS BY WORK EXPERIENCE IN THE HEALTH FIELD AND BY SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL VALUES

Selected Occupational Values	Work Experience in Health Field	No Work Experience in Health Field
	Per cent	Per cent
(Nursing values)[a]		
Meeting people from all walks of life.....	49.2	42.4
Being physically active on the job.....	17.5	13.1
Advancing to a better paying job.....	14.5	14.3
Being of direct service to people who need help.....	69.5	64.9
Getting a job again quickly and easily if necessary...	30.4	29.1
(Teaching values)[a]		
Expressing one's own ideas and imagination.....	13.0	19.1
Good working hours.....	14.5	19.9
Being one's own boss on the job.....	7.2	8.7
Having people look up to one.	2.9	8.3
Working with children.....	42.0	64.9[b]
(Total cases).....	(69)	(251)

[a]Nursing values are those which in Table 3 were associated with being a nursing student; teaching values are those which in Table 3 were associated with being a teaching student.

[b]Difference is significant at the .01 level of confidence.

Table 9 reveals that only "working with children" is significantly though negatively related to work experience in the health field. Girls without this experience are more apt to value working with children than those with such experience.

two interpretations of this finding seem possible.

Many girls who have such work experience gained it in doctors' or dentists' offices or as nurses' aides in hospitals. In these capacities they saw children at their worst, under conditions of tension and unpleasantness, children who were sick, anxious, disturbed, crying, fearful. As a consequence of this kind of trying experience, they realize that the health field at least is not the condition under which working with children is enjoyable. Girls who never worked in the health field still seem to value working with children.

In addition to knowing that valuation of working with children is negatively related to previous work experience in the health field, we also know that such valuation is related to being a teaching student. It seems possible to interpret the first relationship by pointing out that it is really a spurious one, the product of the fact that so few teaching students have had work experience in the health field. The real relationship may be between being a teaching student and valuing working with children, rather than as originally suggested. Though there is no evidence to determine the time sequence of the several factors, it seems more plausible to infer that this latter interpretation is correct.

At any rate, this presentation of the several relationships associated with valuation of working with children provides support for the theory that differences in occupational values between nursing students and teaching students are associated with differences between them in work-related personal experiences.

Occupational Values and Impression of Work Experience in the Health Field

In the last section we inquired into the relationship of work experience in the health field and occupational selection. In this section we show what happens when we refine our data somewhat and view the relationship of impression of that work experience and occupational selection. What occupational values are associated with this relationship?

Table 10 shows the relationships of the various occupational values to impression of this work experience.

It is interesting to note that girls with a favorable impression of working in the health field do not emerge from this experience with a particularly low valuation of working with children. This contradicts this interpretation of the previous section that girls with previous health work experience dislike working with children because they had unpleasant experiences with children while working. Girls with favorable impressions of the health work experience do not dislike working with children. This leads to the refinement that of those who had work experience in the health field, only those who disliked this experience do not value working with children.

The one value that is associated with this experience factor is good working hours.

On re-examining Table 3 we find that valuation of good working hours is also significantly related to being a training student. In speculating about the nature of the association of this good working hours value to each of the

TABLE 10

PERCENTAGE OF NURSING AND TEACHING STUDENTS BY IMPRESSION OF WORK EXPERIENCE IN THE HEALTH FIELD AND BY SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL VALUES

Selected Occupational Values	Favorable Impression of Work Experience in the Health Field	Non-favorable Impression of Work Experience in the Health Field
	Per cent	Per cent
(Nursing values)[a]		
Meeting people from all walks of life.....	48.1	58.3
Being physically active on the job.....	16.7	8.3
Advancing to a better paying job.....	14.8	25.0
Being of direct service to people who need help....	74.0	66.7
Getting a job again quickly and easily if necessary.....	29.6	25.0
(Teaching values)[a]		
Expressing one's own ideas and imagination.....	9.2	25.0
Good working hours.....	3.7	75.0[b]
Being one's own boss on the job.....	7.4	16.6
Having people look up to one.....	5.5	0.0
Working with children.....	40.7	58.3
(Total cases).....	(54)	(12)

[a]Nursing values are those which in Table 3 were associated with being a nursing student; teaching values are those which in Table 3 were associated with being a teaching student.

[b]Though the size of one of the samples is small (only twelve cases) this difference of 71.3 per cent is significant at the .01 level of confidence. It was checked with Davies' significance of difference tables which were calculated for various sample sizes from ten to a thousand. These tables are accurate to within .7 of a percentage point at the .01 level. See Vernon Davies, Tables Showing Significance of Differences

two factors in the relationship: occupational selection and impression of work experience in the health field, we must pay particular attention to the negative association with both factors. In analyzing that relationship, we may choose between explanations. We may consider good working hours an intervening factor, inferring that it links "non-favorable impression of work experience in the health field," with being a teaching student. This means we argue that non-favorable impression of work experience in the health field leads to valuation of good working hours which in turn leads to selection of teaching as an occupation.

This alternative explanation holds that valuation of good working hours precedes both work experience and occupational selection and is perhaps a contributing cause of both. In effect, this explanation says that the original relationship of favorable impression of work experience in the health field with occupational selection is a spurious one, the product of the fact that so many nursing students have favorable work experience in the health field.

Since we do not know the actual time sequence of the factors, we cannot decide which explanation to accept. It may seem reasonable, however, to suppose that the valuation of good working hours was developed prior to the work experience and the occupational selection. It may also be suggested that

---

Between Percentages and between Means (For Uncorrelated Data), (Pullman, Washington: Department of Rural Sociology, Washington Agricultural Experiment Stations, Institute of Agricultural Sciences, The State College of Washington, June, 1951), Stations Circular No. 151.

the work experience may have served to reinforce this value ... thus contribute to turning the girl in the direction of teaching.

Occupational Values and Impression of Work Experience in the Education Field

Another occupational experience factor is presented in this section. The association we consider here is that of impression of work experience in the education field and occupational selection. Table 8 showed that previous work experience in the education field was not significantly related to occupational selection. Both nursing and teaching students engaged in this work experience to the same degree, for the reasons speculated on earlier. However, we also found that Table 8 revealed a significant relationship between occupational selection and impression of this work experience. Being a teaching student is associated with having a favorable impression of such experience.

Table 11 shows the relationship of impression of work experience in the education field with occupational values.

Table 11 is self-explanatory: none of the ten values is significantly related to impression of previous educational work experience. This lack of association with any of the relevant occupational values might suggest that this factor, impression of work experience in the education field, should be retired from further consideration as a link in the process of occupational selection. However, to do so would not permit us to examine the relationship of this factor to the various

TABLE 11

PERCENTAGE OF NURSING AND TEACHING STUDENTS BY IMPRESSION OF WORK EXPERIENCE IN THE EDUCATION FIELD AND BY SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL VALUES

Selected Occupational Values	Favorable Impression of Work Experience in the Education Field	Non-favorable Impression of Work Experience in the Education Field
	Per cent	Per cent
(Nursing values)[a]		
Meeting people from all walks of life.....	40.6	63.6
Being physically active on the job.....	11.6	27.3
Advancing to a better paying job.....	14.5	27.3
Being of direct service to people who need help.....	59.4	72.7
Getting a job again quickly and easily if necessary..	26.8	27.3
(Teaching values)[a]		
Expressing one's own ideas and imagination.....	20.3	18.2
Good working hours.....	20.3	27.3
Being one's own boss on the job.....	10.1	0.0
Having people look up to one.....	3.7	9.1
Working with children.....	50.0	36.4
(Total cases).....	(138)	(11)

[a]Nursing values are those which in Table 3 were associated with being a nursing student; teaching values are those which in Table 3 were associated with being a teaching student.

cultural-demographic factors. While we find no relationship between this experience factor and our few occupational values, perhaps there are other important occupational values this

impression engenders; indeed, it may well contribute to occupational selection through some other value factor.

Occupational Values and Impression of Previous School Experience

Table 8 showed that nursing and teaching students differ decidedly in their outlook on previous school experience. As expected, teaching students recall having had favorable school experiences and nursing students recall having had non-favorable school experiences or do not recall at all. In this section we seek to discover whether this association between occupational selection and impression of previous school experience can be further clarified by the introduction of our ten occupational values.

The relationship of each of these "third" or value factors with impression of previous school experience is set forth in Table 12.

Though it is apparent here too that the sample size for "no favorable impression of previous school experience" is rather small, only 38 cases, nevertheless, it is probably not too small to suggest that the findings are accurate. We notice that three values are associated with impression of previous school experience: expressing one's own ideas and imagination, being of direct service to people who need help, and working with children. We notice too that one of these is a negative association: favorable impression of previous school experience is negatively related to valuation of service to people. Both the other value factors are positively distributed with the favorable impression factor.

TABLE 14

PERCENTAGE OF NURSING AND TEACHING STUDENTS BY IMPRESSION OF PREVIOUS SCHOOL EXPERIENCE AND BY SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL VALUES

Selected Occupational Values	Favorable Impression of Previous School Experience	Non-favorable Impression of Previous School Experience
	Per cent	Per cent
(Nursing values)[a]		
Meeting people from all walks of life.....	41.7	47.4
Being physically active on the job.....	13.2	21.1
Advancing to a better paying job.....	11.8	10.5
Feeling of direct service to people who need help.	63.6	31.6[c]
Getting a job again quickly and easily if necessary.....	27.6	26.3
(Teaching values)[a]		
Expressing one's own ideas and imagination.....	20.6	7.9[c]
Good working hours.....	18.9	10.5
Being one's own boss on the job.....	3.3	5.3
Having people look up to one.....	3.3	5.3
Working with children.....	67.5	31.6[b]
(Total cases).....	(228)	(38)

[a]Nursing values are those which in Table 3 were associated with being a nursing student; teaching values are those which in Table 3 were associated with being a teaching student.

[b]Difference is significant at the .01 level of confidence.

[c]Difference is significant at the .05 level of confidence.

The next step in the general procedure is to inquire whether these three value factors are significantly associated with the other factor in the original relationship: occupational selection. Table 3 provides the information that valuation of expressing one's ideas and imagination is significantly and positively related to being a teaching student, that valuation of working with children is likewise related to being a teacher, but that valuation of direct service is significantly related to being a nursing student. This latter fact, plus the negative relationship of direct service with favorable impression of previous school experience requires some discussion.

Assuming that this "third" factor, valuation of being of direct service to people, were found to be a link between the two factors rather than antecedent to both of them, we may speculate how the causal relationships would run. Favorable impression of previous school experience may fail to produce valuation of being of direct service to people who need help, which in turn may contribute to choosing a teaching career. Phrased conversely, girls with an unfavorable impression of previous school experiences are apt to value direct service to people, which in turn stimulates them, in part, to choose nursing as a career. The problem here, if this interpretation is correct, is to determine what there is about a favorable impression of previous school experience that helps produce a high valuation of being of direct service to people who need help. It may be, of course, that high valuation of such

service does not link the two factors in the original relationship, but rather precedes them both. In that event, valuation of direct service is simply a cause of both factors: having an unfavorable impression of previous school experience and being a nursing student. If this interpretation is correct, then the question becomes: Why should valuation of direct service result in an unfavorable impression of school experience?

In suggesting an explanation to this question it may be remembered that nursing students made up their minds to become nurses rather early in their lives. If this is true, then it is not unlikely that one of the important values contributing to this decision was the valuation of being able to be of direct service to people who need assistance. Children, particularly, are much impressed by helping mankind; especially is this true of children reared in the socio-cultural traditions that nursing students are. These girls may well view dimly the occupation of teaching, primarily because it provides no such dramatic service to people in need of help. Teaching much less than nursing appeals to the romantic stereotype of service these girls undoubtedly have. Ordinarily lives are not saved by teaching service, but the picture of the nurse is usually of one who engages in split second surgery and life-saving inoculations. Such a value as direct service to people held by these girls may have led them to view school and teaching as a humdrum kind of existence, lacking altogether the exciting characteristics of direct service

to people in need of help. With such a value, one may even convince oneself that she is wasting her time in school, when she should or could be serving mankind in direct and glorious ways. This interpretation gains credence when we examine the answers of nursing and teaching students to questions 9 and 10 of the questionnaire.[1]

These answers show that of all the different things that nursing students object to about teaching, the routine nature of the job ranks first in importance. Twenty-six and one-tenth per cent of the eighty-eight girls who answered question 10 consider the dull routine the thing about teaching they would like least. Fewer than five per cent (4.3) of the teaching students consider this to be the most important drawback of a teaching career.

Though, of course, here too the definitive time sequence is lacking, it seems reasonable to accept the interpretation that valuation of direct service acts as an antecedent factor, and thus contributes to the conviction that the original relationship is at least partly spurious, the result of the fact that such a high proportion of teaching students do not value directly serving people.

Expressing one's own ideas and imagination may well be an intervening factor, linking favorable impression of school experience with occupational selection. It is possible that these girls who enjoyed their school experience did so because it taught them to express their own ideas and

---

[1]See questionnaire, Appendix I.

imagination. The value developed in school was later sought in seeking a career.

It is hardly possible even to speculate whether the girls gained their valuation of working with children as a consequence of the school experience or whether they gained it even before the school experience. The factor, valuation of working with children, is extremely difficult to untangle. We do not attempt it here.

We see that the value factors are indeed significantly related to each of the two factors in the original relationship. We have shown that the difference between nursing students and teaching students on such a factor as impression of previous school experience is significantly associated with differences between them on valuation of three factors. Thus, we see that the theory we are testing receives additional support from this set of findings.

Occupational Values and Any Time Spent as a Hospital Patient

This section of the chapter delves into the relationship of occupational selection and any time spent as a hospital patient. The aim here is the same as in the preceding sections: to discover what "third" factor, if any, is significantly related to both ends of the original relationship just mentioned, and thereby provide supportive evidence of the second general theory. Table 13 shows with which of these value factors "any time spent as a hospital patient" is significantly related.

TABLE 13

PERCENTAGE OF NURSING AND TEACHING STUDENTS BY ANY TIME SPENT AS A HOSPITAL PATIENT AND BY SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL VALUES

Selected Occupational Values	Any Time Spent as a Hospital Patient	No Time Spent as a Hospital Patient
	Per cent	Per cent
(Nursing values)[a]		
Meeting people from all walks of life	42.5	45.5
Being physically active on the job	12.0	17.9
Advancing to a better paying job	14.0	13.4
Being of direct service to people who need help	64.0	69.6
Getting a job again quickly and easily if necessary	32.0	23.2
(Teaching values)[a]		
Expressing one's own ideas and imagination	21.5	11.6[b]
Good working hours	19.5	17.0
Being one's own boss on the job	10.5	4.5[c]
Having people look up to one	7.0	7.1
Working with children	64.5	51.8[c]
(Total cases)	(200)	(112)

[a]Nursing values are those which in Table 3 were associated with being a nursing student; teaching values are those which in Table 3 were associated with being a teaching student.

[b]Difference is significant at the .01 level of confidence.

[c]Difference is significant at the .05 level of confidence.

Table 13 shows three factors significantly associated with spending time as a hospital patient. These three are:

expressing one's own ideas and imagination, being one's own boss on the job, and working with children.

With little data to go on, we may nevertheless hazard some guesses about the nature of these "third" factors in relationship to the associations we are examining. Though we do not know when the hospitalization occurred for these girls, we may suggest that it is unlikely that their valuation of expressing ideas and imagination developed from this hospital experience. It is more reasonable to believe that those who already valued this type of expression were persuaded that nursing would not provide it; indeed, Tables 4 and 5 show that both nursing and teaching students agree that teaching provides the better opportunity to express one's own ideas and imagination.

The same kind of interpretation seems plausible on considering the other two related values; being one's own boss and working with children. Indeed, this interpretation becomes even more applicable when we recognize that teaching students were more frequently hospital patients than were nursing students. This is true for the less severe ailments, but not for the critical ones. In categorizing those who spent any time as a hospital patient, the teaching students predominate; therefore it is to be expected that three of the teaching values and none of the nursing values should be related to this experience. The relationship between any time spent as a hospital patient and occupational selection is a spurious one therefore, the result of the fact that so many

teaching students spent time as hospital patients.

Occupational Values and Impression of Time Spent as a Hospital Patient

The last experience relationship found to be significant is reported on here. Table 8 showed that this factor, impression of time spent as a hospital patient, was significantly and positively associated with being a teaching student. Table 14 now reveals the relationship of this impression to the selected occupational values.

Table 14 reveals two significant relationships. We see that impression of time spent as a hospital patient is significantly and positively associated with being physically active on the job and with being of direct service to people who need help. A glance back at Table 3 also reminds us that these two values are significantly and positively related to occupational selection: to being a nursing student.

The interpretation of these data are especially interesting when contrasted with the findings and interpretation of the very last section. There we found that spending time as a hospital patient is related to three teaching values: expressing one's own ideas and imagination, being one's own boss, and working with children. We suggested that this was the result of the fact that so many teaching students had spent time as hospital patients. Here, however, when we seek to refine the analysis and examine the relationship of those who have favorable impressions of their time spent as a hospital patient, we emerge with two significant associations:

TABLE 14

PERCENTAGE OF NURSING AND TEACHING STUDENTS BY IMPRESSION OF TIME SPENT AS A HOSPITAL PATIENT AND BY SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL VALUES

Selected Occupational Values	Favorable Impression of Time Spent as a Hospital Patient	Non-favorable Impression of Time Spent as a Hospital Patient
	Per cent	Per cent
(Nursing values)[a]		
Meeting people from all walks of life	45.1	33.3
Being physically active on the job	15.3	0.0[b]
Advancing to a better paying job	16.5	6.7
Being of direct service to people who need help	73.7	50.0[b]
Getting a job again quickly and easily if necessary	33.1	33.3
(Teaching values)[a]		
Expressing one's own ideas and imagination	21.8	26.7
Good working hours	19.5	20.0
Being one's own boss on the job	10.5	13.3
Having people look up to one	7.5	3.3
Working with children	63.2	73.3
(Total cases)	(133)	(30)

[a]Nursing values are those which in Table 3 were associated with being a nursing student; teaching values are those which in Table 3 were associated with being a teaching student.

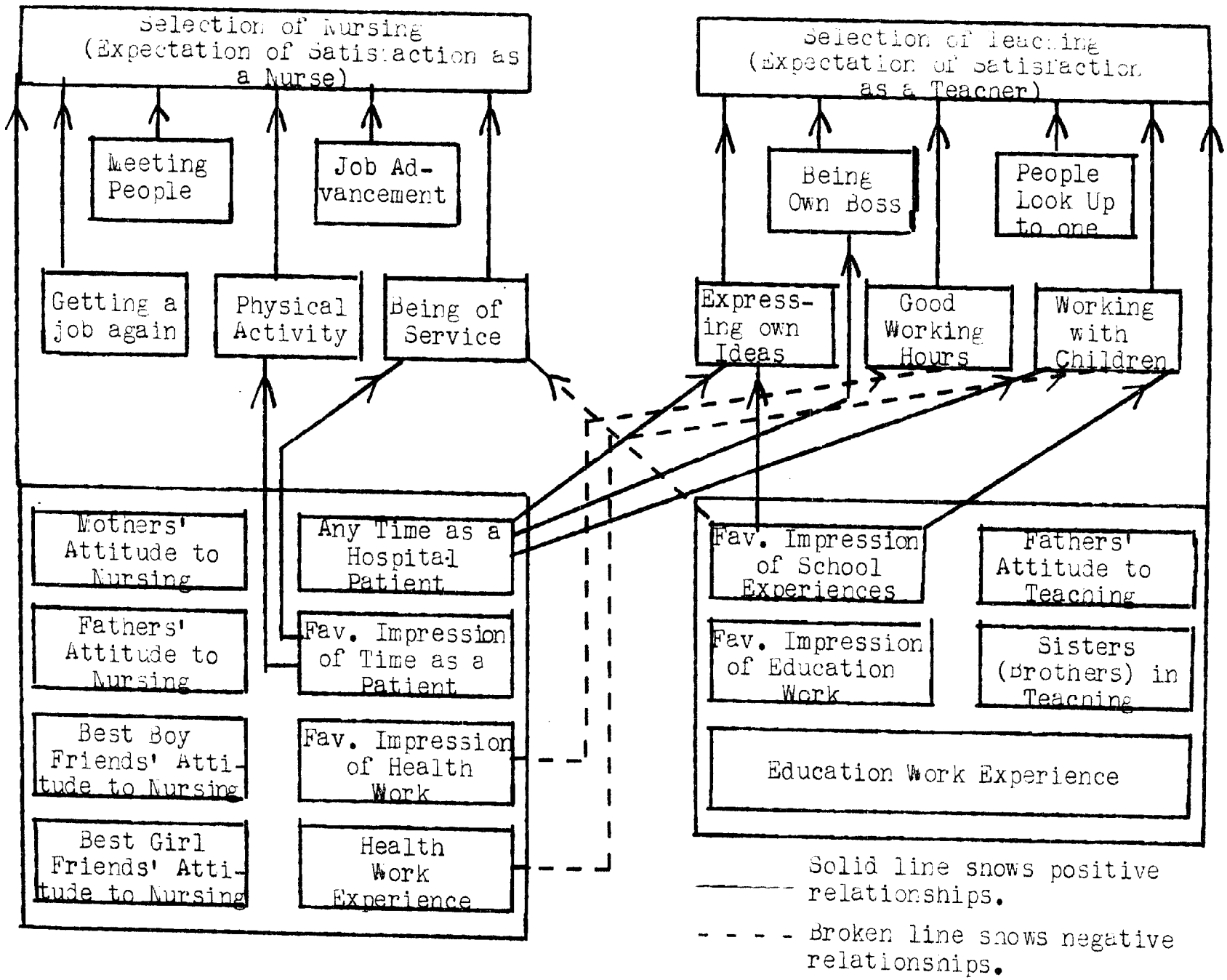
[b]Difference is significant at the .05 level of confidence.

both of which positively relate this favorable impression to the so-called nursing values: physical activity on the job and being of direct service to people.

In interpreting the nature of these "third" factors, the values, we must recognize that the favorable hospital experience probably did not "cause" them. It is more reasonable to accept the notion that the girls who came to the hospital as patients and who have favorable impressions of that experience were, for the most part, nursing students who already valued these two factors. This is particularly likely inasmuch as the girls who enjoyed their hospital experiences were, for the most part, nursing students.

In short, it is suggested that valuation of physical activity on the job and directly serving people are antecedent factors, preceding both the impression of the hospital experience as a patient and also preceding the selection of nursing as an occupational choice. The "cause" of these two values was probably something other than the hospital experience, although it is possible that hospital experience helped reinforce these values for those who already held them.

It is helpful at this point to summarize the relationships we have found to be significant. We found first that although expectation of occupational satisfaction was associated with occupational selection, it was so closely associated as to be almost identical. We therefore dropped expectation of occupational satisfaction from our consideration as a separate factor. We next recognized that it was not plausible to develop relationships between the very general occupational attitudes of the primary and peer group members and the specific occupational values. We did, however, show the


Selection of Nursing (Expectation of Satisfaction as a Nurse)
Meeting People
Job Advancement
Getting a job again
Physical Activity
Being of Service
Selection of Teaching (Expectation of Satisfaction as a Teacher)
Being Own Boss
People Look Up to one
Expressing own Ideas
Good Working Hours
Working with Children
Mothers' Attitude to Nursing
Any Time as a Hospital Patient
Fathers' Attitude to Nursing
Fav. Impression of Time as a Patient
Best Boy Friends' Attitude to Nursing
Fav. Impression of Health Work
Best Girl Friends' Attitude to Nursing
Health Work Experience
Fav. Impression of School Experiences
Fathers' Attitude to Teaching
Fav. Impression of Education Work
Sisters (Brothers) in Teaching
Education Work Experience
Solid line shows positive relationships.
Broken line shows negative relationships.

[illegible]ciation of six of these primary and peer group attitudes [illegible]occupational selection. In the preceding chapter we dis-[illegible]ssed ten values which were significantly associated with [illegible]pational selection. These we analyzed to ascertain which [illegible] related to what work-related personal experiences and [illegible]ressions of such experiences. We also showed the six ex-[illegible]iences and impressions that were linked significantly with [illegible]pational selection.

In order to make perfectly clear the line of these re-[illegible]lonships, the preceding chart has been constructed. It sum-[illegible]rizes the significant positive and negative associations of [illegible]is study to this point.

CHAPTER VI

CULTURAL-DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS AND OCCUPATIONAL SELECTION

We have now shown that differences between nursing students and teaching students in occupational selection are associated significantly with differences between them in expectation of occupational satisfaction and with differences on ten occupational values. We have shown too that differences between nursing and teaching students in occupational selection are significantly related to differences between them on six attitudes of primary and peer group members and six work-related experiences and impressions of these experiences. Finally we have pointed out that differences between nursing and teaching students on occupational values are associated with differences between them on five of the six work-related experiences and impressions of experiences.

Selected Cultural-Demographic Factors and Occupational Selection

It is the purpose of this first section of Chapter VI to consider the fourth general theory; that differences between nursing and teaching students on occupational values are associated with differences between them on selected cultural-demographic factors. In one sense, the findings presented in this first section are merely the raw material for

TABLE I

PERCENTAGE OF NURSING AND TEACHING STUDENTS BY SELECTED CULTURAL-DEMOGRAPHIC BACKGROUND FACTORS

Cultural-Demographic Background Factors	Nursing Students		Teaching Students	
	Total No. 100%	Per cent	Total No. 100%	Per cent
(Occupations)				
Business class[a]	133	38.3	185	59.5[b]
Working class		61.7		40.5
Father self-employed	133	27.8	187	32.6
Father not self-employed		72.2		67.4
Mother worked before marriage	132	81.1	184	81.5
Mother never worked		18.9		18.5
Mother worked as a nurse	132	7.6	184	4.9
Mother never worked as a nurse		92.4		95.1
Mother worked as a teacher	132	20.5	184	21.2
Mother never worked as a teacher		79.5		78.8
Father a union member	129	40.3	178	24.2[b]
Father not a union member		59.7		75.8
Father an AFL member	44	40.9	40	52.5
Father a CIO member		59.1		47.5
(Education)				
Father completed college	129	14.8	180	22.0
Father did not complege college		85.7		78.0

Cultural-Demographic Background Factors	Nursing Students		Teaching Students	
	Total No. 100%	Per cent	Total No. 100%	Per cent
Father completed any college.....	129	34.1	180	36.1
Father completed no college.....		65.9		63.9
Father completed high school or more.....	129	54.3	180	60.6
Father did not complete high school.....		45.7		39.4
Father completed any high school or more.....	129	68.2	180	78.3
Father completed no high school...		31.8		21.7
(Religion)				
Raised in working class[d] religious background.....	128	76.6	178	57.9[b]
Raised in business class religious background.....		23.4		42.1
Raised in Catholic religious background.....	132	12.8	185	16.7
Not raised in Catholic religious background.....		87.2		83.3
Raised in Protestant religious background.....	132	85.6	185	70.2[b]
Not raised in Protestant religious background.....		14.4		29.8

TABLE 1--Continued

Cultural-Demographic Background Factors	Nursing Students		Teaching Students	
	Total No. 100%	Per cent	Total No. 100%	Per cent
Raised in Jewish religious background	132	1.5	185	13.0[b]
Not raised in Jewish religious background		98.5		87.0
Attend church once a month or more	134	85.1	186	76.9
Attend church less than once a month		14.9		23.1
(Nationality)				
Mother speaks a foreign[e] language at home	133	15.0	186	24.7
Mother does not speak a foreign language at home		85.0		75.3
Father speaks a foreign language at home	135	14.9	185	22.7
Father does not speak a foreign language at home		85.1		77.3
(Community size and location)				
Live in rural place[f]	127	20.5	181	8.8[c]
Live in urban place		79.5		91.2

TABLE 10--Continued

Cultural-Demographic Background Factors	Nursing Students		Teaching Students	
	Total No. 100%	Per cent	Total No. 100%	Per cent
Live in a big city[g].....	127	50.4	181	65.5[b]
Live in small town or rural.....		49.6		31.5
(Community size and location)				
Live in Southeastern part of Michigan.....	127	63.0	181	77.8[b]
Not live in Southeastern part of Michigan.....		37.0		22.2
Live in Southwestern part of Michigan.....	127	18.1	181	6.1[c]
Not live in Southwestern part of Michigan.....		81.9		93.9
Live in Michigan.....	127	91.3	181	90.6
Live outside Michigan.....		8.7		9.4
(Race)				
Negro.....	135	11.1	138	4.3[f]
White.....		88.9		95.7

[a]Business class here includes those whose fathers are professional, proprietary, white collar workers; working class includes those whose fathers are skilled and unskilled manual workers, operatives, craftsmen, and farmers. Farmers are included as working class members simply because they address their activity to material things

specific consideration in the following sections. Table 15 shows the relationship of occupational selection to the several cultural-demographic factors.

Of the twenty-four breakdowns, ten indicate significant relationships, thus providing considerable evidence to support

---

rather than to goods or services. This division is drawn from the first Middletown study by the Lynds; though simple and arbitrary, this two-fold division seems satisfactory for our purposes.

[b]Difference is significant at the .01 level of confidence.

[c]Difference is significant at the .05 level of confidence.

[d]Business class religions are those whose membership comes primarily from the middle and upper classes: Episcopalian, Congregational, Presbyterian, and Jewish are usually categorized together. Working class religions are those whose membership is drawn mostly from the following religions: Catholic, Methodist, Lutheran, and Baptist. See Liston Pope, "Religion and the Social Structure," Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, CCLVI (March, 1948), 84-91, for a discussion of the relationship of religion to social and occupational class.

[e]The questions on mother and father speaking a foreign language at home were designed to see if there was any difference between the two groups of girls in Americanization. Use of a foreign language at home by either parent was deemed an indication of lack of Americanization.

[f]Urban place here has the Census Bureau definition: "Only incorporated places (cities, villages, boroughs, and in some states, towns) of 2,500 or more (and unincorporated places of this size outside urban fringes)." United States Census of Population: 1950, General Characteristics: Michigan, Preprint of Volume II, Part 22, Chapter B. (Washington, D.C.: United States Government Printing Office, 1952).

[g]Big cities are arbitrarily defined here as those places with 100,000 population or more.

the fourth general theory. These ten relationships we explore in the several sections of the chapter immediately following this one. The only significant relationship not considered is that between Protestant religious affiliation and being a nursing student. This relationship disappears when Jews are left out of the non-Protestant category; it was, therefore, not investigated further.

We are now interested in testing the fifth and sixth general theories: that the various occupational values, attitudes, and experiences we have discussed are significantly associated with both occupational selection and with those cultural-demographic factors. We consider these relationships later, after we consider those cultural-demographic factors on which nursing and teaching students do not differ significantly.

However, before examining these insignificant relationships, we must point out that all but one of the specific hypotheses turned out as anticipated. It was hypothesized, for example, that more nursing students than teaching students would come from a working class religious background, that they would come from a church attending background, from a non-Jewish religious background, and from a non-Negro racial background as well as from a rural background. The direction of the relationship of occupational class, of fathers' union membership, and of parents' nationality background to occupational selection was not specifically stated.

Table 15 shows that more nursing students than

teaching students come from a working class religious background, that nursing students and teaching students do not differ very much on church attendance, that they do not differ on parents' nationality background, that nursing students more than teaching students come from a non-Jewish religious background, that more nursing students than teaching students come from a rural background, that more nursing students than teaching students come from a lower occupational class position, that more nursing students than teaching students have fathers who are union members. The single hypothesis that turned out exactly contrary to expectation was that more teaching students than nursing students would be Negroes. In fairness, too, it must be mentioned that although nursing students and teaching students do not differ significantly on church attendance the difference is in the direction hypothesized. Although we might have guessed that nursing students would come from a lower occupational class background, no evidence warranted such an hypothesis before.

No hypothesis was suggested for mothers' previous occupational activity because it was thought that both nursing and teaching students would be alike in this respect. Table 15 shows they are very similar. About the same proportion of mothers of nursing students and teaching students served as nurses; likewise with mothers serving as teachers. However, when we break down the data to show the proportion of nurses' mothers who worked in the occupation their daughters are now preparing for we see a surprising result:

TABLE 16

PERCENTAGE OF NURSING AND TEACHING STUDENTS BY MOTHERS' PREVIOUS OCCUPATIONAL ACTIVITY

Mothers' Previous Occupational Activity	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
	Per cent	Per cent
Mothers who were nurses.....	7.6	4.9
Mothers who were teachers.....	20.5	21.2
Mothers who were neither nurses or teachers.....	71.9	73.9
Total.....	100.0	100.0
(Total cases).....	(132)	(134)

The surprising thing about the above table is that more mothers of nursing students were teachers than were nurses. The reason for this lies in the difference in the number of nurses and teachers in the state. According to the latest census of nurses[1] Michigan, in 1951, had 25,231 nurses. Of these 14,144 were active. The number of teachers in the state was much larger than that; latest estimates suggest about 48,000 active teachers, more than three times the number of active nurses. Indeed, the ratio of teachers to nurses among the mothers of nursing students in our sample is also roughly three to one; for the mothers of teaching students it is more than four to one.

When we look at the difference between nursing and

[1]American Nurses Association, Facts About Nursing, A Statistical Summary, 1953, Inventory of Professional Registered Nurses (New York: American Nurses Association, 1953).

teaching students on whether or not their fathers are self-employed, although we note no significant difference, the relationship follows closely in the direction pointed to by fathers' occupational class. The reason there is not complete correspondence between the breakdown on occupation of father and fathers' self-employment is that many who are categorized as business class members are currently employed by industry, business, and government. While once in our past economic life, being a business class member was probably synonymous with being self-employed, the character of our whole social system is now altered so that perhaps most of the business class members work for someone else.

Another reflection of the changed nature of our society is seen in the results on labor union membership and type of union. Nursing students and teaching students differ significantly on fathers' union membership. This too is congruent with the finding on occupational class. We expect more working class people than business class people to be union members. But we also know that an increasing number of business class members are joining unions. This latter fact is supported by the lack of significant difference between nursing and teaching students in type of labor union fathers belong to. Of the fathers who are members of one of the two major unions, AFL or CIO, slightly more teaching students' fathers than nursing students' fathers are members of the AFL, the whole union that may comparatively be characterized as closer to the business viewpoint in membership composition and outlook

than the CIO. Indeed, the AFL includes locals that cater to even business class types as teachers, insurance salesmen, public artists, clerical workers, etc. Thus, although more fathers of nursing students than of teaching students belong to unions, there is no significant difference between these two types of girls in the kind of union their fathers belong to.

Four breakdowns by education of father are shown in Table 18. These suggest that as we ascend the educational levels, the difference between nursing students' and teaching students' fathers tends to narrow, until we reach the level of those who have completed college. At that point, the difference increases again with 7.7 per cent more teaching students' fathers than nursing students' fathers having completed college. None of these four breakdowns, however, shows any significant difference. This seems unusual inasmuch as we often hypothesize that business class members are apt to be better educated than working class members, and we know that more of the fathers of teaching students than of nursing students come from the business class. It seems worthwhile to inquire here whether our data on educational completion square with the familiar hypothesis relating educational attainment to occupational class. Table 17 shows that they do.

Why then do fathers of nursing and teaching students not differ significantly on amount of education completed? Probably the answer is that there is no exact one to one relationship between fathers' occupational class and daughters'

occupational choice.

Two other findings warrant consideration in this section: those concerning church attendance and parents' nationality. It was hypothesized that frequent church attendance would be positively associated with being a nursing student, on the assumption that religiousness helped to engender sympathy for the sick and diseased, as well as a willingness directly to help the unfortunate. Though there is a slight tendency in the direction anticipated, it is not large enough to be significant.[1]

Another factor on which a significant difference was not found to exist was that of parents' nationality. However, here none was anticipated, or rather no evidence seemed to exist to justify an hypothesis. Some slight emphasis suggesting that more teaching students than nursing students had foreign born parents or parents who speak a foreign tongue at home,

---

[1]The problem of getting at the respondents' religiousness in a questionnaire is complex. Church attendance was employed here only as the roughest kind of index, after rejecting questions that dealt with church membership, church interest, and self-appraisal of religiousness. None of these seemed suitable, and we now know that church attendance is also unsuitable to detect a difference between the two groups. We may need to interview the respondent personally to ferret out the difference between nursing and teaching students, if any exists. Indeed, it may well be that the difference lies not in the daughters' religiousness, but rather in the religiousness of the parents. It may be that nursing students and teaching students do not differ on church attendance because the factor, daughters going to church, has no relationship to religiousness of parents. Both religious and semi-religious, and even non-religious parents may deem it proper to give their daughters "religious training and instruction." Any future study of this area of behavior ought to concern itself not only with daughters' religiousness but with parental religiousness as well.

TABLE 27

NUMBER OF NURSING AND TEACHING STUDENTS BY OCCUPATION OF FATHER AND BY FATHERS' SCHOOL YEARS COMPLETED

Fathers' School Years Completed	Working Class Occupations		Business Class Occupations	
	Individual Numbers	Cumulative Numbers	Individual Numbers	Cumulative Numbers
Four years of college.....	8	8	54	54
One to three years of college.....	14	22	34	88
Four years of high school.....	42	64	25	113
One to three years of high school.....	24	88	23	136
Seven to eight grades.....	53	141	16	152
Five to six grades.....	3	144	2	154
One to four grades.....	5	149	1	155
None.....	0	149	0	155
Total.....	149	149	155	155

seems to show up in Table 15. The lack of significant difference between nursing and teaching students on either father or mother speaking a foreign language at home lies in the fact that immigration to this country has been relatively light for the past twenty-five or thirty years. That slightly more parents of teaching students than of nursing students speak a foreign language at home reflects their later arrival in this country. We know, for example, that immigrants to the United States came in successive stages, those from Western Europe coming before those from Eastern Europe. Probably we would find many parents of Eastern European background among the teaching students. More meaningful questions than whether a foreign language was spoken at home would have been whether the parents came from Eastern or Western Europe, when they came to the United States, and whether they came from a rural or urban background.

In this section we have shown those cultural-demographic factors on which nursing students and teaching students differ significantly. We have also tried to suggest why nursing and teaching students do not differ significantly on other cultural-demographic factors. In the remainder of the chapter we analyze each of the significant associations found in Table 15 in terms of the numerous attitude, experience and value factors suggested before.

To this point we have presented all relevant relationships in a particular sequence, trying to follow the paradigm shown earlier.[1] It seems advisable here, however, to abandon

---

[1]See page 69 of this manuscript.

the paradigm and present the findings in an order that permits greater flexibility in discussion. A new outline of the subsequent analyses follows: first, we deal with each of the cultural-demographic factors found to be significantly related to occupational selection. With this relationship as the matrix we consider the association of the work-related personal experience-impression factors to the cultural-demographic factors. Finally, the relationships of the occupational values to these cultural-demographic factors are presented. Since we have already shown and know the relationships of the other factors that form part of the occupational process chain, there is no need to repeat them.[1]

This sequence of presentation provides the reader with a separate consideration of each of the relationships found to be significant in Table 15. It allows one to see the function of each of these in association with occupational values and with the work-related personal experiences and impressions. By this sequence it is also possible to provide relevant discussion without the need to refer continually to preceding tables.

Occupation of Father as a Cultural-Demographic Factor

The first of the cultural-demographic factors on which nursing students and teaching students differ significantly is occupation of father, or, more simply, occupational class. Some clues in the literature suggest that this factor influences

---

[1]See preceding tables and discussions.

the occupational selection of children. Most obviously it operates as a limiting factor in the economic sense. However, it operates in other, more positive ways too. When we speak of occupation of father influencing occupational selection, we mean that each occupational class possesses a distinct subculture with its own values, ideals, heroes, heroines, aspirations and attitudes, which are transmitted within the class to the sons and daughters of its members, through social interaction and through personal experiences.

If we can show that not only are general attitudes and values acquired in this way, but that specifically occupational values and attitudes are likewise gained through these early experiences against the backdrop of a distinct occupational class setting, then we will have extended our knowledge of both occupational selection and the area of influence of occupational class. Especially in America, which has cherished the notion of completely free choice in the selection of an occupation, this knowledge may be useful in the practical application of vocational guidance, in the field of nursing and teaching recruitment, and also in the realm of social theory.

We begin then by indicating the relationship of occupational class to attitudes of several primary and peer group members and to selected work-related personal experiences and impressions. Table 18 shows these associations.

This table shows a significant relationship only between occupational class and "time spent as a hospital patient." It seems reasonable to believe that significantly more daughters

TABLE 13

PERCENTAGE OF NURSING AND TEACHING STUDENTS WITH SELECTED ATTITUDES, EXPERIENCES, AND IMPRESSIONS FAVORABLE TO NURSING OR TEACHING BY OCCUPATIONAL CLASS[a]

Attitudes, Experiences, and Impressions about Nursing or Teaching	Working Class		Business Class	
	Total No. 100%	Per cent	Total No. 100%	Per cent
All students.....	157		160	
(Attitudes to nursing)				
Mothers' attitude.....	156	85.9	160	85.0
Fathers' attitude.....	153	79.1	153	73.2
Best boy friends' attitude.....	90	65.6	112	68.8
Best girl friends' attitude.....	142	85.2	138	79.7
(Attitudes to teaching)				
Fathers' attitude.....	153	81.0	152	80.3
Sisters (brothers) in teaching.....	157	10.8	159	16.4
(Work experience and impressions of the health field)				
Work experience.....	157	19.7	158	23.4
Impression of work experience.....	30	80.0	36	83.3
Any time spent as a hospital patient.....	155	58.1	157	70.6[b]
Impression of time spent as a hospital patient.....	75	84.0	92	79.3
(Work experience and impressions of the education field)				
Impression of work experience.....	84	78.6	92	76.1
Impression of previous schooling experience.....	156	67.3	155	75.8

[a]See footnote (a) of Table 15 for definition of occupational classes.
[b]Difference is significant at .01 level of confidence.

of working class fathers than daughters of business class fathers never spent time as a hospital patient. We may remember that farmers are included in the working class category, and we may expect farm families to care for their sick members at home. Moreover, the sheer economic factor is involved, whereby working class families are less able to afford hospitalization than business class families. The advent of hospital insurance is recent, and during the time these girls grew up, hospital and other medical expenses were borne by the family.

An unlikely alternative to explain this difference is that somehow working class daughters encounter fewer ailments requiring hospitalization. It is more plausible to suggest that working class and business class families differ in their interpretation of the severity of ailments. Business class families, we may suspect, are apt to ship their daughters to the hospital, if there is even the least hint of it being recommended, whereas working class families are reluctant to send their daughters to the hospital unless the illness is really severe and warrants full hospitalization.

We know now about the relationship of occupational class to the attitudes of primary and peer group members and the work-related personal experience and impression factors. The experience factor is associated with occupational class and thus provides support for the sixth general theory. From previous analysis[1] we know too that occupational class is

---

[1]See Table 15.

significantly associated with occupational selection.

It is necessary at this point to see whether occupational class is also related to any of the value factors. Table 19 shows these relationships.

Table 19 shows two factors significantly related to occupational class: being of direct service to people who need help and expressing one's own ideas and imagination.

From our previous analyses, we know too that both values are significantly associated with occupational selection, the former being positively associated with teaching and the latter one positively associated with nursing; the fifth general theory is thus confirmed by these findings. Moreover, we know from Table 13 that expressing one's own ideas and imagination is significantly and positively related to any time spent as a hospital patient. Being of direct service to people who need help is not significantly related to this experience factor. It is, however, significantly related to the work-related experience factors: impression of previous school experience and impressionof time spent as a hospital patient, though neither of these is significantly related to occupational class.

Our chain of relationships in this direction may now be considered complete. For the value, expressing one's own ideas and imagination, all of the links we sought to show have been found to exist; for the value, being of direct service to people who need help, only one link is missing.

The factor of occupational class goes then to support

TABLE 19

PERCENTAGE OF NURSING AND TEACHING STUDENTS WHO VALUE SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL VALUES[a] BY OCCUPATIONAL CLASS[b]

Selected Occupational Values	Working Class		Business Class	
	Total No. 100%	Per cent	Total No. 100%	Per cent
All students.....	157		161	
(Nursing values)				
Meeting people from all walks of life.	157	41.4	161	45.3
Being physically active on the job....	157	14.0	161	13.7
Advancing to a better paying job.....	157	16.6	161	12.4
Being of direct service to people who need help.....	157	70.7	161	59.6[c]
Getting a job again quickly and easily if necessary.....	157	30.6	161	23.6
(Teaching values)				
Expressing one 's own ideas and imagination.....	157	13.4	161	22.4[c]
Good working hours.....	157	21.1	161	16.1
Being one's own boss on the job.....	157	10.8	161	6.2
Having people look up to one.....	157	8.9	161	5.6
Working with children.....	157	56.5	161	62.1

[a]Even though we learned from Chapter V that only six of the ten occupational values are significantly related to any of the work-related experiences and impressions, all ten values are examined to see if they are related to any of the cultural-demographic factors.

[b]See footnote (a) of Table 15 for definition of occupational classes.

[c]Difference is significant at .05 level of confidence.

the fifth and sixth general theories: that differences between nursing and teaching students on attitudes of primary group members, or work-related personal experiences and impressions, and occupational values, are associated with differences between them on cultural-demographic factors. Occupational class difference may be a cause of the difference on any time spent as a hospital patient. Considering some of the other supported theories we may go furtner and suggest that any time spent as a hospital patient serves here as an intervening factor between occupational class and occupational selection. It does not seem reasonable to assume that any time spent as a hospital patient preceded valuation of expressing ideas and imagination. This value is better viewed as antecedent to both time spent as a hospital patient and occupational selection. It is not, however, reasonably viewed as antecedent to occupational class, with which it is also significantly related. This value may best be seen as following after occupational class yet preceding both time spent as a hospital patient and occupational selection. In other words, the line of causal relationship seems to move from the occupational class factor to valuation of expressing one's own ideas and imagination to occupational selection; while time spent as a hospital patient is associated with expressing one's own ideas and imagination and with occupational class, it does not seem to fit into this causal sequence.

The same kind of relationship chain seems to hold in considering being of direct service to people who need help.

As we know, the two experience factors significantly related to this value were not significantly related to occupational class. However, it again seems reasonable to suggest that this value intervenes between occupational class and occupational selection. Even if the experience factors were significantly linked to occupational class, it would not seem reasonable to suggest that they preceded valuation of being of direct service to people who need help.

If, then, none of the experience factors and none of the primary and peer group attitude factors are significantly associated as the intervening links between occupational class and these two occupational values, the question arises: what agents are responsible for the fact that working class daughters value being of direct service to people who need help, and business class daughters value expressing one's own ideas and imagination. These differential valuations are not simply the product of being working class or business class daughters. They are transmitted by some agent or agents with whom the girls differentially interact. None of the agents we suggested apparently provides this indispensible causal service.

The obvious answer comes immediately to our attention: some other factor or factors than the one we tried are responsible for the relationships outlined above. Taking care of sick relatives or friends, reading about Florence Nightingale or Anne Sullivan, hearing the minister talk about nursing or teaching, knowing a nurse or teacher personally, any of countless factors may have been influential in forming these values.

Indeed, some evidence exists to show that some of the attitudes of parents and peer group members are significantly related to the various occupational values.[1] However, as Table 14 shows, none of these attitudes is significantly associated with occupational class. Thus, even had there been a careful and specific relationship between these attitude factors and the occupational values, it would not have been possible to suggest them as the "missing links." We would still have to look elsewhere for them.

An alternative answer to the question of what factors served as agents linking occupational class with occupational values may be found by searching out the several interrelationships among the cultural-demographic factors themselves. It may be that if we examine closely the association of occupational class with each of the other cultural-demographic factors we will find that occupational class is not really the causal factor at all, but rather that within it are to be found more basic ones, which are tied to some of those intervening agents. Certainly this avenue of explanation is worth future investigation.

Size of Community as a Cultural-Demographic Factor

This section investigates the relationship of community size to occupational selection. Table 15 shows that coming from a big city is significantly and positively associated with selection of teaching as an occupation, and, coming from

---

[1] See Appendix IV.

a small city or rural area is significantly and positively associated with selection of nursing as an occupation. This finding is particularly interesting inasmuch as hitherto evidence has suggested that teachers are recruited from the rural areas. It may be that they still are to a very large extent, but certainly less so than nurses. We examine more closely this association between community size and occupational selection to see if our fifth and sixth general theories are confirmed or contradicted.

Table 20 shows the association of community size with each of the various attitudes of primary and peer group members and the work-related personal experiences and impressions.

Table 20 reveals support for the sixth general theory by showing four factors significantly related to size of home community: mothers' attitude to nursing, fathers' attitude to nursing, best boy friends' attitude to nursing, and best girl friends' attitude to nursing. In every instance being from the big city is negatively associated with favorable attitude to nursing. Small city and rural background is related to a favorable attitude toward nursing. None of the work-related personal experiences or impressions was found significantly related to size of home community. This suggests that these experience factors may not be as important as links in the process of occupational selection as had been hypothesized.

The crucial finding at this point is the negative association of each of the four favorable parental and peer group attitudes with nursing. One wonders why urban people have less favorable attitudes to nursing than small city and

Attitudes, experiences, and Impressions about Nursing or Teaching	Big City		Small Town	
	Total No. 100%	Per cent	Total No. 100%	Per cent
All students.....	188		121	
(Attitudes to nursing)				
Mothers' attitude.....	186	80.6	121	94.2[b]
Fathers' attitude.....	182	70.3	116	83.6[c]
Best boy friends' attitude.....	110	61.8	88	76.1[c]
Best girl friends' attitude.....	174	77.6	98	90.7[b]
(Attitudes to teaching)				
Fathers' attitude.....	182	80.2	115	81.7
Sisters (brothers) in teaching....	187	15.0	120	10.8
(Work experience and impressions of the health field)				
Work experience.....	187	20.9	119	22.7
Impression of work experience.....	37	78.4	26	84.6
Any time spent as a hospital patient.....	188	62.8	120	64.2
Impression of time spent as a hospital patient.....	100	79.0	71	85.9
(Work experience and impressions of the education field)				
Impression of work experience.....	99	79.8	71	76.1
Impression of previous schooling experience.....	185	73.0	119	72.3

[a]See note (g) of Table 15 for definition of big city and small town.

[b]Difference is significant at .01 level of confidence.

[c]Difference is significant at .05 level of confidence.

rural people?

For one thing, many small town and rural girls have greater opportunity than big city girls to practice as nurses while living on farms and in small communities. Older sisters particularly may be the ones who are exposed to such enforced nursing training at home. The remoteness of doctors and hospitals may cause them to be called on to help care for younger siblings. Besides, it may be that the practical training nursing provides offers an appropriate education for a girl reared in small town and rural areas who anticipates marrying a farmer or small town resident.

Still another possibility is that rural and small town people prefer nursing as an occupation for their daughters more so than big city dwellers because often there is less cash outlay required to educate them; cash has usually been short for farmers and rural dwellers. This explanation might hold especially for girls who enter the less expensive hospital training programs rather than the university schools of nursing.

The next step in this analysis inquires whether any occupational values are significantly related to both size of home community and occupational selection. Part of this information is provided in Table 21.

Five factors emerge from Table 21 as significantly related to size of home community: being of direct service to people who need help is related to small town and rural background; being able to return to work quickly and easily if

TABLE 21

PERCENTAGE OF NURSING AND TEACHING STUDENTS WHO VALUE SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL VALUES BY SIZE OF HOME COMMUNITY[a]

Selected Occupational Values	Big City		Small Town	
	Total No. 100%	Per cent	Total No. 100%	Per cent
All students	188		121	
(Nursing values)				
Meeting people from all walks of life	187	41.7	121	47.1
Being physically active on the job	187	10.6	121	18.1[b]
Advancing to a better paying job	187	13.4	121	14.9
Being of direct service to people who need help	187	59.4	121	74.3[c]
Getting a job again quickly and easily if necessary	187	24.1	121	38.0[c]
(Teaching values)				
Expressing one's own ideas and imagination	187	23.5	121	9.9[c]
Good working hours	187	19.2	121	16.5
Being one's own boss on the job	187	10.1	121	5.7
Having people look up to one	187	7.0	121	3.3
Working with children	187	67.4	121	48.7[c]

[a]See footnote (e) of Table 15 for definition of big city and small town.

[b]Difference is significant at the .05 level of confidence.

[c]Difference is significant at the .01 level of confidence.

necessary and being physically active on the job are also related to having a small town or rural background; expressing one's own ideas and imagination is related to a big city background; likewise with working with children. Each of these values is also significantly associated with occupational selection. These relationships lend considerable support to the fifth general theory: that differences between nursing and teaching students on occupational values are associated with differences between them on selected cultural-demographic factors.

We have now examined the relationship of each of the two sets of possible "third" or intervening factors: occupational values on the one hand, and on the other, the attitudes of primary and peer group members and work-related experiences and impressions of experiences, to both size of home community and occupational selection. Four of the primary and peer group attitudes are related to community size and also to occupational selection; none of the experience factors is associated with community size.

It seems warranted, therefore, to suggest that the five occupational values stem from the cultural-demographic factor: size of home community, and that these five values contribute to the selection of an occupation. However, we cannot suggest definitely through what agents this cultural-demographic factor operates to develop these values in the girls. In all likelihood it is through the influence of the parents and close friends of the girls, though we have only

very general attitude information to support such an assumption.[1] However, we have shown data which relate these attitudes of primary and peer group members to community size. These findings point plainly to the possibility that the general attitudes of parents and friends toward occupations partially influence the girls to enter particular occupations.

Type of Community as a Cultural-Demographic Factor

Essentially this section may be considered an extension of the preceding one. It too deals with communities. Here the division is between city and farm or village,[2] a sharper distinction than the big city--small town-rural one. In an important sense there is little difference between persons who live in cities of over a hundred thousand and those who live in cities slightly under a hundred thousand. This arbitrary division of people from roughly similar backgrounds may have blurred the differences we anticipated. Actually, the same problem exists when we divide the population by city and town or farm. Here we are apt to include as cities places that really ought to be considered as town or rural communites, inasmuch as their value orientations are rural in nature. On the other hand, Louis Wirth has suggested that nowadays the whole distinction between rural and urban is false. He points to the fact that, to a very large extent, most of the country

---

[1] See Appendix IV.

[2] Farm and rural areas are those with fewer than 2,500 people. All communities with more than that number are deemed cities.

is urbanized.[1] The day of stark difference between the values and attitudes of the urbanite and the ruralite has disappeared quickly with the development of the mass produced automobile, the radio, the metropolitan newspaper, and now television.

Nevertheless, we may attempt this analysis according to the rural-urban split. It may be that there are still some values or attitudes on which rural and urban people differ. We know from Table 15 that nursing students and teaching students differ on community type: being of rural background is significantly associated with being a nursing student and being of urban background is significantly associated with being a teaching student.

We inquire next whether any of the attitudes of primary or peer group members or any of the work-related personal experiences or impressions of experiences is significantly related to both community size and occupational selection. Table 28 shows part of this information.

Table 28 shows that urban background is significantly and negatively related to mothers' favorable attitude to nursing; this relationship supports the sixth general theory.

We may suggest the same general explanations for this relationship as were suggested in the preceding section on community size.

We turn now to see what values are significantly associated with type of community and occupational selection.

---

[1]Louis Wirth, "Urbanism as a Way of Life," American Journal of Sociology, XLIV (July, 1938), 1-24.

PERCENTAGE OF NURSING AND TEACHING STUDENTS WITH ATTITUDES, EXPERIENCES, ... FAVORABLE TO NURSING OR TEACHING BY TYPE OF HOME COMMUNITY[a]

Attitudes, Experiences, and Impressions about Nursing or Teaching	Urban		Rural	
	Total No. 100%	Per cent	Total No. 100%	Per cent
All students.....	265		43	
(Attitudes to nursing)				
Mothers' attitude.....	264	83.7	43	97.7[b]
Fathers' attitude.....	256	74.2	42	83.3
Best boy friends' attitude.....	170	68.8	28	64.3
Best girl friends' attitude.....	241	81.7	41	87.8
(Attitudes to teaching)				
Fathers' attitude.....	255	80.0	42	85.7
Sisters (brothers) in teaching....	264	13.3	43	14.0
(Work experience and impressions of the health field)				
Work experience.....	264	23.1	42	11.9
Impression of work experience.....	58	82.5	5	60.0
Any time spent as a hospital patient.....	261	65.5	42	59.5
Impression of time spent as a hospital patient.....	171	68.5	23	90.0
(Work experience and impressions of the education field)				
Impression of work experience.....	150	80.0	20	60.0
Impression of previous schooling experience.....	261	73.6	43	67.4

[a]See footnote (f) of Table 15 for definition of urban and rural places.

[b]Difference is significant at the .05 level of confidence.

TABLE 16

PERCENTAGE OF NURSING AND TEACHING STUDENTS WHO VALUE SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL VALUES BY TYPE OF HOME COMMUNITY[a]

Selected Occupational Values	Urban		Rural	
	Total No. 100%	Per cent	Total No. 100%	Per cent
All students	265		43	
(Nursing values)				
Meeting people from all walks of life	265	41.1	43	60.5[b]
Being physically active on the job	265	11.4	43	27.9[c]
Advancing to a better paying job	265	3.6	43	83.7[c]
Being of direct service to people who need help	265	61.5	43	33.7[c]
Getting a job again quickly and easily if necessary	265	27.2	43	41.9[b]
(Teaching values)				
Expressing one's own ideas and imagination	265	20.4	43	4.7[c]
Good working hours	265	18.1	43	18.6
Being one's own boss on the job	265	8.3	43	9.3
Having people look up to one	265	6.0	43	16.3[c]
Working with children	265	64.1	43	34.9[c]

[a]See footnote (f) of Table 15 for definitions of urban and rural places.

[b]Difference is significant at .05 level of confidence.

[c]Difference is significant at .01 level of confidence.

Table 23 shows us the relationship to type of community of those ten values which are related to occupational selection.

From this table we learn that five nursing values and three teaching values are associated with type of home community. All are also related to occupational selection; all, therefore, are evidence for the fifth general theory.

It is now possible to recognize the role type of community plays in the process of occupational selection. The evidence suggests that type of community contributes to the difference in values held by rural and urban girls. We know too that differences on these values are tied to the different occupational selections. Though again there is only indirect general evidence that mothers' attitude to nursing is specifically related to the values: expressing one's own ideas and imagination, being of direct service to people who need help, working with children[1]; we now know from Table 23 that mothers' favorable attitude to nursing is related to the girls' rural background. We may conclude that there is a strong likelihood that this maternal attitude heavily influences the formation of specific values, although our evidence does not allow us to state this more emphatically. We may also conclude that whether or not this maternal attitude works on the occupational selection process through the development of particular occupational values, it probably does exert a direct influence on the girls themselves when they are making their selections.

---

[1]See Appendix IV, Table 35.

Race as a Cultural-Demographic Factor

Certainly one of the basic cleavages of our society is that of race. In many places in America, Negroes and whites live in two distinct worlds, with a barrier between. These two separated racial categories actually constitute sub-cultures within the American culture. This has been shown by Davis[1] and Dollard[2] as well as by others. Negroes in America have their own sets of values, beliefs, attitudes, stereotypes, folklore, that differ somewhat from those of their white-skinned brothers. These differences are greater in the South than in the North, where there is greater interaction among the members of the two categories. Moreover, differences in folkways and mores between these two groups are fast disappearing in the face of successful efforts to break down discrimination in all crucial areas of life. More and more, Negro and white are coming to live, work and play side by side.

However, the day has not yet dawned when we can say that the cultural-demographic backgrounds of Negro and white are identical. Today a distinguishable gap still separates these two groups; the Negro is still subordinate, living apart mostly, and still developing in this enforced isolation a set of values, stereotypes, attitudes, and beliefs somewhat different from those of whites.

---

[1]Allison Davis and Robert J. Havighurst, "Social Class and Color Differences in Child Rearing," American Sociological Review, XI (December, 1946), 698-710.

[2]John Dollard, Caste and Class in a Southern Town (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1937).

On the assumption that there are significant differences setting apart Negro from white culture, race was included as a factor in this study.

As the data show in Table 15, a significantly larger proportion of nursing students than of teaching students are Negroes. In part this is accounted for by the absence of any apparent Negro discrimination at either of the two nursing schools included in the study: Wayne University and Michigan State College. Whatever the other reasons[1] for the relationship between being Negro and being a nursing student, one thing is clear: if given the opportunity to train as nursing students, Negro girls will do so in even larger proportion than they will enter teaching. This fact may help refute those nursing school administrators who justify a policy of Negro exclusion on the ground that "Negro girls just don't want to become nurses."

Being Negro is significantly and positively associated with being a nursing student, contrary to our specific hypothesis. How can this relationship be further clarified? What factors are associated with both race and occupational selection. Table 24 shows the associations between race and the attitudes of primary and peer group members and the work-related personal experiences and impressions.

---

[1]The suggestion has been made that the greater proportion of Negro girls in nursing than in teaching can be partly explained by the fact that Negro girls do not have good enough grades to get into the College of Education and, therefore, avoid being refused by selecting a nursing career. As argued before (p. 26), this does not seem to square with the facts about entrance requirements for the respective occupations.

[illegible] AND IMPRESSIONS FAVORABLE TO NURSING OR TEACHING BY RACE

Attitudes, Experiences, and Impressions about Nursing or Teaching	Negro		White	
	Total No. 100%	Per cent	Total No. 100%	Per cent
All students	24		299	
(Attitudes to nursing)				
Mothers' attitude	23	78.3	298	35.6
Fathers' attitude	22	81.8	288	75.3
Best boy friends' attitude	16	81.3	189	66.1
Best girl friends' attitude	22	90.9	264	81.4
(Attitudes to teaching)				
Fathers' attitude	22	81.8	287	30.1
Sisters (brothers) in teaching	23	8.7	298	13.8
(Work experience and impressions of the health field)				
Work experience	22	13.6	298	23.1
Impression of work experience	2	100.0	64	81.2
Any time spent as a hospital patient	21	47.6	294	65.6
Impression of time spent as a hospital patient	12	91.5	188	68.5
(Work experience and impressions of the education field)				
Impression of work experience	15	80.0	168	73.6
Impression of previous schooling experience	22	77.3	296	71.3

None of the experience or impression factors is significantly associated with race. This may be the result of the few Negro girls in our sample (only twenty-four). However, some factors tend toward significance in Table 24: impression of work experience in the health field and impression of time spent as a hospital patient. These suggest that other differences might be revealed were the sample larger. Moreover, perhaps among Negroes other agents are responsible for occupational information and attitude formation about the professions and more particularly about an occupation that generally is considered closed to Negroes. It may be that such factors as the advice of vocational guidance counselors, teachers, family doctors, play a large role in orienting Negro girls to nursing.

It we are unable to ascertain any experience or impression factors which clarify the association of race and occupational selection, perhaps we will have more success in examining the occupational values and their relationship to race. Table 25 shows these associations.

Table 25 shows no value factor significantly associated with race.

We are thus confronted with the conclusion that while race may be an important background factor in the occupational selection process, it operates either through none of the factors we specified, as these data show, or else it operates through some of these factors, although a greater number of cases is probably necessary to reveal these relationships.

TABLE 25

PERCENTAGE OF NURSING AND TEACHING STUDENTS WHO VALUE SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL VALUES BY RACE

Selected Occupational Values	Negro		White	
	Total No. 100%	Per cent	Total No. 100%	Per cent
All students	24		299	
(Nursing values)				
Meeting people from all walks of life.	24	41.7	299	43.8
Being physically active on the job	24	20.8	299	13.3
Advancing to a better paying job	24	16.7	299	14.0
Being of direct service to people who need help	24	79.1	299	84.2
Getting a job again quickly and easily if necessary	24	29.2	299	29.1
(Teaching values)				
Expressing one's own ideas and imagination	24	12.5	299	13.1
Good working hours	24	25.0	299	13.1
Being one's own boss on the job	24	8.3	299	8.7
Having people look up to one	24	0.0	299	7.7
Working with children	24	58.2	299	59.5

Another reasonable alternative conclusion is that race is not really a basic factor in distinguishing between nursing and teaching students, but that the cases involved in our sample made it appear basic.

Assuming that "race" is an important factor in distinguishing between these two types of students, the question still stands unanswered: what is there about the Negro subculture that fosters the selection of nursing rather than teaching as a feminine career choice?

Perhaps the answer to this question lies in the possibility that Negroes may view the teacher as a status requiring much knowledge and education, more perhaps than most ordinary girls can expect to possess. Nursing, on the other hand, represents an occupation whose activities all girls understand and have engaged in, particularly persons of the lower or working class which is the position of the bulk of the Negro population.

Perhaps it is not the Negro culture that prefers nursing to teaching, but simply because of the acute nursing shortage, more Negro girls are being advised to enter the profession in those nursing schools that will accept them. In short, there may be greater pressure to enter nursing exerted on Negro girls than on white girls just because of the shortage or the fact that the Negro segment of the population has not yet been earnestly tapped for nursing recruitment. Were this the case, it may account for the lack of significant difference between Negro and white culture patterns regarding evaluation

of nursing and teaching as possible occupational avenues for girls.

Religious Status as a Cultural-Demographic Factor

The division in business class and working class religions which we consider here is probably just another way of stating the occupational class difference or the community size difference. Nevertheless, we inquire further into the association of this religious status with occupational selection.

Americans have paid relatively little attention to religious status as a cultural-demographic factor affecting social behavior. Guided by the concept of the division of church and state, we have believed that religion is a purely personal affair bearing little relationship to other aspects of life. The generally equalitarian character of our social system has led us to ignore religious divisions as relatively unimportant in shaping different attitudes, ideals, values, beliefs, stereotypes, occupational or otherwise.

Yet, we know, for example, that Catholics and Jews, Catholics and Protestants, Protestants and Jews, all differ from one another in fundamental value orientations; and that Protestants differ among themselves not only in doctrine, theology and ritual, but also in values and outlook. Moreover, as Williams observes:

> Probably in no other modern industrial state does organized religion play a greater role. An attempt

> to analyze American society without attention to religion would result therefore in a queerly inaccurate reading of the system.[1]

Any attempt to analyze the occupational behavior of Americans without attention to religion likewise will result in a queerly inaccurate reading of that behavior. For, as a variety of writers from Weber[2] through Sombart[3] to Tawney[4] have stressed, religion is linked closely with the economic behavior of man; it may even be linked to his occupational behavior. Another comment by Williams is appropos:

> The indications are that religious phenomena have more causal significance in social process than is commonly believed.[5]

We examine what our data reveal, always restrained in this examination by the probability that religious affiliation is simply another way of indicating the more fundamental differences in occupational class or size of home community.

Table 26 shows one factor: favorable impression of time spent as a hospital patient significantly associated with business class religious status. If our assumption is correct

---

[1]Robin Williams, Jr., American Society, A Sociological Interpretation (New York: A. A. Knopf, 1951), p. 304.

[2]Max Weber, The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism, trans. Talcott Parsons (London: G. Allen and Unwin, Ltd., 1930).

[3]Werner Sombart, The Quintessence of Capitalism (Der moderne Kapitalismus, Munich and Leipsig, 1928), six volumes condensed in F. L. Nussbaum's History of the Economic Institutions of Modern Europe (New York: Crofts, 1933).

[4]Richard Tawney, Religion and the Rise of Capitalism (New York: Harcourt Brace and Company, 1926; Penguin Books, Inc., 1947).

[5]Williams, op. cit., p. 314.

TABLE 37

PERCENTAGE OF NURSING AND TEACHING STUDENTS WITH ATTITUDES, EXPERIENCES, AND IMPRESSIONS FAVORABLE TO NURSING OR TEACHING BY RELIGIOUS STATUS[a]

Attitudes, Experiences, and Impressions about Nursing or Teaching	Working Class Religious Status		Business Class Religious Status	
	Total No. 100%	Per cent	Total No. 100%	Per cent
All students	201		105	
(Attitudes to nursing)				
Mothers' attitude	201	85.5	104	83.7
Fathers' attitude	192	73.4	102	79.4
Best boy friends' attitude	131	59.5	65	64.6
Best girl friends' attitude	177	83.1	94	80.9
(Attitudes to teaching)				
Fathers' attitude	192	79.2	102	86.3
Sisters (brothers) in teaching	200	12.0	104	14.4
(Work experience and impressions of the health field)				
Work experience	200	20.0	103	27.2
Impression of work experience	37	73.4	27	85.2
Any time spent as a hospital patient	196	60.7	103	68.9
Impression of time spent as a hospital patient	115	58.3	71	87.3[b]
(Work experience and impressions of the education field)				
Impression of work experience	110	80.0	59	77.9
Impression of previous schooling experience	199	70.9	102	71.6

[a]See footnote (d) of Table 15 for definition of religious statuses.

[b]Difference is significant at .01 level of confidence.

that religious status is merely an alternative way of stating the difference between business class and working class or between rural and urban residence, then this finding is understandable and reasonable. For, if the business class religions are composed of business class people, we may expect that they will have both better hospital facilities available, when a patient, and also, as mentioned before, be more apt to go to the hospital for any kind of illness, even those of minor severity. The same reasons hold if business class people are of urban background and working class people are of rural background. Evidence that this is indeed the case is presented later in this section, after we examine the associations between religious status and the occupational values. Table 37 shows these relationships.

This table shows two values significantly associated with religious status; both being one's own boss and working with children are positively related to business class religious status.

Table 14, however, shows that neither of these two values is significantly associated with impression of time as a hospital patient, the only factor of the value set of intervening factors that was significantly associated with both occupational selection and religious status. We may conclude then either that some other factor than the ones we examined acts as the agent linking religious status to the occupational values or else that religious status influences the occupational values rather directly and that these then influence

TABLE 37

PERCENTAGE OF NURSING AND TEACHING STUDENTS AND VALUES SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL VALUES BY RELIGIOUS STATUS[a]

Selected Occupational Values	Working Class Religious Status		Business Class Religious Status	
	Total No. 100%	Per cent	Total No. 100%	Per cent
All students	201		105	
(Nursing values)				
Meeting people from all walks of life.	201	43.3	105	44.8
Being physically active on the job	201	13.9	105	15.2
Advancing to a better paying job	201	14.9	105	13.3
Being of direct service to people who need help	201	66.6	105	64.7
Getting a job again quickly and easily if necessary	201	30.3	105	23.8
(Teaching values)				
Expressing one's own ideas and imagination	201	14.4	105	20.0
Good working hours	201	17.9	105	18.1
Being one's own boss on the job	201	5.9	105	10.4[b]
Having people look up to one	201	7.0	105	5.7
Working with children	201	58.2	105	73.1[b]

[a]See footnote (d) in Table 15 for definition of religious statuses.

[b]Difference is significant at the .01 level of confidence.

the process of occupational selection. The first alternative would confirm the fifth general theory.

It seems appropriate to stress again that the relationship between religious status and occupational selection may actually be a spurious one, wherein difference in religious status may simply be another way of stating a more elementary fact: such as occupational class or community residence differences. Indeed, some data support this inference. Recall that in this study the religious denominations classified as working class include: Catholic, Methodist, Lutheran, and Baptist, and a few other minor sects, while the business class religions are Episcopal, Presbyterian, Congregational, Jewish, as well as a few Greek Orthodox and Armenian Orthodox,[1] one Christian Scientist, a Mormon, and a Moslem. If we examine the breakdown of the membership of most of these churches nationally[2] in terms of both occupation of father and social class, we have the findings shown in Table 28.

This table shows the relationship of religious affiliation to both occupational class and social class on a nationwide basis. Table 29 shows similar relationships between religious status and occupational class, union membership, and community size and type for our own sample. Possibly the

---

[1]Greek Orthodox and Armenian Orthodox girls were classified as from the business class religions because their fathers were in business class occupations.

[2]Cf. Liston Pope, "Religion and the Class Structure," The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, CCLVI (1948), 84-91, for a similar division by religious affiliation and occupational class, community size and union membership.

TABLE 38

PERCENTAGE OF AMERICANS OF VARIOUS MAJOR RELIGIONS BY OCCUPATION AND BY SOCIAL CLASS*

Various Major Religions	Occupation		Social Class	
	Business, Professional, White Collar	Urban-Manual, and Farm	Upper and Middle	Lower
	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent
(Working class religions)				
Baptist	26	74	32	68
Lutheran	31	69	47	53
Methodist	38	62	48	52
Catholic	37	63	34	66
(Business class religions)				
Jewish	73	27	54	46
Presbyterian	52	48	62	38
Episcopalian	57	43	58	42
Congregational	52	48	67	33

*These data derive from a breakdown of four pools taken by the American Institute of Public Opinion in 1945-46, covering about 12,000 cases. Each poll had a sample of approximately 3,000. Social class here is based on subjective evaluations of such things as type of neighborhood, home furnishings, dress, etc. These evaluations were later checked against such objective factors as occupation and education and found to relate to them very closely.

basic relationship is between one of these factors and occupational selection, rather than between religious status itself and occupational selection.

TABLE 29

PERCENTAGE OF NURSING AND TEACHING STUDENTS BY RELIGIOUS STATUS AND BY SELECTED CULTURAL-DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS

Selected Cultural-Demographic Factors	Working Class Religious Status		Business Class Religious Status	
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Big city[a]	192	55.7	99	68.7[b]
Urban	192	82.3	99	93.0[c]
Business class	198	43.9	103	64.1[c]
Father a union member	191	36.1	99	21.2[c]

[a]Only one factor is shown here for each of the four comparisons; the figures for the opposite factors are simply the obverse of these, with 100 per cent the total.

[b]Difference is significant at the .05 level of confidence.

[c]Difference is significant at the .01 level of confidence.

Jewish Religious Background as a Cultural-Demographic Factor

This section examines the association of Jewish religious background and occupational selection. If the fifth and sixth general theories are to be given additional confirmation, we must find one or more of the "third factors" to introduce significantly associated with both factors in this relationship.

We may begin by studying the relationship of Jewish

PERCENTAGE OF NURSING AND TEACHING STUDENTS WITH ATTITUDES, EXPERIENCES, AND IMPRESSIONS FAVORABLE TO NURSING OR TEACHING BY RELIGIOUS BACKGROUND

Attitudes, Experiences, and Impressions about Nursing or Teaching	Jewish Religious Background		Non-Jewish Religious Background	
	Total No. 100%	Per cent	Total No. 100%	Per cent
All students	26		291	
(Attitudes to nursing)				
Mothers' attitude	26	61.5	289	87.2[a]
Fathers' attitude	26	57.7	278	77.7[b]
Best boy friends' attitude	26	42.3	168	69.0[a]
Best girl friends' attitude	26	50.0	174	78.2[a]
(Attitudes to teaching)				
Fathers' attitude	26	92.3	277	80.1
Sisters (brothers) in teaching	26	15.4	289	13.1
(Work experience and impressions of the health field)				
Work experience	26	19.2	288	22.2
Impression of work experience	5	80.0	61	82.0
Any time spent as a hospital patient	26	57.7	291	65.6
Impression of time spent as a hospital patient	10	90.0	155	80.6
(Work experience and impressions of the education field)				
Impression of work experience	14	85.7	126	81.3
Impression of previous schooling experience	25	88.0	287	70.0

[a]Difference is significant at .01 level of confidence.

[b]Difference is significant at .05 level of confidence.

religious background to the attitudes of primary and peer group members and to the work-related personal experiences. Table 30 shows these relationships.

None of the work-related personal experiences and impressions is significantly associated with Jewish religious background. We infer, therefore, that Jewish and non-Jewish girls undergo generally similar experiences and have generally similar impressions. The relationship of favorable impression of previous schooling and being Jewish is almost, but not quite significant. This relationship suggests again the high regard Jews have for education, a high regard they instill early in their children.

Four attitude factors are significantly associated with Jewish religious background: mothers', fathers', best boy friends', and best girl friends' attitudes to nursing. All four are negatively related, indicating that it is non-Jews who have favorable attitudes toward nursing as a career possibility for their daughters.

This leads to one of the more interesting speculations of the study: why Jews discourage their young girls from entering nursing? On the one hand we know that among American Jews, both medicine and dentistry are occupations highly esteemed for sons. Why is it that this concern for health and physical welfare does not extend to Jewish daughters to permit them into nursing?

There are several interrelated reasons for the low prestige in which nursing is held as an occupation for Jewish

...ls. To begin with, we may note the Christian religious ...gin of nursing. Prior to the development of secular nurs- ..., beginning with the establishment of Florence Nightingale's ...raining school in 1860, much nursing care available was pro- ...ed by nuns and deaconesses. Nursing was a specific re- ...sponsibility of some of the religious orders of Christian ...men. This being true, it is easy to understand why Jews ...ay look askance at an occupation that had roots as a Chris- ...ian religious service. Probably for many Jews there still ...lings to the occupation some taint of this Christian begin- ...ing. And this taint makes it impossible for Jews to urge ...r encourage their daughters to enter nursing. Just as Jews ...o not ordinarily send their daughters to converts for fear ...f Christian indoctrination and possibly conversion, so too, ...ey do not send their daughters to nurses' training schools. ...t must be understood that many Jewish parents are totally ...aware of these reasons for their attitudes and values.

Another reason why Jews discourage their daughters ...rom choosing nursing is that nursing has been, until very ...ecently, largely a menial type occupation, which required, ...d still does, direct physical contact with disease, dirt, ... unpleasantness. Jews do not want their daughters engag- ...g in such a menial occupation. Throughout the whole his- ...ory of the Jews, a high valuation has been placed on academic ...arning and education; the menial job the nurse is thought ...o hold is not deemed desirable for Jewish girls because it ...equires relatively little education.

Still another reason why Jews discourage their daughters from becoming nurses is related to occupational class. Jews, being heavily concentrated in the business class, tend to view as culturally different and not especially desirable, the working class girls who have hitherto constituted the bulk of the nurses in this country. Early nurses were recruited from the working class population and Jews, like other business class people, persist in their suspicion of the nursing career as a suitable one for their daughters.

Doubtless there are other possible explanations for Jews discouraging their daughters from nursing; these we have suggested serve to emphasize the significance of the cultural factor in the process of occupational selection. Some consequences and conclusions based on these findings are discussed in the last chapter.

At this point, however, we must still seek some specific relationships. We already know that ten occupational values are significantly associated with occupational selection and with some of the primary and peer group attitudes and the work-related personal experiences and impressions. Table 31 shows which of these ten values is significantly related with Jewish religious status.

This table reveals one factor significantly associated with Jewish religious status: working with children. This value is also significantly related to occupational selection itself and to the primary and peer group attitude: mothers' attitude to nursing and fathers' attitude to

PERCENTAGE OF NURSING AND TEACHING STUDENTS WHO VALUE SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL VALUES BY RELIGIOUS BACKGROUND

Selected Occupational Values	Jewish Religious Background		Non-Jewish Religious Background	
	Total No. 100%	Per cent	Total No. 100%	Per cent
All students	26		291	
(Nursing values)				
Meeting people from all walks of life	26	30.8	291	45.0
Being physically active on the job	26	3.8	291	14.8
Advancing to a better paying job	26	11.5	291	14.4
Being of direct service to people who need help	26	57.7	291	65.3
Getting a job again quickly and easily if necessary	26	15.4	291	30.6
(Teaching values)				
Expressing one's own ideas and imagination	26	23.1	291	16.5
Good working hours	26	15.4	291	19.2
Being one's own boss on the job	26	15.4	291	7.6
Having people look up to one	26	7.7	291	6.9
Working with children	26	88.5	291	57.4*

*Difference is significant at .01 level of confidence.

teaching.[1] Perhaps these parental and friends' attitudes toward nursing and teaching are the important links relating the cultural-demographic factor, Jewish religious status to the relevant occupational values.

On the basis of the several analyses pointed out above, it seems reasonable to conclude that Jewish religious status is an important causal factor producing in parents and friends unfavorable attitudes toward nursing as an occupation for Jewish young girls. Our data are not specific enough to be able to insist that these parental and peer group attitudes are also responsible for the formation of the valuation of working with children. This is a possibility, however, which future research ought to investigate.

If we were to suggest the causal line of relationship, it would be as follows: Jewish religious status produces in members of the Jewish folk community negative attitudes toward nursing. These negative occupational attitudes are probably inculcated into Jewish girls at a very early age; specific occupational values are probably also formed during this early period. Jewish girls thus grow up with a high valuation of working with children. This occupational valuation helps determine which occupation is to be selected. In addition, the mere existence of even generalized attitudes of non-favorableness toward nursing, as Table 30 shows, exerts pressure on these

---

[1]See Appendix IV for tables showing these general relationships. As mentioned before, a detailed analysis of these factors was not carried out because they are not specific enough.

TABLE 32

PERCENTAGE OF NURSING AND TEACHING STUDENTS BY HOME LOCATION IN STATE OF MICHIGAN AND BY SIZE AND TYPE OF HOME COMMUNITY

Size and Type of Home Community	Southwestern Part of Michigan		Other than Southwestern Part of Michigan	
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Big city[a]	34	26.5	220	74.6[b]
Urban	34	64.7	220	93.7[b]

[a]The percentages for the opposite factors (small town and rural) are the difference between the figures shown and 100 per cent.

[b]Difference is significant at the .01 level of confidence.

TABLE 33

PERCENTAGE OF NURSING AND TEACHING STUDENTS BY FATHERS' UNION AFFILIATION AND OCCUPATIONAL CLASS OF FATHER

Occupational Class of Father	Father a Union Member		Father not a Union Member	
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Working class	92	90.2	198	23.7*
Business class		9.8		76.3
Total		100.0		100.0

*Difference is significant at .01 level of confidence.

girls to select some other occupation as a career choice. Thus, whether or not the attitudes of the primary and peer group members serve as intervening factors between occupational values and Jewish religious status, these attitudes may nevertheless be seen as influential in the process of occupational selection.

Residual Characteristics as Cultural-Demographic Factors

Two last factors significantly associated with occupational selection, union membership and location of home in Michigan, remain to be considered. Union membership and living in the Southwestern part of the State are related to being a nursing student. These factors are important in understanding the differences between nursing students and teaching students, inasmuch as we find union membership significantly associated with occupational class and living in the Southwestern part of the State significantly associated with rural and small town background. Tables 32 and 33 show these relationships.

No further analysis of these two factors is planned here. None is deemed necessary to enhance our understanding of the relationships already unearthed.

We have now completed consideration of the several cultural-demographic factors significantly related to occupational selection. One final task remains before we conclude this report--to take a summary view of what we have found, attempting to assess its importance and to clarify its meaning. This we endeavor to do in the next chapter.

CHAPTER VII

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Summary and Interpretation of Major Findings

George Homans has suggested that the knowledge gained from research must be considered "good" because it *might* have a future; meanwhile, it must be considered "good in itself," like a baby.[1]

In this chapter then we try to show that the knowledge gained from this research does indeed "have a future." Here we attempt to suggest what our findings mean for social theory, for practical usefulness, and for further research.

We begin this explanation by pointing out that the data we examined have served to test six general theories and many specific hypotheses dealing with occupational selection. All of these theories and many of the hypotheses were upheld by some part of the findings. These theories and hypotheses were shown to be interrelated and to suggest the comprehensive social process through which people pass in selecting career occupations.

The pattern this social process follows was revealed by the various factors shown to be significantly associated

---

[1]George Homans, *The Human Group* (New York: Harcourt Brace and Company, 1950), p. 2.

with being a nursing or a teaching student.

Throughout this analysis the attempt has been to relate occupational selection to occupational values, to occupational attitudes of primary and peer group members, to work-related personal experiences and impressions of these experiences, and finally to several cultural-demographic factors: occupation of father, religious background, race, size and type of home community. The effort was also made to relate each of these factors to the others, thereby implying a chain process of occupational selection tied at one end to the cultural-demographic factors and at the other to the actual career selection itself.

In summarizing our findings it seems sound to rearrange the order in which they were examined earlier; here it is proposed to look first at the more basic factors: the cultural-demographic ones, and show step-by-step what we found in this study of the process of occupational selection.

A complex of relationships was found to support the fourth general theory: that the cultural-demographic factors are directly related to occupational selection itself. The cultural-demographic factors and occupational selection are the two sets of extremes in this patterned process of career choice. This fourth theory suggests an association not only from link to link in the chain, but also from one end to the other. This theory was confirmed when we found that nursing and teaching students came from different occupational class backgrounds, different racial, religious, community size and

type backgrounds. Support of these relationships and of this general theory makes clear that even had we discovered no significant intervening relationships in this investigation, we might still be warranted in arguing the influence of cultural-demographic factors in the process of choosing a career.

Another theory involving these cultural-demographic factors was also supported by the findings of this study; the sixth general theory that the cultural-demographic factors are associated with both occupational attitudes of primary and peer group members and with work-related personal experiences and impressions of these experiences. Specifically, it was found that coming from business class occupational background was positively associated with spending time as a patient in a hospital; that having a non-Jewish religious background was positively associated with mothers', fathers', best boy and best girl friends' favorable attitudes to nursing; and that coming from a rural background was positively related to mothers' favorable attitude toward nursing.

These several specific relationships support the sixth general theory and confirm the notion that the cultural-demographic factors are basic ones in molding attitudes and in permitting and limiting work-related personal experiences and impressions of experiences.

Actually, as can be seen from the above-mentioned relationships, only a few of these attitudes, experiences, and impressions are linked to the cultural-demographic factors.

However, these cultural-demographic factors also exert their pressure in other ways in this process of occupational selection. We found much evidence to buttress the fifth general theory: that the cultural and demographic factors are associated with the occupational values held by the nursing and teaching students themselves. The following positive, particular associations were uncovered: between working class background and valuing being of service to people who need help; business class background and valuing expression of one's own ideas on the job; Jewish religious background and valuing working with children; small town background and valuing being of service to people who need help and being able to return to work promptly; big city background and valuing working with children; rural background and these several values: meeting people from all walks of life, physical activity on the job, advancing to a better paying job, being of service to people who need help, and being able to return to work quickly and easily if the need arises; urban background and valuing expression of one's own ideas and imagination, having people look up to one, and working with children.

These many specific relationships make clear that sometimes the cultural-demographic factors can operate directly on the occupational values, either through the intervening attitudes, experiences, or impressions that we indicated or perhaps through some other, similar agencies. In any event, we know that the cultural and demographic factors are important in the formation of occupational values, which in turn are instrumental in occupational selection.

At the next level of analysis the attempt was made to test the second general theory; this theory suggests that the several primary and peer group attitudes as well as the work-related personal experiences and impressions of these experiences are associated directly with occupational selection. This theory too was supported by our findings. We found that being a nursing student was positively related to favorable attitudes toward nursing by mothers, fathers, best boy and girl friends of nursing students; that being a nursing student was also positively related to work experience in the health field, favorable impression of that work experience, any time spent as a hospital patient, and favorable impression of time spent as a hospital patient; that being a teaching student was positively associated with fathers' favorable attitude to teaching; and that being a teaching student was also positively related to having siblings in teaching and having a favorable impression of previous school experience.

These specific findings supporting the second general theory suggest that these experiences and impressions, but especially these primary and peer group attitudes, may influence occupational selection not only by developing occupational values (something we only surmise from this study) but also at the actual time of career selection these attitudes may exert a direct influence on occupational decision-making.

The attempt was also made to test the third general theory: that work-related personal experiences and impressions of these experiences are significantly associated with the

several occupational values. Because only the most general information on parental and peer group members' attitudes was available, it was not considered feasible to inquire into the relationships of these attitudes and the occupational values. This study provided support for the third theory; specifically it uncovered these several positive relationships: lack of work experience in the health field, to valuing both working with children and good working hours; lack of a favorable impression of previous school experience to valuing helping people who need help; favorable impression of this school experience to valuing both expressing one's own imagination and ideas and working with children; time spent as a hospital patient to valuing the following three values: expressing one's own imagination and ideas on the job, being one's own boss, and working with children; and finally, a favorable impression of time spent as a hospital patient to valuing physical activity on the job and also being of service to people who need help.

These several relationships fill in another part of the pattern of this process of career selection; we may suggest that the work-related experiences and impressions give rise to some occupational values. Above we showed which of these work-related personal experiences and impressions stemmed from which of the cultural-demographic factors. At this point we may suggest that a line of relationship seems to run through tying together three levels of factors. Business class background, we found, was positively associated

spending time as a hospital patient, with the occupa-
l value: expressing one's own ideas and imagination,
with being a teaching student; we also found that spend-
time as a hospital patient was related to expressing one's
ideas and imagination and also to both working with chil-
and being one's own boss. Thus, a distinct thread is
sible running through three levels of factors in this pro-
s. This thread, moreover, continues consistently through
fourth level. Time spent as a hospital patient was found
be related to being a teaching student, thus completing this
rticular web of relationships.

All that remains in this summary of findings is to
licate that the first general theory was confirmed too. It
found that nursing and teaching students differed signifi-
tly on ten occupational values. Being a nursing student
positively associated with valuing: meeting people from
walks of life, being physically active on the job, ad-
ing to a better paying job, being of direct service to
ple who need help, and returning to work quickly and easily
necessary; being a teaching student was found positively
ted to valuing these: expressing one's own ideas and
lation on the job, good working hours, being one's own
on the job, having people look up to one, and working
children.

This last set of relationships suggests clearly that
occupational values play a part in influencing career

selection. Indeed, our investigation on the other levels of the attitude, experience, and impression factors and the more fundamental cultural-demographic ones, indicated that these occupational values intervened in this occupational selection process.

Analyzing all these relationships which are linked to each other and to the selection of nursing and teaching, we found that three cultural-demographic factors were of fundamental importance in explaining this process of occupational selection. It is appropriate to venture some speculation why occupational class, religious background, and type of home community should emerge as vital factors in this sphere of behavior.

Perhaps the explanation for the pre-eminence of these factors is that they represent three of the major splits of the society: the working class-business class division, the Jewish-non-Jewish division, and the rural-urban division. These divisions are fundamental inasmuch as they show the several important American sub-groups and sub-cultures. These sub-groups possess value systems and behavior patterns somewhat different from other sub-groups. These different value systems and behavior patterns are the essential sub-cultures of the society. That these sub-cultures exist has been known for some time. Which were the important sub-cultures in influencing behavior has not been so well known, although sociologists have been aware of the basic cleavages between rural and urban dwellers, Jews and non-Jews, and the differences between

the occupational levels. We now have some additional data showing the importance of occupational class, religious affiliation, and size of home community in influencing another phase of human behavior.

In Chapter VI on the particular cultural-demographic factors themselves, we suggested several reasons to account for the differences in occupational stereotype of nursing and teaching. Thus, it would seem that our assumption that some, at least, of the cultural-demographic factors investigated, represent sub-cultures of the society is upheld. For, we found that members of the several sub-groups possess rather standardized systems of occupational (and other) values, which are signs of a sub-culture. Actually, we have not demonstrated that each of these is a sub-culture. But our findings are consistent with such an assumption, and there exists some evidence outside this study to justify this assumption even at this stage of American history.

It must be remembered that sub-groups and sub-cultures may change as do other types of communities and social groups; it may be that both the occupational class groups, the rural community groups and the Jewish community groups, are changing, however slowly, in the face of the impact of the mass culture. This mass or popular culture with its common symbols and basic language pervades the entire society, and through such effective instruments as newspapers, radios, automobiles, airplanes and more recently television, the process of leveling all things unique, counter, different, individual, receives

a powerful impetus. Were this study conducted fifty years ago, it might well have been that the differences between working class and business class, between rural and urban dwellers, and between Jews and non-Jews, in their occupational values and expectations would have been even more marked than has been revealed by this study. At that time the insularity of these sub-groups was even more pronounced than now; accordingly, the transmission of unsullied values and attitudes between the generations within the community group was greater. By the same token, we may suggest that as the mass culture continues its leveling influence on all the members of the society, the remaining cultural communities that still retain any flavor of particular occupational attitudes or values, such as the occupational classes and the community types and the religious or ethnic folk communities, will be over-run; ultimately, we may expect to find that occupational selection, while not uninfluenced by cultural-demographic factors, will be fairly similar for all the members of all the society's different sub-groups. We will have reached the point in the development of the democratic ideal where occupational values, attitudes, stereotypes, will be so widely standardized throughout the society that business class, Jewish and urban girls will enter nursing, and working class, non-Jewish and rural girls will enter teaching in the proportions appropriate to their numbers.

It must be remembered that this has been a study limited to the two occupational categories: nursing and

teaching. While some differences between them may appear to be relatively slight, inasmuch as these two occupations have many points of similarity, differences among other occupations may be much greater. If, for example, we were to investigate the cultural-demographic backgrounds of artists and of policemen, it is likely that we would find many more pronounced differences. Those who enter medicine and those who enter the maritime service would seem to be persons from altogether different cultural-demographic backgrounds. Quite probably, they would differ in personality structure too; to a very great degree, however, it is suggested, these personality differences would be functions of their cultural-demographic differences. At any rate, there would likely be cultural-demographic differences not caused by personality characteristics.

To the extent that nursing and teaching are similar occupations we have chosen an extreme situation, which only helps to stress that differences in background clearly exist and affect occupational selection.

Whatever occupational categories we study, however, it is very likely that we will find of vast importance in the implanting of attitudes and values such factors as parental attitudes, friends' attitudes and especially work-related experiences and impressions of these experiences. The nature of these may vary, but it is difficult to believe that one could choose to be a doctor or a sailor, a plumber, or a ball player, without one or more of these socializing agents exerting its influence on him.

We have found then in this study that nursing students differ significantly in a variety of ways from teaching students. Though we have not explicitly and directly conducted a causal analysis because of the many limitations imposed by our data, we have in many instances been able to suggest probable causal relationships. Overall we have implied that it is the cultural-demographic factors which indirectly but ultimately cause the occupational selections, with work-related personal experiences and impressions of these experiences, and perhaps parental and friends' attitudes, and occupational values, all serving as intervening factors to make possible the process of the relationship.

We turn now to consider the significance of these many findings for social theory, social practice, and social research.

Significance of Findings for Social Theory

The findings of this study demonstrate anew the centrality of social values in the understanding and motivation of human behavior. Over and over again this study has shown that girls select their career because of occupational values they esteem, values probably instilled in them as a result of their work-related personal experiences and perhaps too as a result of contact with the attitudes of primary and peer group members.

The findings revealed another vital area of human life as subject to identifiable, even measurable social factors; occupational selection has been shown to be not the whimsical

even calculated choice it has long been believed to be. Occupational selection has been found to be influenced by cultural and demographic factors over which the growing child and adolescent has no control. He is their product, and his choice of an occupation is influenced by them, although the process of this influence is only vaguely understood at present. Many persons may often still choose the occupation they wish to choose, but it is time we understood that the wishes themselves are very decidedly influenced by the people around them, the experiences they have undergone, and by their cultural-demographic backgrounds, especially occupational class, religious affiliation and type of community. Here, once more, we have found that the role of culture is vast in the determination of how human beings behave. Even here in the United States, which has been thought to have a fairly standardized culture, such sub-cultures as that of occupational class, religious affiliation, and of type of community make a difference in the behavior of their members. Our American society, this set of findings suggests, is not yet so thoroughly standardized or leveled that we may speak as if her citizens behaved uniformly. We must still take into account the influence on human behavior of the few sub-cultural influences existing in the society. Indeed, this sub-cultural concept has again proved its utility in helping to explain the transfer of values and attitudes and the consequent occupational selection.

Finally, this study has helped to provide evidence to

compel at least a re-evaluation by psychiatrists and psychoanalytic anthropologists of their constitutional, psychic and instinctive explanations of occupational selection. We have tried to show in this study that cultural and demographic factors rather than biological or psychological ones are crucial in explaining why different people enter the different occupations they do. While we have tried to show this specifically for nursing and teaching students at two colleges in one state, and while we may not reliably generalize beyond that universe of students, the implication is clear that the cultural-demographic background factors are very important in the process of occupational selection.

Significance of Findings for Social Practice

For some persons the final test of any research is its immediate practicality. They ask: "What are the everyday uses to which these findings can be put in the fields of nursing, teaching, or vocational guidance?"

Several suggestions emerge from this study that can bear fruit in social practice.

The findings presented in this research can mark the beginning of an attempt by the nursing and teaching professions to focus their recruitment drives, and thus avoid wasted effort and money in seeking personnel. This research suggests that more teachers and nurses can be recruited proportionate to the money and effort expended, if efforts are made to pinpoint recruiting material to the social segments most apt to

...s and favorably. In other words, appeals to business class ... to become nurses are less apt to be rewarded than ap... to working class girls to become nurses, because, as we ... shown, there is a cultural resistance to nursing as a ...reer choice for business class daughters. On the other hand, ...peals for teachers are less apt to be cordially received ... members of the working class than among members of the ...siness class. Similarly rural and small town girls are the ... likely audience for effective rural recruitment, while ... city girls seem more responsive to appeals to enter teach... Negro girls seem more suitable persons to respond favor...ly to a nursing rather than a teaching recruitment drive, ...provided efforts are genuinely made to continue the elimina...n of discrimination in hospital training schools and hos...itals and provided too efforts are made to acquaint Negro ...ls of this changed policy.

The above comments are valid within the framework of ... existing social and cultural definitions of nurse and ...cher each sub-culture has. Though the nursing and teach... professions should recognize there are differences in ...bility of successful recruiting in the different sub-... rural communites, they need not, however, abandon their ...ts to alter the stereotypes of nurse and teacher held by ...se sub-groupings. In this attempt to remold stereotypes ...g the segments of the population that view the nurse or ...cher in a somewhat unfavorable light, this study has in...rtly suggested that the key persons to be reached are the

parents and close friends of the girls. Their attitudes must be changed, it would seem, before there is much realistic hope of persuading the girls themselves actually to enter the occupation. Parents, in particular, we may guess from the general data on this subject, must be sold on the merits of an occupation before they will endorse it and begin to influence their daughters in that occupational direction. Appeals made to the girls themselves, of course, are useful, but this is only so insofar as these appeals pass through the girls to the parents and thereby help educate them. We may suspect that parents still exercise a hold on the attitudes, values, and behavior of their daughters. More direct efforts to persuade parents that nursing or teaching are desirable occupations for their daughters would seem a sensible course to take in influencing the attitudes and values of the girls themselves. Needless to repeat, these appeals to parents will also be most cordially received from selected cultural-demographic groups.

Finally, this study points to the significance of social values and attitudes in occupational guidance. Counselors must concern themselves increasingly not only with the abilities and interests of young people (and adults), but they must also pay attention to the values and sterotypes these people have about careers. In short, they must learn to view their clients as social persons rather than as isolated individuals with specific capacities and interests that can be put to work wherever these abilities and interests are in demand. It may be, for example, that a person is sympathetic

and likes being with people of all sorts. Before even suggesting nursing as a possible occupation, it would be well to learn too that she happens to come from an orthodox Jewish family which views nursing as an impossible choice for their daughter, and which emphasizes the primary importance of academic education in preparing for a job. With this additional information, plus other knowledge we have gained from this study, it would perhaps be unwise to recommend nursing as a career choice for the girl, at least until some effort was made to discuss the matter with her family, or at least to acquaint the girl herself with the possible familial complications of deciding on a nursing career.

Significance of Findings for Social Research

Turning now to the area of research, this study points first to the need for a full scale investigation of specific occupational attitudes of parents and peers and their influence in the development of children's occupational values and attitudes. We need to know, for example, whether attitudes of primary group members assist in the formation of specific occupational values that later become instrumental in the process of occupational selection. This present study was able to uncover only generalized occupational values of these primary and peer group members; it would help tremendously to have these specified at first hand rather than second hand through sons or daughters.

Another need this study has underscored is for supplementary data of a psychological sort. Such a psychological

study would need to be directed at discovering the personality traits that people in different occupations possess. Some progress in this direction is being made.[1] More careful and elaborate studies, however, must be made which are geared to the sociological data. Many psychological studies of occupational selection have suggested that personality traits determine choice. The obvious question to each of these studies is: what factors influence or determine these personality traits? The answer is partially suggested by this study, which indicates that differences in personal experiences, impressions of such experiences, and probably differences in primary and peer group members' attitudes, and in sub-culture backgrounds produce differences in personality structure which in turn may lead to differences in occupational choice.

This study has also pointed to the need for other research in a variety of other occupational fields, to check, modify, and perhaps extend the tentative beginnings suggested here and elsewhere. These studies must be empirical, but they must be geared to the existing theory with the end in view of ultimately developing a middle range theory of occupational selection, at which this present study can only hint.

In this proposed future research, there must be a

---

[1]See Theodore Caplow, The Sociology of Work (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1953); E. M. Daniels and W. A. Hunter, "Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Patterns for Various Occupations," Journal of Applied Psychology, XXIII (1949), 559-65: Edward Furst, Bureau of Psychological Services, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan: See p. 12 of this report.

constant effort to clarify and define the various concepts employed so that there will be a gradual closing of the gap between abstraction and the empirical world.[1] There must also be a repetition of the present study of nursing and teaching students or of nurses and teachers in the same or some other state, taking into account the mistakes of the present venture and profiting by them.

We need to have a large-scale, nation-wide study in this field of occupational selection, a study involving persons in or entering a great number of different occupations; such a study could be the basis of some important generalizations which can be suggested here only for a very limited universe. Such a large-scale project should certainly include male as well as female occupations; likewise it should consider occupations other than the professions, even though this is often difficult because of the lack of explicit intention and planned training for them. More often than not, we may suspect, persons who enter occupations other than the professions or other career type job do so because openings are available at wages these persons are willing or are forced to accept. Even so, there will probably be found some significant value and attitude differences that relate to occupational selection between manual, white collar, and professional workers.

Whether this study and its findings will result in any

---

[1] Herbert Blumer, "What is Wrong with Social Theory," American Sociological Review, XIX (February, 1954), 1-10.

practical changes in either nursing or teaching or vocational guidance work remains to be seen; in a sense it is unimportant whether there is any immediate practical usefulness resulting from these findings. The study has confirmed the fact that the whole neglected area of occupational selection is a fertile one for exploration by sociologists, anthropologists, and social psychologists. This problem of occupational selection is as much sociological as psychological, as this study has demonstrated. Though psychologists have been busily at work in this area, as the literature shows, their efforts have been handicapped by a lack of corresponding effort by sociologists. There has been a failure to emphasize the cultural-demographic factors behind the personality factors and behind the actual selection of an occupation. This is a failure that sociologists must endeavor to overcome by an active interest in one of the most crucial fields of modern human behavior: the field of occupational selection.

APPENDIX I

SAMPLE QUESTIONNAIRE

Questionnaire for Education Students

The following questions are asked to discover how people decide on their occupations. These questions concern teaching and nursing in particular. Your help in answering them as carefully as possible will be appreciated.

1. How did you happen to get interested in teaching?

_____

_____

2. If you could do any kind of work you wanted to, what occupation would you like to go into?

_____

_____

2A. If your answer was NOT teaching, how did you happen to go into teaching?

_____

_____

3. What are some of the things about teaching you think you'll like?

_____

_____

4. What is the one most important thing about teaching you think you'll like?

_____

6. What are some of the things about teaching you think you may <u>not</u> like so well?

_____

_____

7. What is the <u>one</u> thing about teaching you think you may like <u>least</u>?

_____

_____

7. What are some of the things you might like about a career in <u>nursing</u>?

_____

_____

8. What is the <u>one</u> most important thing about <u>nursing</u> you think you might like?

_____

9. What are some of the things about a nursing career you might <u>not</u> like so well?

_____

_____

10. What is the <u>one</u> thing about nursing you think you would like <u>least</u>?

_____

In most of the questions that follow the various possible answers are listed, and each answer has a code number next to it. <u>PLEASE CIRCLE THE CODE NUMBER NEXT TO THE ANSWER YOU THINK IS APPROPRIATE</u>.

FOR EXAMPLE: Did you ever consider becoming a nurse?

1. Seriously considered becoming a nurse
2. Vaguely considered becoming a nurse
3. Never considered becoming a nurse

If you ever seriously considered becoming a nurse, circle the 1 as above.

10. Did you ever consider becoming a nurse?

1. Seriously considered becoming a nurse
2. Vaguely considered becoming a nurse
3. Never considered becoming a nurse

11A. If you ever considered becoming a nurse at all, how did you happen to get interested in nursing?

_____

_____

11B. If you ever considered becoming a nurse at all, how did you happen to go into teaching?

_____

_____

12. Which of the following best describes your present feeling?

1. I would probably be much more satisfied as a teacher than as a nurse
2. I would probably be somewhat more satisfied as a teacher than as a nurse
3. I would probably be equally satisfied as a teacher or as a nurse
4. I would probably be somewhat more satisfied as a nurse than as a teacher
5. I would probably be much more satisfied as a nurse than as a teacher

13. Some things you might look for in choosing an occupation are listed below. PLEASE READ THE WHOLE LIST THROUGH and then indicate which of these things is most important to you by writing a "1" in front of it.

___A. Meeting people from all walks of life

___B. Expressing your own imagination and ideas

___C. Getting practical training while learning

___D. Good working hours

___E. Having long vacation periods each year

___F. Being your own boss on the job

___G. Having a wide variety of different activities on the job

___H. Being physically active on the job

___I. Meeting interesting men on the job

___J. Earning a good starting salary

___K. Traveling around the country while on the job

___L. Chance to advance to a better paying job

___M. Being of direct service to people who need help

___N. Having people look up to you

___O. Getting a job quickly and easily if you ever have to return to work

___P. Working with children

___Q. Learning skills that will be helpful as a wife and mother

___R. Leading your personal life without interference

14. Of all the other things in the above list (last page), please indicate which one is <u>second most important</u> to you by writing a "2" in front of it.

15. Of all the remaining things in the above list (last page), please indicate which one is <u>third most important</u> to you by writing a "3" in front of it.

16. Please mark an "X" next to all the other things in the above list that are important to you in choosing an occupation.

17. People have different ideas about nursing and teaching. Which of these two occupations do you think gives a better chance to secure each of the following things?

For each item, circle the "N" if you think nursing gives the better chance

For each item, circle the "T" if you think teaching gives the better chance

For each item, circle the "S" if you think teaching and nursing give about the <u>same</u> chance.

FOR EXAMPLE: Chance to wear a uniform N S T

ITEM	Nursing Better	Nursing/ Teaching about same	Teaching Better
A. Meeting people from all walks of life	N	S	T
B. Expressing your own imagination and ideas	N	S	T
C. Getting practical training while learning	N	S	T
D. Good working hours	N	S	T
E. Having long vacation periods each year	N	S	T
F. Being your own boss on the job	N	S	T
G. Having a wide variety of different activities on the job	N	S	T
H. Being physically active on the job	N	S	T
I. Meeting interesting men on the job	N	S	T
J. Earning a good starting salary	N	S	T
K. Traveling around the country while on the job	N	S	T
L. Chance to advance to a better paying job	N	S	T
M. Being of direct service to people who need help	N	S	T
N. Having people look up to you	N	S	T
O. Getting a job quickly and easily if you ever have to return to work	N	S	T
P. Working with children	N	S	T

ITEM	Nursing Better	Nursing/ Teaching about same	Teaching Better
7. Learning skills that are useful as a wife and mother	N	S	T
8. Leading your personal life without interference	N	S	T

13. How did your mother feel about your decision to become a teacher?

1. Strongly approved
2. Approved
3. At first disapproved, later approved
4. No feeling either way
5. At first approved, later disapproved
6. Disapproved
7. Strongly disapproved

19. How do you suppose your mother would have felt if you had decided to become a nurse?

1. Strongly approved
2. Approved
3. At first disapproved, later approved
4. No feeling either way
5. At first approved, later disapproved
6. Strongly disapproved

20. How did your father feel about your decision to become a teacher?

1. Strongly approved
2. Approved
3. At first disapproved, later approved
4. No feeling either way
5. At first approved, later disapproved
6. Disapproved
7. Strongly disapproved

21. How do you suppose your father would have felt if you had decided to become a nurse?

1. Strongly approved
2. Approved
3. At first disapproved, later approved
4. No feeling either way
5. At first approved, later disapproved
6. Disapproved
7. Strongly disapproved

22. Do you have any sisters (or brothers) who are teachers or who are studying to become teachers?

1. Yes
2. No

23. Do you have any sisters (or brothers) who are nurses or who are studying to become nurses?

1. Yes
2. No

24. Did any of your relatives disapprove of your decision to become a teacher?

1. Yes
2. No

25. Do you suppose any of your relatives would have disapproved if you had decided to become a nurse?

1. Yes
2. No

26. If you had a "best" boy friend in your last year in high school, how did he feel about your decision to become a teacher?

1. No "best" boy friend
2. Strongly approved
3. Approved
4. At first disapproved, later approved
5. No feeling either way
6. At first approved, later disapproved
7. Disapproved
8. Strongly disapproved

27. If you had a "best" boy friend in your last year in high school, how do you suppose he would have felt if you had decided to become a nurse?

1. No "best" boy friend
2. Strongly approved
3. Approved
4. At first disapproved, later approved
5. No feeling either way
6. At first approved, later disapproved
7. Disapproved
8. Strongly disapproved

28. If you had a "best" girl friend in your last year in high school, how did she feel about your decision to become a teacher?

1. No "best" girl friend
2. Strongly approved
3. Approved
4. At first disapproved, later approved
5. No feeling either way
6. At first approved, later disapproved
7. Disapproved
8. Strongly disapproved

29. If you had a "best" girl friend in your last year in high school, how do you suppose she would have felt if you had decided to become a nurse?

1. No "best" girl friend
2. Strongly approved
3. Approved
4. At first disapproved, later approved
5. No feeling either way
6. At first approved, later disapproved
7. Disapproved
8. Strongly disapproved

30. Did any of your other high school friends disapprove of your decision to become a teacher?

1. Yes
2. No

31. Do you suppose any of your other high school friends would have disapproved if you had decided to become a nurse?

1. Yes
2. No

32. Before you entered college, had you ever worked in a: clinic, hospital, medical school, laboratory, doctor's office, dentist's office?

1. No.
2. Yes, please specify which by underlining

32A. If you have ever worked in any of these places, would you say this experience left you with a favorable or an unfavorable impression of nursing?

1. Favorable
2. Unfavorable
3. No impression either way

33. Before you entered college, had you ever worked in a: camp (as a counselor), Sunday School (as a teacher), board of education, college, or university or school?

1. No
2. Yes, please specify which by underlining

33A. <u>If you have ever worked in any of these places</u>, would you say this experience left you with a favorable or an unfavorable impression of teaching?

1. Favorable
2. Unfavorable
3. No impression either way

34. Would you say that your grade school and high school experiences left you with a favorable or an unfavorable impression of teaching?

1. Favorable
2. Unfavorable
3. No impression either way

35. How much time do you recall spending as a patient in a hospital?

1. Never was a patient in a hospital
2. Less than a week
3. One to four weeks
4. More than four weeks

35A. <u>If you ever spent time as a patient in a hospital</u>, would you say this experience left you with a favorable or an unfavorable impression of nursing?

1. Favorable
2. Unfavorable
3. No impression either way

36. What is your father's occupation?
(If deceased, retired, sick or injured, what WAS it?)

Please be specific: For example: manager of a Woolworth's store,
tool and die maker in a factor, etc.

---

37. If your mother ever worked, what was her occupation?

1. Never worked
2. Nurse
3. Teacher
4. Some other occupation, not teaching or nursing

38. Does your father work for someone else or is he self-employed? (If deceased, retired, sick or injured, indicate on basis of his last position)

1. Self-employed
2. Works for someone else
3. Other: Please specify:_____

39. Does your father belong to a labor union?

1. No
2. Yes: AFL
3. Yes: CIO
4. Yes: Other union: Please specify:_____

40. How many years of formal schooling did your father complete?

1. No school years completed
2. 1-4 years of grade school completed
3. 5-6 years of grade school completed
4. 7-8 years of grade school completed
5. 1-3 years of high school completed
6. 4 years of high school completed
7. 1-3 years of college completed
8. 4 or more years of college completed
9. Other
0. Don't know

41. In what religious faith were you raised?

1. Roman Catholic
2. Methodist
3. Lutheran
4. Baptist
5. Presbyterian
6. Congregational
7. Episcopalian
8. Greek Catholic or Russian Orthodox
9. Non-Denominational Christian
0. Jewish
X. None
Y. Other: Please specify:_____

42. Considering the past year, which of the following best describes how often you attended church (synagogue)?

1. About three or four times a month
2. About one or two times a month
3. About three to eleven times a <u>year</u>
4. About once or twice a <u>year</u>
5. Never

43. Did your mother ever speak a foreign language at home?

1. No
2. Yes: Please specify what language:_____

44. Did your father ever speak a foreign language at home?

1. No
2. Yes: Please specify what language:_____

45. What is the name of the community in which you've lived most of your life?
(If you lived on a farm, say so and indicate nearest community.)

_____

46. Which of the following best describes your feeling?

1. I would have preferred a college nearer my hometown
2. I would have preferred a college further away from my hometown
3. Distance of college from hometown not important at all
4. No opinion

47. How old were you when you first decided to become a teacher?

1. Under six years old
2. six to twelve years old
3. thirteen to fifteen years old
4. sixteen to eighteen years old
5. nineteen years or older
6. Don't remember

48. At the present time, what field of teaching are you planning to enter?

1. Don't know yet
2. Don't plan to work as a teacher
3. Kindergarten
4. Elementary
5. High school
6. Health Education
7. Art or music
8. Home economics
9. Special education
0. Other: Please specify:_____

49. About how much money do you expect to earn in your first year as a teacher?

_____

50. What would you guess a nurse earns in her first year of work?

_____

51. What is your favorite recreational activity (otner than "dating")?

_____

52. In what year did you graduate from hign school?

1. 1953
2. 1952
3. 1951
4. 1950
5. 1949 or before
6. Didn't graduate from high school

53. What semester are you in at present?

1. First semester freshman
2. Second semester freshman
3. First semester sophomore
4. Second semester sophomore
5. Other

54. Sex:

1. Female
2. Male

55. What school are you attending now?

1. Michigan State
2. Wayne

56. What is your race?

1. Negro
2. White
3. Other: Please specify:_____

57. In which of these occupations do you think there is the most discrimination?

1. Teaching
2. Nursing
3. Same amount in both

Thank you very mucn for your assistance in completing this questionnaire.

APPENDIX II

SAMPLE LETTER TO STUDENTS

March, 1953

Dear Miss

May I have a few minutes of your time to complete the enclosed questionnaire?

Inasmuch as Wayne's Education students are scattered in several classes it is not possible to reach all of you at once. This mail questionnaire is our last resort in gathering data for a social science research project. We are interested in finding out how some girls came to decide on teaching and how some girls came to decide on nursing as a career.

May we have your assistance in this study?

Please fill out the enclosed questionnaire carefully. Do not sign your name to it. Return it as soon as possible in the stamped addressed envelope. At the same time that you return the completed questionnaire, please drop the enclosed postcard in the mailbox too. In that way we'll know that you've completed and mailed the questionnaire, even though it won't have your name on it.

If you have any difficulty with the questionnaire, please see me at the Sociology building, 61 Putnam, or call me at VE. 5-0595.

Thanks very much for your cooperation.

Yours sincerely,

Mel Ravitz
Department of Sociology
and Anthropology
Wayne University
Detroit 1, Michigan

APPENDIX III

INDEX OF EXPECTATION OF OCCUPATIONAL SATISFACTION

This index was constructed in an attempt to discover a more suitable means of measuring expectation of occupational satisfaction than the simple response to question 12. (1) The respondents had provided information on two main series of factors: one series concerning occupational values and the other concerning occupational opportunities. (2) It was thought that by a careful combination of the elements of the two series, it would be possible to develop a single index that would summarize each respondent's expectation of occupational satisfaction.

The following formula was devised to secure this index: $\frac{\text{Sum of } (V \times O)}{\text{Sum of } (V)}$. V stands for occupational valuation and O for estimate of occupational opportunity. It was deemed reasonable to multiply each indicated valuation (of each value factor) (1 for most valuable, 2 for second most valuable, 3 for third most valuable, and 4 for other valuable) by the respondent's estimate of the occupation that offered the best opportunity to achieve that value. Finally, the result of this multiplication was divided by the sum of the valuations.

---

(1) See Questionnaire: Appendix I.

(2) See questions 13 and 17 on Questionnaire: Appendix I.

It should be mentioned that choice of nursing as the occupation that offered the best opportunity was scored with a 3; choice of teaching was scored with a 1 and in-between was scored with a 2. Thus, following the above formula each person received a single score ranging from 1.0 to 3.0, with the lower score representing a favorable expectation of occupational satisfaction, the higher score an unfavorable expectation.

Originally, it was the investigator's intention to substitute the information derived from this index for the information directly given by the respondents in answering question 12. It was believed that this index would establish a more accurate picture of the respondents' expectations of occupational satisfaction. However, suggestions by Dr. Robert C. Angell, and Dr. Theodore Newcomb plus further thought convinced him that utilization of this index would produce a false, even though logical estimate of this attitude. This index is built on eighteen occupational values and on eighteen opinions as to which occupation is more likely to permit realization of these values. The difficulty with employing this index as a superior key to the respondents' expectations of occupational satisfaction lies in the arbitrariness of the selection of the eighteen values. The investigator has no real assurance that the respondents' expectations of occupational satisfaction are based on a consideration of these eighteen values. It may be that instead of or in addition to these values, other, perhaps personally more significant ones, went into the development of the respondents' estimates. To be sure, one is not left completely in the dark, inasmuch as the respondents themselves

made clear in their open-ended questions that many of the values selected played a prominent part in their thinking about their occupational selection. (1) Moreover, it must also be pointed out that these eighteen values were not randomly or haphazardly chosen. They represent values considered important by other writers in this field of occupational selection. (2) They also represent values arrived at by the investigator, after a preliminary survey of nursing students in Michigan. Nevertheless, on the assumption that other values, unspecified by the investigator, might enter the respondents' considerations, the index was not generally employed to ascertain expectation of occupational satisfaction. It was used only in those few instances where no answer was given for question 12. There were four such cases, with one of them, according to the index, a "neutral": where the respondent

---

(1) Some random responses from students may emphasize this point: In answer to the third question (What are some of the things about nursing/teaching you think you'll like?) students answered:
"Working with people. The security the job offers. The uniform and distinction that goes with it."
"Interesting work, pay, aiding patients, security."
"I am sure I will like helping patients on the road back to recover. I try to be very friendly and I'm sure I'll enjoy being a real friend to so many patients. The status the nurse holds in the community is important to me too."
"I think I will like working with children of all types. Seeing the different behavior patterns and personalities of these children."
"Seeing the day-to-day improvement in small children as they learn to read, write, etc... Teaching children not only academic subjects, but generally how to play together, share things, and learn about their country and its meaning."
"Satisfaction in knowing that I've accomplished something."

(2) See Chapter I: Statement of Problem and Previous Research.

believed nursing and teaching offered equal opportunity for occupational satisfaction. Actually then, only three instances where the index was used are included in the tabulations. These three cases are found on inspection to be very similar to the others in most important respects. There is no reason to believe they are exceptional cases simply because there is no response on question 14; even if there were reason to suspect their atypicality, the next effect of three cases is minute.

Stimulated by his speculation regarding the use of the index, the investigator set up the following table using the index as the measure of expectation of occupational satisfaction.

TABLE 34

PERCENTAGE OF NURSING AND TEACHING STUDENTS BY EXPECTATION OF OCCUPATIONAL SATISFACTION USING INDEX

Expectation of Occupational Satisfaction	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
	Per cent	Per cent
Expectation of satisfaction as a nurse	81.5	10.6*
Expectation of satisfaction as a teacher	9.6	80.3
Equal expectation of satisfaction from nursing and teaching	8.9	9.1
Total	100.0	100.0
(Cases)	(135)	(188)

*Difference is significant at the .01 level of confidence.

A glance at Table 34 shows that a somewhat less pronounced association results when the index is used. Nevertheless, the association is clear-cut at the .01 level of confidence.

APPENDIX IV

TABLES SHOWING ATTITUDES OF PRIMARY AND PEER GROUP MEMBERS TO SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL VALUES

TABLE 35

PERCENTAGE OF NURSING AND TEACHING STUDENTS WHO VALUE SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL VALUES BY MOTHERS' ATTITUDE TO NURSING

Selected Occupational Values	Mothers' Attitude Favorable to Nursing	Mothers' Attitude Not Favorable to Nursing
	Per cent	Per cent
(Nursing values)		
Meeting people from all walks of life	44.6	38.0
Being physically active on the job	15.1	6.0
Advancing to a better paying job	14.0	14.0
Being of direct service to people who need help	68.6	46.0[a]
Getting a job again quickly and easily if necessary	30.6	20.0
(Teaching values)		
Expressing one's own ideas and imagination	15.1	30.0[b]
Good working hours	17.7	24.0
Being one's own boss on the job	8.9	6.0
Having people look up to one	6.6	8.0
Working with children	57.2	72.0[b]
(Total cases)	(271)	(50)

[a]Difference is significant at the .01 level of confidence.

[b]Difference is significant at the .05 level of confidence.

TABLE 36

PERCENTAGE OF NURSING AND TEACHING STUDENTS WHO VALUE SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL VALUES BY MOTHERS' ATTITUDE TO TEACHING

Selected Occupational Values	Mothers' Attitude Favorable to Teaching	Mothers' Attitude Not Favorable to Teaching
	Per cent	Per cent
(Nursing values)		
Meeting people from all walks of life.....	44.5	36.7
Being physically active on the job.....	14.1	10.0
Advancing to a better paying job.....	13.1	23.3
Being of direct service to people who need help.....	64.5	73.3
Getting a job again quickly and easily if necessary....	28.6	30.0
(Teaching values)		
Expressing one's own ideas and imagination.....	16.2	30.0*
Good working hours.....	17.2	36.7
Being one's own boss on the job.....	3.3	10.0
Having people look up to one.	6.6	10.0
Working with children.....	60.3	53.3
(Total cases).....	(290)	(30)

*Difference is significant at the .05 level of confidence.

TABLE 37

PERCENTAGE OF NURSING AND TEACHING STUDENTS WHO VALUE SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL VALUES BY FATHERS' ATTITUDE TO NURSING

Selected Occupational Values	Fathers' Attitude Favorable to Nursing	Fathers' Attitude Not Favorable to Nursing
	Per cent	Per cent
(Nursing values)		
Meeting people from all walks of life	45.3	35.1
Being physically active on the job	14.8	9.5
Advancing to a better paying job	14.4	12.2
Being of direct service to people who need help	70.8	47.3*
Getting a job again quickly and easily if necessary	33.1	16.2*
(Teaching values)		
Expressing one's own ideas and imagination	14.8	27.0*
Good working hours	19.1	16.2
Being one's own boss on the job	8.1	8.1
Having people look up to one	7.2	8.1
Working with children	57.6	67.6
(Total cases)	(236)	(74)

*Difference is significant at the .01 level of confidence.

TABLE 38

PERCENTAGE OF NURSING AND TEACHING STUDENTS WHO VALUE SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL VALUES BY FATHERS' ATTITUDE TO TEACHING

Selected Occupational Values	Fathers' Attitude Favorable to Teaching	Fathers' Attitude Not Favorable to Teaching
	Per cent	Per cent
(Nursing values)		
Meeting people from all walks of life	42.4	47.5
Being physically active on the job	14.0	11.8
Advancing to a better paying job	14.0	13.6
Being of direct service to people who need help	63.6	71.2
Getting a job again quickly and easily if necessary	28.8	28.8
(Teaching values)		
Expressing one's own ideas and imagination	16.4	23.7
Good working hours	18.4	18.6
Being one's own boss on the job	9.2	3.4
Having people look up to one	7.2	6.8
Working with children	64.4	44.1*
(Total cases)	(250)	(59)

*Difference is significant at the .01 level of confidence.

TABLE 39

PERCENTAGE OF NURSING AND TEACHING STUDENTS WHO VALUE SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL VALUES BY SISTERS (BROTHERS) IN NURSING

Selected Occupational	Sisters (Brothers) in Nursing	No Sisters (Brothers) in Nursing
	Per cent	Per cent
(Nursing values)		
Meeting people from all walks of life	54.5	43.3
Being physically active on the job	9.1	14.4
Advancing to a better paying job	27.3	13.4*
Being of direct service to people who need help	54.5	65.3
Getting a job again quickly and easily if necessary	40.9	28.5
(Teaching values)		
Expressing one's own ideas and imagination	22.7	17.1
Good working hours	22.7	18.5
Being one's own boss on the job	4.5	8.7
Having people look up to one	13.6	6.7
Working with children	72.7	58.7
(Total cases)	(22)	(298)

*Difference is significant at the .05 level of confidence.

TABLE 40

PERCENTAGE OF NURSING AND TEACHING STUDENTS WHO VALUE SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL VALUES BY SISTERS (BROTHERS) IN TEACHING

Selected Occupational Values	Sisters (Brothers) in Teaching	No Sisters (Brothers) in Teaching
	Per cent	Per cent
(Nursing values)		
Meeting people from all walks of life	44.2	43.4
Being physically active on the job	23.3	12.6[a]
Advancing to a better paying job	18.6	13.7
Being of direct service to people who need help	65.1	65.1
Getting a job again quickly and easily if necessary	32.6	28.8
(Teaching values)		
Expressing one's own ideas and imagination	20.9	16.9
Good working hours	30.2	16.9[b]
Being one's own boss on the job	7.0	8.6
Having people look up to one	9.3	6.8
Working with children	76.7	57.2[a]
(Total cases)	(43)	(278)

[a]Difference is significant at the .01 level of confidence.

[b]Difference is significant at the .05 level of confidence.

TABLE 41

PERCENTAGE OF NURSING AND TEACHING STUDENTS WHO VALUE SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL VALUES BY RELATIVES' DISAPPROVAL OF NURSING

Selected Occupational Values	Relatives Disapprove of Nursing	Relatives do not Disapprove of Nursing
	Per cent	Per cent
(Nursing values)		
Meeting people from all walks of life	41.5	44.2
Being physically active on the job	17.0	13.2
Advancing to a better paying job	17.0	14.0
Being of direct service to people who need help	64.2	65.7
Getting a job again quickly and easily if necessary	30.2	29.1
(Teaching values)		
Expressing one's own ideas and imagination	20.8	17.0
Good working hours	18.9	18.9
Being one's own boss on the job	9.4	8.3
Having people look up to one	5.7	7.5
Working with children	62.3	59.2
(Total cases)	(53)	(265)

TABLE 42

PERCENTAGE OF NURSING AND TEACHING STUDENTS WHO VALUE SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL VALUES BY RELATIVES' DISAPPROVAL OF TEACHING

Selected Occupational Values	Relatives Disapprove of Teaching	Relatives do not Disapprove of Teaching
	Per cent	Per cent
(Nursing values)		
Meeting people from all walks of life	30.6	45.3
Being physically active on the job	13.9	13.7
Advancing to a better paying job	16.7	14.1
Being of direct service to people who need help	61.1	30.3*
Getting a job again quickly and easily if necessary	30.6	28.9
(Teaching values)		
Expressing one's own ideas and imagination	22.2	16.5
Good working hours	22.2	13.0
Being one's own boss on the job	11.1	8.1
Having people look up to one	5.6	7.4
Working with children	58.3	60.2
(Total cases)	(30)	(284)

*Difference is significant at the .01 level of confidence.

TABLE 43

PERCENTAGE OF NURSING AND TEACHING STUDENTS WHO VALUE SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL VALUES BY BEST BOY FRIENDS' ATTITUDE TO NURSING

Selected Occupational Values	Best Boy Friends' Attitude Favorable to Nursing	Best Boy Friends' Attitude not Favorable to Nursing
	Per cent	Per cent
(Nursing values)		
Meeting people from all walks of life	47.8	35.8
Being physically active on the job	15.9	10.4
Advancing to a better paying job	11.6	16.4
Being of direct service to people who need help	72.5	46.3*
Getting a job again quickly and easily if necessary	37.0	17.9*
(Teaching values)		
Expressing one's own ideas and imagination	14.5	22.4
Good working hours	18.8	17.9
Being one's own boss on the job	5.8	11.9
Having people look up to one	8.0	3.0
Working with children	58.7	65.7
(Total cases)	(138)	(67)

*Difference is significant at the .01 level of confidence.

TABLE 44

PERCENTAGE OF NURSING AID TEACHING STUDENTS WHO VALUE SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL VALUES BY BEST BOY FRIENDS' ATTITUDE TO TEACHING

Selected Occupational Values	Best Boy Friends' Attitude Favorable to Teaching	Best Boy Friends' Attitude not Favorable to Teaching
	Per cent	Per cent
(Nursing values)		
Meeting people from all walks of life	43.7	42.3
Being physically active on the job	13.2	19.2
Advancing to a better paying job	10.6	19.2*
Being of direct service to people who need help	66.9	61.5
Getting a job again quickly and easily if necessary	30.5	30.8
(Teaching values)		
Expressing one's own ideas and imagination	19.9	9.6*
Good working hours	18.5	17.3
Being one's own boss on the job	7.9	11.5
Having people look up to one	6.6	3.8
Working with children	64.2	50.0
(Total cases)	(151)	(52)

*Difference is significant at the .05 level of confidence.

TABLE 45

PERCENTAGE OF NURSING AND TEACHING STUDENTS WHO VALUE SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL VALUES BY BEST GIRL FRIENDS' ATTITUDE TO NURSING

Selected Occupational Values	Best Girl Friends' Attitude Favorable to Nursing	Best Girl Friends' Attitude not Favorable to Nursing
	Per cent	Per cent
(Nursing values)		
Meeting people from all walks of life	43.8	39.2
Being physically active on the job	16.6	5.9[a]
Advancing to a better paying job	15.3	13.7
Being of direct service to people who need help	70.2	47.1[b]
Getting a job again quickly and easily if necessary	30.6	19.6
(Teaching values)		
Expressing one's own ideas and imagination	11.9	31.4[b]
Good working hours	17.9	23.5
Being one's own boss on the job	8.5	11.8
Having people look up to one	6.0	9.8
Working with children	58.3	66.7
(Total cases)	(235)	(51)

[a]Difference is significant at the .05 level of confidence.

[b]Difference is significant at the .01 level of confidence.

TABLE 46

PERCENTAGE OF NURSING AND TEACHING STUDENTS WHO VALUE SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL VALUES BY BEST GIRL FRIENDS' ATTITUDE TO TEACHING

Selected Occupational Values	Best Girl Friends' Attitude Favorable to Teaching	Best Girl Friends' Attitude not Favorable to Teaching
	Per cent	Per cent
(Nursing values)		
Meeting people from all walks of life	40.5	55.0[a]
Being physically active on the job	15.9	8.3
Advancing to a better paying job	15.4	13.3
Being of direct service to people who need help	65.2	71.7
Getting a job again quickly and easily if necessary	27.3	31.7
(Teaching values)		
Expressing one's own ideas and imagination	14.1	20.0
Good working hours	20.3	13.3
Being one's own boss on the job	9.3	8.3
Having people look up to one	5.7	10.0
Working with children	65.6	40.0[b]
(Total cases)	(227)	(60)

[a]Difference is significant at the .05 level of confidence.

[b]Difference is significant at the .01 level of confidence.

APPENDIX V

SELECTED QUESTIONS AND NUMERICAL SUMMARIES

11. Did you ever consider becoming a nurse/teacher?

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1. Seriously considered....	21	30
2. Vaguely considered.....	60	70
3. Never considered.....	51	82
R. No answer.....	3	6
	135	188

12. Which of the following best describes your present feeling?

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1. Much more satisfied as a teacher than nurse...	1	156
2. Somewhat more satisfied as teacher than nurse..	0	16
3. Equally satisfied.....	3	11
4. Somewhat more satisfied as nurse than teacher..	13	3
5. Much more satisfied as nurse than teacher	116	0
R. No answer	2	2
	135	188

13. (In the following eighteen tables the "1" in the stub refers to "most important" valuation of the value considered, the "2" refers to "second most important" valuation, the "3" to "third most important" valuation, and the "4" to "other important" valuation; R. stands for "no answer" and X represents "Don't know.")

A. Meeting people from all walks of life

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1)	43	23
2)	25	24
3)	14	21
4)	46	76
R)	7	44
	135	188

B. Expressing one's own imagination and ideas

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1)	4	22
2)	15	15
3)	18	17
4)	37	88
R)	61	46
	135	188

C. Getting practical training while learning

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1)	28	13
2)	9	15
3)	9	11
4)	57	56
R)	32	93
	135	188

D. Good working hours

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1)	12	21
2)	14	14
3)	9	12
4)	40	90
R)	60	51
	135	188

E. Having long vacation periods each year

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1)	1	7
2)	7	6
3)	16	14
4)	19	50
R)	91	111
X)	1	0
	135	188

F. Being one's own boss on the job

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1)	3	13
2)	11	9
3)	15	10
4)	17	42
R)	88	114
X)	1	0
	135	188

G. Having a wide variety of different activities on the job

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1)	35	23
2)	16	1[illegible]
3)	13	25
4)	46	72
R)	25	47
	135	188

H. Being physically active on the job

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1)	27	6
2)	9	14
3)	7	4
4)	54	55
R)	38	109
	135	188

I. Meeting interesting men on the job

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1)	3	2
2)	6	5
3)	16	8
4)	26	12
R)	84	161
	135	188

J. Earning a good starting salary

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1)	9	10
2)	19	17
3)	14	14
4)	39	61
R)	4	86
	135	188

K. Traveling around the country while on the job

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1)	10	5
2)	9	5
3)	18	6
4)	18	30
R)	80	142
	135	188

L. Advancing to a better paying job

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1)	21	11
2)	14	9
3)	10	8
4)	49	53
R)	41	107
	135	188

M. Being of direct service to people who need help

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1)	104	46
2)	9	34
3)	7	15
4)	11	64
R)	4	29
	135	188

N. Having people look up to one

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1)	2	11
2)	13	11
3)	12	5
4)	30	38
R)	78	123
	135	188

O. Getting a job again quickly and easily if necessary

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1)	33	18
2)	17	17
3)	13	13
4)	47	73
R)	25	67
	135	188

P. Working with children

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1)	22	103
2)	17	30
3)	13	15
4)	44	19
R)	39	16
	135	188

Q. Learning skills that will be useful as a wife and mother

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1)	37	31
2)	30	28
3)	23	25
4)	40	65
R)	5	39
	135	188

R. Leading one's personal life without interference

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1)	9	9
2)	10	10
3)	14	6
4)	26	41
R)	76	122
	135	188

17. (In the following eighteen tables, the "T" in the stub refers to Teaching as the better means of securing the particular value; the "N" in the stub refers to nursing as being superior in this respect; and an "E" indicates that each is considered equal in achieving the particular value.)

A. Meeting people from all walks of life

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
T)	1	16
E)	37	89
N)	97	82
R)	0	1
	135	188

B. Expressing one's own imagination and ideas

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
T)	98	179
E)	32	8
N)	4	0
R)	1	1
	135	188

C. Getting practical training while learning

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
T)	0	8
E)	55	131
N)	80	47
R)	0	2
	135	188

D. Good working hours

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
T)	93	166
E)	35	17
N)	7	4
R)	0	1
	135	188

E. Having long vacation periods each year

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
T)	123	179
E)	9	7
N)	2	0
R)	1	2
	135	188

F. Being one's own boss on the job

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
T)	55	121
E)	73	73
N)	6	4
R)	1	0
	135	188

G. Having a wide variety of different activities on the job

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
T)	2	66
E)	43	99
N)	88	21
R)	1	2
	135	188

H. Being physically active on the job

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
T)	2	11
E)	35	100
N)	98	75
R)	0	2
	135	188

I. Meeting interesting men on the job

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
T)	3	4
E)	54	58
N)	76	125
R)	2	1
	135	188

J. Earning a good starting salary

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
T)	22	63
E)	76	86
N)	33	33
R)	4	4
X)	0	2
	135	188

K. Traveling around the country while on the job

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
T)	4	45
E)	54	89
N)	76	51
R)	1	3
	135	188

L. Advancing to a better paying job

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
T)	4	45
E)	51	85
N)	79	54
R)	1	4
	135	188

M. Being of direct service to people who need help

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
T)	0	5
E)	30	120
N)	105	62
R)	0	1
	135	188

N. Having people look up to one

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
T)	13	33
E)	91	140
N)	28	14
R)	3	1
	135	188

O. Getting a job again quickly and easily if necessary

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
T)	0	25
E)	55	145
N)	77	17
R)	1	1
	135	188

P. Working with children

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
T)	53	150
E)	76	35
N)	6	0
R)	0	3
	135	188

Q. Learning skills that will be useful as a wife and mother

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
T)	0	23
E)	21	141
N)	114	22
R)	0	2
	135	188

R. Leading one's personal life without interference

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
T)	22	58
E)	78	94
N)	34	33
R)	1	3
	135	188

18. How did your mother feel about your decision to become a nurse/teacher?

	Nursing Students	Teacher Students
1. Strong aproved.....	73	84
2. Approved.....	47	76
3. At first disapproved, later approved.....	4	9
4. No feeling eitner way.....	7	14
5. At first approved, later disapproved.....	1	1
6. Disapproved.....	2	2
7. Strongly disapproved.....	0	0
X. Don't know.....	0	1
R. No answer.....	1	1
	135	188

19. How do you suppose your mother would have felt if you had decided to become a nurse/teacher? (The numbers in the stub refer to the same attitudes as in question 18.)

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1)	32	43
2)	78	88
3)	8	18
4)	11	22
5)	0	1
6)	4	13
7)	1	2
R)	1	1
	135	188

20. How did your father feel about your decision to become a nurse/teacher?

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1)	62	77
2)	44	68
3)	7	10
4)	11	21
5)	1	0
6)	3	3
7)	1	2
X)	0	1
R)	6	6
	135	188

21. How do you suppose your father would have felt if you had decided to become a teacher/nurse?

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1)	24	36
2)	65	76
3)	4	10
4)	26	25
5)	1	0
6)	6	17
7)	2	7
X)	0	1
Y)	1	0
R)	6	6
	135	188

22. Do you have any sisters (or brothers) who are teachers/ nurses or who are studying to become teachers/nurses?

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1. Yes.....	11	32
2. No.....	123	155
3. No answer.....	1	1
	135	188

23. Do you have any sisters (or brothers) who are nurses/ teachers or who are studying to become nurses/teachers?

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1. Yes.....	7	15
2. No.....	127	171
3. No answer.....	1	2
	135	188

24. Did any of your relatives disapprove of your decision to become a teacher/nurse?

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1. Yes.....	14	20
2. No.....	119	167
X. Don't know.....	1	0
R. No answer.....	1	1
	135	188

25. Do you suppose any of your relatives would have disapproved if you had decided to become a nurse/teacher?

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1. Yes	24	28
2. No	109	157
3. Don't know	1	1
R. No answer	1	2
	135	188

26. If you had a best boy friend in your last year in high school, how did he feel about your decision to become a nurse/teacher?

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1. No best boy friend	50	62
2. Strongly approved	30	27
3. Approved	29	56
4. At first disapproved, later approved	9	11
5. No feeling either way	6	20
6. At first approved, later disapproved	2	2
7. Disapproved	6	3
8. Strongly disapproved	2	3
R. No Answer	1	4
	135	188

27. (The numbers in the stub refer to the same attitudes as in the above question 26)

If you had a best boy friend in your last year in high school, how do you suppose he would have felt if you had decided to become a teacher/nurse?

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1)	49	63
2)	10	12
3)	45	54
4)	2	4
5)	18	30
6)	1	0
7)	4	16
8)	2	5
X)	2	0
R)	2	4
	135	188

28. If you had a best girl friend in your last year in high school, how did she feel about your decision to become a nurse/teacher?

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1)	8	10
2)	66	61
3)	45	74
4)	2	1
5)	9	24
6)	0	1
7)	2	3
8)	0	0
Y)	1	0
R)	2	14
	135	188

29. If you had a best girl friend in your last year in high school, how do you suppose she would have felt if you had decided to become a teacher/nurse?

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1)	8	10
2)	22	40
3)	65	78
4)	2	4
5)	23	33
6)	0	0
7)	10	6
8)	0	1
X)	1	0
Y)	1	0
R)	2	16
	135	188

32. Before you entered college, had you ever worked in a clinic, hospital, medical school, laboratory, doctor's office, dentist's office?

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1. No	93	158
2. Yes	41	28
R. No answer	1	2
	135	188

32A. If you ever worked in any of these places, would you say this experience left you with a favorable or unfavorable impression of nursing?

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1. Favorable.....	37	17
2. Unfavorable.....	1	8
3. No impression either way.....	1	2
R. No answer.....	96	161
	135	188

33. Before you entered college had you ever worked in a: camp (as a counselor), Sunday School (as a teacher), board of education, college or university or school?

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1. No.....	67	76
2. Yes.....	67	111
R. No answer.....	1	1
	135	188

33A. If you ever worked in any of these places, would you say that this experience left you with a favorable or unfavorable impression of teaching?

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1. Favorable.....	40	98
2. Unfavorable.....	9	2
3. No impression either way.....	14	3
Y. Other.....	0	1
R. No answer.....	72	84
	135	188

34. Would you say that your grade school and high school experiences left you with a favorable or unfavorable impression of teaching?

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1. Favorable.....	74	154
2. Unfavorable.....	25	13
3. No impression either way....	34	18
X. Don't know.....	0	1
Y. Other.....	1	1
R. No answer.....	1	1
	135	188

35. How much time do you recall spending as a patient in a hospital?

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1. Never was a patient.....	54	58
2. Less than a week.....	38	74
3. One to four weeks.....	33	43
4. More than four weeks.....	7	8
R. No answer.....	3	5
	135	188

35A. If you ever spent time as a hospital patient, would you say that this experience left you with a favorable or unfavorable impression of nursing?

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1. Favorable.....	67	73
2. Unfavorable.....	5	26
3. No impression either way.....	4	25
X. Don't know.....	1	0
Y. Other.....	1	1
R. No answer.....	57	63
	135	188

36. What is your father's occupation?

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1. Professional and semi-professional.....	14	23
2. Proprietors, managers and officials.....	16	47
3. Clerical, sales and kindred.	21	40
4. Craftsmen, foremen, kindred.	40	39
5. Operatives and kindred.....	25	21
6. Service workers.....	1	0
7. Laborers (other than farm)..	6	9
8. Farm laborers.....	10	6
Y. Other.....	0	0
R. No answer.....	2	3
	135	188

37. If your mother ever worked, what was her occupation?

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1. Never worked	25	34
2. Nurse	10	9
3. Teacher	27	39
4. Some other occupation	70	102
X. Don't know	0	1
R. No answer	2	3
	135	188

38. Does your father work for someone else or is he self-employed?

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1. Self-employed	37	61
2. Works for someone else	89	120
3. Other	7	6
R. No answer	2	1
	135	188

39. Does your father belong to a labor union?

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1. No	77	135
2. Yes: AFL	18	21
3. Yes: CIO	26	19
4. Yes: other union	8	3
X. Don't know	3	6
R. No answer	3	4
	135	188

40. How many years of formal schooling did your father complete?

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1. None	0	0
2. 1-4	2	4
3. 5-6	1	4
4. 7-8	38	31
5. 1-3 high school	18	32
6. 4 high school	25	44
7. 1-3 college	26	24
8. 4 or more college	19	41
9. Other	4	1
X. Don't know	0	5
R. No answer	2	2
	135	188

41. In what religious faith were you raised?

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1. Roman Catholic	17	23
2. Methodist	33	36
3. Lutheran	15	22
4. Baptist	16	11
5. Presbyterian	13	18
6. Congregational	10	3
7. Episcopalian	5	12
8. Greek or Russian Catholic	0	8
9. Non-denominational Christian	10	5
10. Jewish	2	24
X. None	2	2
Y. Other	11	13
R. No answer	1	1
	135	188

42. Considering the past year, which of the following best describes how often you attended church/synagogue?

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1. About 3-4 times a month	89	111
2. About 1-2 times a month	25	32
3. About three to eleven times a year	14	31
4. About once or twice a year	5	8
5. Never	1	4
6. No answer	1	2
	135	188

43. Did your mother ever speak a foreign language at home?

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1. No	113	140
2. Yes	20	46
R. No answer	2	2
	135	188

44. Did your father ever speak a foreign language at home?

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1. No	114	143
2. Yes	20	42
X. Don't know	0	1
R. No answer	1	2
	135	188

45. What is the size of the community in which you lived most of your life?

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1. Farm	13	6
2. Village	13	11
3. City: 2,500-25,000	15	17
4. City: 25,000-100,000	22	24
5. City: 100,000-500,000	8	10
6. City: 500,000 or over	56	114
R. No answer	8	7
	135	188

47. How old were you when you first decided to become a nurse/teacher?

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1. Under 6	15	3
2. 6-12	43	28
3. 13-15	27	36
4. 16-18	33	84
5. 19 or older	3	19
6. Don't remember	8	16
R. No answer	1	2
	135	188

52. In what year did you graduate from high school?

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1. 1953	3	12
2. 1952	72	105
3. 1951	51	60
4. 1950	7	9
5. 1949 or before	2	2
6. Didn't graduate from high school	0	0
R. No answer	0	0
	135	188

53. What semester are you in at present?

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1. First semester freshman	5	18
2. Second semester freshman	77	104
3. First semester sophomore	7	11
4. Second semester sophomore	46	55
	135	188

54. Sex:

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1. Female.....	135	188
2. Male.....	0	0
	135	188

55. What school are you attending now?

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1. Michigan State.....	78	100
2. Wayne.....	67	88
	135	188

56. What is your "race"?

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1. Negro.....	15	8
2. White.....	120	180
3. Other: Please specify:....	0	0
	135	188

57. In which of these occupations do you think there is the most discrimination?

	Nursing Students	Teaching Students
1. Teaching.....	46	55
2. Nursing.....	13	20
3. Same amount in both.....	73	109
X. Don't know.....	1	1
R. No answer.....	2	3
	135	188

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Books

Anderson, Dewey, and Davidson, Percey E. Ballots and the Democratic Class Struggle. Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1943.

Bennett, John, and Tumin, Melvin. Social Life, Structure and Function: an introductory general sociology. New York: A. A. Knopf, 1950.

Blumer, Herbert. An Appraisal of Thomas and Znaniecki's The Polish Peasant in Europe and America. Social Science Research Council, Bulletin No. 44, 1939.

Bossard, James Herbert Siward. Sociology of Child Development. Rev. Ed.; New York: Harper & Brothers, 1954.

Brooke, Esther Eberstadt. Guide to Career Success. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1947.

Brown, Esther Lucile. Nursing for the Future. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1948.

Brown, Lawrence Guy. Social Pathology, Personal and Social Disorganization. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1942.

Caplow, Theodore. The Sociology of Work. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1953.

Cooley, Charles Horton. Social Organization. New York: Scribner's Sons, 1911.

Cuber, John. Sociology: A Synopsis of Principles. Rev. Ed.; New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1951.

Dollard, John. Caste and Class in a Southern Town. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1937.

Flügel, John Carl. The Psychoanalytic Study of the Family. London: Hogarth Press and Institute of Psychoanalysis, 1926.

Forster, Arnold. A Measure of Freedom. Garden City, New York: 1950.

Freud, Sigmund. Totem and Taboo. English Trans. by A. A. Brill; Basic Writings of Sigmund Freud, A. A. Brill, New York: Random House, 1938.

Ginsburg, Eli, et al. Occupational Choice. New York: Columbia University Press, 1951.

Hiller, E. T. Social Relations and Structures. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1947.

Homans, George. The Human Group. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1950.

Hooten, E. A. The American Criminal: An Anthropological Study: Vol. I, The Native White Criminal of Native Parentage. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1939.

Jahoda, Marie, Deutsch, Morton, and Cook, Stuart W. Research Methods in Social Relations: Vol. I, Basic Processes. New York: Dryden Press, 1951.

Lazarsfeld, Paul. The Peoples' Choice. New York: Duell, Sloan, and Pearce, 1944.

Lynd, Robert S., and Lynd, Helen M. Middletown. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1929.

_____. Middletown in Transition. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1935.

Mead, George Herbert. Mind, Self, and Society from the Standpoint of a Social Behaviorist. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1934.

Menger, Clara. The Significance of Vocational Choices of School Children and College Students. New York: Privately printed, 1932.

Moloney, James Clark. The Magic Cloak, A Contribution to the Psychology of Authoritarianism. Wakefield, Mass.: Montrose Press, 1949.

Murphy, Gardner. Personality, A Bisocial Approach to Origins and Structures. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1947.

Ogburn, William Fielding, and Nimkoff, Myer F. Sociology. Rev. ed.; Cambridge: Houghton, Mifflin Co., 1951.

Piaget, Jean. The Moral Judgement of the Child. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1932.

Reynolds, Lloyd, and Shister, Joseph. Job Horizons. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1949.

Riesman, David. The Lonely Crowd, A Study of the Changing American Character. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1950.

Sheldon, W. H., Stevens, S. S., and Tucker, W. B. The Varieties of Human Physique: An Introduction to Constitutional Psychology. New York and London: Harper & Brothers, 1940.

Sombart, Werner. The Quintessence of Capitalism. (Der Moderne Capitalismus. Munich and Leipsig, 1928) Six volumes condensed in F. L. Nussbaum's History of the Economic Institutions of Modern Europe, New York: Crofts, 1933.

Sparling, E. J. Do College Students Choose Vocations Wisely? New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1933.

Strong, Edward K. Vocational Interests of Men and Women. Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1934.

Taft, Donald. Criminology, a Cultural Interpretation. New York: Macmillan Co., 1950.

Tawney, Richard H. Religion and the Rise of Capitalism. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1926. Pelican Books Edition, 1947.

Thomas, William. The Unadjusted Girl. Boston: Little, Brown and Co., 1923.

Thomas, William I. and Znaniecki, Florian. The Polish Peasant in Europe and America. Five volumes; New York: A. A. Knopf, 1927.

Veblen, Thorstein. Absentee Ownership and Business Enterprise in Recent Times. New York: Viking Press, 1923.

Weber, Max. The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism. English Trans. by Talcott Parsons; London: 1930.

Williams, Robin. American Society, A Sociological Interpretation. New York: A. A. Knopf, 1951.

Young, Kimball. Social Psychology. 2nd ed.; New York: Crofts, 1946.

Articles

Anderson, M. H., and McManus, R. L. "Interests of Nursing Candidates: The Patterns of Interests and Activities of 800 Pre-Nursing Students," American Journal of Nursing, XLII (1942), 555-63.

Babcock, Charlotte. "Emotional Needs of Nursing Students," American Journal of Nursing, II (1949), 166-69.

Barnes, Earl. "Children's Ideals," Pedagogical Seminary and Journal of Genetic Psychology, VII (1900), 3-12.

Bateman, R. "Effect of Work Experience on High School Students' Vocational Choice," Occupations, XXVII (1949), 453-56.

Beynon, E. "Occupational Succession of Hungarians in Detroit," American Journal of Sociology, XXXIV (March, 1934), 600-10.

Birdwhistell, E. L. "Social Science and Nursing Education: Some Tentative Suggestions," Fifty-fifth Annual Report of the National League of Nursing Education, Livingston, New York: Livingston Press, 1949, pp. 315-28.

Blumer, Herbert. "What is Wrong with Social Theory?" American Sociological Review, XIX (February, 1954), 1-10.

Bogardus, Emory. "Occupational Distance," Sociology and Social Research, XIII (1928), 73-81.

Boynton, P. L., and Woolwine, R. D. "The Relationship Between the Economic Status of High School Girls and their Vocational Wishes and Expectations," Journal of Applied Psychology, XXVI (1942), 399-415.

Bowden, A. O., Caldwell, F. F., and West, G. "A Study of Prestige," American Journal of Sociology, XXXIV (September, 1934), 193-203.

Centers, Richard. "Attitude and Belief in Relation to Occupational Stratification," Journal of Social Psychology, XXVII (1948), 159-85.

Chambers, W. G. "The Evolution of Ideals," Pedagogical Seminary and Journal of Genetic Psychology, X (1903), 101-43.

Daniels, E. M., and Hunter, W. A. "Minnesota Multipnasic Personality Inventory Personality Patterns for Various Occupations," Journal of Applied Psychology, XXXIII (1949), 559-65.

Davis, Allison. "Socialization and Adolescent Personality," Readings in Social Psychology. Rev. ed.; ed. by Theodore Newcomb, Eugene Hartley, and Guy Swanson, New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1952, pp. 520-31.

_____, and Havighurst, Robert J. "Social Class and Color Differences in Child Rearing," American Sociological Review, XI (December, 1946), 698-710.

Ellis, Albert, and Fuller, Earl. "The Sex, Love, and Marriage Questions of Senior Nursing Students," Journal of Social Psychology, XLI (1950), 209-16.

Ericson, Martha C. "Child Rearing and Social Status," American Journal of Sociology, LII (1946-47), 190-92.

Flowerman, Samuel. "Should Jews Change Their Occupations? A Rational Approach to the Maldistribution Problem," Commentary, III (1947), 340-48.

Gilbertson, C. N. "A Swedish Study of Children's Ideals," Pedagogical Seminary and Journal of Genetic Psychology, XX (1913), 100-06.

Gist, Noel, and Clark, C. D. "Intelligence as a Factor in Occupational Choice," American Sociological Review, III (October, 1938), 683-94.

_____, Philblad, Gregory. "Scholastic Achievement and Occupation," American Sociological Review, VII (1942), 752-63.

Goddard, H. H. "Ideals of a Group of German Children," Pedagogical Seminary and Journal of Genetic Psychology, XIII (1906), 208-20.

Herlinger, H. V. "And Gladly Teach," Occupations, XXIII (1944-45), 147-51.

Hill, D. S. "Comparative Study of Children's Ideals," Pedagogical Seminary and Journal of Genetic Psychology, XVIII (1911), 219-31.

Hood, C. E. "What's the Matter with Teaching?" Clearing House, XIX (1944),

Horowitz, Eugene. "Development of Attitudes towards Negroes," Readings in Social Psychology, Rev. ed.; ed. by Theodore Newcomb, Eugene Hartley, and Guy Swanson, New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1952, pp. 491-501.

Hughes, Everett C. "Work and the Self," Social Psychology at the Crossroads, ed. by J. Rohrer and M. Sherif, New York: Harper & Brothers, 1951, 313-23.

Hurlock, E. E., and Jansing, C. "Vocational Attitudes of Boys and Girls," Pedagogical Seminary and Journal of Genetic Psychology, XLIV (1934), 175-91.

Inkeles, Alex. "Stratification and Mobility in the Soviet Union," American Sociological Review, XV (August, 1950), 465-79.

Jones, Ernest. "The Significance of Sublimating Procedures for Education and Re-Education," Psychoanalysis, Ernest Jones, New York: William Wood and Co., 1923), pp. 601 ff.

Lazarsfeld, Paul, and Kendall, Patricia. "Problems of Survey Analysis," Continuities in Social Research, ed. by Robert Merton and Paul Lazarsfeld, Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1950, pp. 133-96.

McKay, Henry D. "The Neighborhood and Child Conduct," Principles of Sociology, ed. by Ronald Freedman, et al., New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1952, pp. 525-35.

Mead, Margaret. "The Contemporary American Family as an Anthropologist Sees It," The American Journal of Sociology, LIII (May, 1948), 453-59.

North, Cecil, and Hatt, Paul. "Jobs and Occupations: A Popular Evaluation," Opinion News, Sept. 1, 1947, pp. 3-13.

Nick, E. W. "High School Boys Choose Vocations," Occupations, XX (1941-42), 364-69.

Peters, E. "Factors Which Contribute to Youth's Vocational Choice," Journal of Applied Psychology, XXV (1941), 423-30.

Petrie, A., and Powell, Murial. "Personality and Nursing, An Investigation into Selection Tests for Nurses," Lancet, CCLVIII (1950), 363-65.

Pope, Liston. "Religion and the Class Structure," Annals American Academy of Political and Social Science, CCXVI (March, 1948), 84-91.

Reckless, Walter. "The Sociologist Looks at Crime," Annals American Academy of Political and Social Science, CCXVII (September, 1941), 76-83.

Roe, Anne. "Personality and Vocation," Transcript of New York Academy of Science, IX (1947), 257-67.

Sargent, Emilie. "Nursing, A Service to Humanity," School and College Placement, (December, 1947), pp. 5-10.

Sherif, Muzafer. "Group Influences upon the Formation of Norms and Attitudes," Readings in Social Psychology, Rev. ed.; ed. by Theodore Newcomb, Eugene Hartley, and Guy Swanson, New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1952, pp. 249-62.

Simmel, Georg. "The Metropolis and Mental Life," The Sociology of Georg Simmel, ed. by Kurt Wolff, Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1950, pp. 409-24.

Sisson, E. D. "Vocational Choice of Students from Cities, Towns, and Farms," School and Society, LIV (1941), 94-96.

Smith, T. Lynn. "The Role of the Village in American Rural Society," Rural Sociology, VII (March, 1942), 10-21.

Stevens, R. B. "The Attitudes of College Women towards Women's Vocations," Journal of Applied Psychology, XXIV (1940), 615-27.

Strauss, Anselm. "The Concept of Attitude in Social Psychology," The American Journal of Psychology, XIX (April, 1945), 329-39.

Wirth, Louis. "Urbanism as a Way of Life," American Journal of Sociology, XLIV (July, 1938), 1-24.

Wykoff, A. E. "Children's Ideals," Pedagogical Seminary and Journal of Genetic Psychology, VIII (1901), 482-94.

Zilboorg, Gregory. "The Problem of Constitution in Psychopathology," The Psychoanalytic Quarterly, III (1934), 306-10.

Reports

American Nurses' Association. Facts About Nursing: A Statistical Summary. Inventory of Professional Registered Nurses. New York: American Nurses' Association, 1953.

Box, K., and Croft-White, E. Recruitment to Nursing. London: Division of the Ministry of Information, 1943.

McManus, Rachel. The Effect of Experience on Nursing Achievement. New York Bureau of Publications: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1949.

Metropolitan School Study Council, Education Dynamics Committee of 1946-47. A Study to Discover the Attitudes of High School Seniors, Teachers, and Parents toward the Profession of Teaching. New York: Metropolitan School Study Council, 1948.

Nursing Information Bureau. Nursing, A Profession for College Women. New York: Nursing Information Bureau, 1948.

Public Documents

David, Lily Mary. The Economic Status of Registered Professional Nurses: 1946-47. United States Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1948.

U.S. Bureau of the Census. Seventeenth Census of the United States: 1950. Michigan Population, Washington: Government Printing Office, 1952.

Unpublished Material

Fauman, S. Joseph. "The Factors in Occupational Selection among Detroit Jews," Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Graduate School Library, University of Michigan, 1948.

Seidler, Murray, and Ravitz, Mel Jerome. "A Participant Study of Peer Group Influences." Paper read before the Ohio Valley Sociological Society, Columbus, Ohio, April, 1953.