

FAMILIAL AND OTHER INFLUENCES IN OCCUPATIONAL PLANNING

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A Study of Influences on the Occupational  
Planning of 71 Fourth Year Women Students  
in the B. A. Degree Course at McGill  
University in 1956-1957.

## Preface

The members of the research group wish to express their sincere appreciation to the many persons whose interest and assistance furthered completion of this study.

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# ABSTRACT

## FAMILIAL AND OTHER INFLUENCES IN OCCUPATIONAL PLANNING

by

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The project explores familial and other influences in occupational planning among 71 fourth year women students in the B.A. degree course at McGill University, 1956-1957. It is a follow-up of the 1956 study, Planning for Post-Graduation Employment, requested by the McGill Women's Alumni Placement Committee since a high proportion of graduation <sup>ing</sup> students <sup>appear to have</sup> ~~had~~ no occupational plans.

Information was obtained from the students through an <sup>omit</sup> interview. For analytical purposes the project was divided into five parts, a descriptive profile of the group of students, the relationship between initial interest and initial awareness of the need to plan for employment, familial influences and occupa-  
g ~~cupational~~ planning, employment plans and occupational participation of the students. It was found that, although initial point of interest has no relationship to point of initial awareness, both familial and non-familial influences had an effect on planning, and that occupational participation was perceived as an experience likely to occur at various points between graduation and old age.

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## CHAPTER I

### RESEARCH PROBLEM

- La Chose La plus Importante a toute La Vie  
est Le Choix du Mestier, Le hazard en dispose -

Pensees de Blaise Pascal.<sup>1</sup>

### Introduction

Pascal's reflection on the chance element in the selection of a career seems to be increasingly applicable to this century in which, paradoxically enough, intellectual activity is geared more than ever before to maximum elimination of the chance element in every field of knowledge and action.

Traditional sources of occupational orientation and guidance such as parents, relatives, teachers and friends no longer suffice because the choice of a career has become more and more complex. This complexity is due to increasing differentiation within occupations and to the level of training and skill required to enter many occupations. Another factor that has contributed to the complexity of the problem is that in the interest of physical and emotional well-being, occupational placement must be aligned to individual abilities and needs. As a result of these changes, many young people require the assistance of qualified vocational counsellors and/or of individuals familiar with the types of work undertaken in various occupations. Young people also need opportunities for observation and experience in varied work settings.

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<sup>1</sup>Blaise Pascal, Pensees de Blaise Pascal, Edition Paléographique par Zacharie Tourneur, (Paris 1942) p. 94.

The value of consulting specialists in medicine, law, or education is widely recognized. However, few young people realize the value of consulting trained vocational counselors. One reason for this is that many young people are not aware of the type of services which counselors offer. Also, the number of persons qualified for vocational counseling is limited. Although vocational counselors utilize a variety of tests and techniques to discover and assess interests and abilities, they are handicapped by lack of scientifically derived knowledge of the forces operative in the process of occupational selection. A beginning has been made in studies by Ginzberg, Super, Caplow and others<sup>1</sup>, but much more research must be initiated in order to comprehend the psychological, social, cultural, educational and economic forces operative in occupational choice. The present study and that undertaken in 1955-56<sup>2</sup>, are modest attempts to contribute to existing knowledge on this topic.

Background of present study.- Early in the 1955-56 session, upon the request of the McGill Women's Alumnae Placement Committee, a study was initiated to delineate some of the occupational planning needs of McGill women undergraduates and the resources used by them in planning for post-graduation employment. Due to the complexity of the problem, this study was solely exploratory. When this study was initiated, it was hoped that it would be the forerunner of a much more comprehensive study to be undertaken during the 1956-57 session. This study was to involve all women undergraduate

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<sup>1</sup>These studies are discussed in Chapter II

<sup>2</sup>Cumas, Bersch, Ogryzlo, Cumas, Dranov and Goldfard, "Planning for Post Graduation Employment", unpublished M.S.W. Theses, McGill University, 1956.

students at McGill University and control groups at other universities. However, conditions were not favourable for undertaking the larger study during the present session. In lieu of it, another small scale project was undertaken based on some of the findings of the 1956 exploratory study.

The present study involves 71 fourth year B. A. women students in attendance at McGill University during the 1956-57 session, and was conducted by five students at the McGill School of Social Work.

#### Purpose of Present Study

The present study is undertaken to test the validity of three working hypotheses derived from the results of the 1956 study. These hypotheses are:

1. There is a relationship between the point in the educational period at which a student manifests initial interest<sup>1</sup> in occupations and the point in the educational period when she first becomes aware<sup>2</sup> of the need to plan for employment subsequent to graduation from University.
2. Familial influences predominate in the process of occupational choice.
3. (a) Occupational participation is perceived by women students as an experience likely to occur at various points during the period between graduation from university and old age.

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<sup>1</sup>Infra, p. 93.

<sup>2</sup>Infra, p. III.

(b) This thought is influential in the process of occupational selection.

Major questions.- In order to test the validity of these hypotheses it is necessary to obtain information relating to the following questions:

1. (a) At what point in the educational period did these students first manifest interest in the world of work, i.e., in occupations?

(b) When during this period did they become aware of the need to plan for employment after graduation from university?

(c) Is there any relationship between the point in the educational period when a student manifests initial interest in occupations, and the point at which she first becomes aware of the need to plan for employment subsequent to graduation from university?

2. (a) What familial influences are operative in the process of occupational selection?

(b) What non-familial influences have an effect on this process?

(c) Do familial or non-familial influences predominate in the process of occupational choice?

3. (a) Is occupational participation perceived by the students in the sample as an experience likely to occur at various points during the period between graduation and old age?

(b) If so, how does this expectation influence occupational selection?

### Scope and Limitations

As already stated,<sup>1</sup> this study is concerned with the testing of three hypotheses on a group of 71 fourth year B. A. women students at McGill University. Through the testing of these hypotheses, the circumstances operative in the process of occupational selection may be elucidated.

A major limitation of this study is that the sample consists of only 71 women students in the same year of the same degree course at the same university. As will be shown later,<sup>2</sup> almost 60% of these students came from families where the father's income is \$10,000. a year or more. Since the sample is small and no control groups are used, the results of this study cannot be regarded as representative of women undergraduates in general.

Because it was necessary to complete the study within one academic session and concurrently with field work and lectures, the research team had limited time for planning the research design, surveying the literature, collecting and analyzing the data and writing the thesis. Notwithstanding the interviewing skill acquired from field work and other experience during their social work training, team members were handicapped by lack of previous research experience and by lack of adequate interviewing space.

Each student was interviewed only once for approximately one hour.

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<sup>1</sup>Supra, p.3.

<sup>2</sup>Infra, p.60.

For this reason it was not feasible to conduct depth interviews. Therefore, it is assumed that the information collected is suggestive only of some of the circumstances operative in the process of occupational selection for the students concerned. The circumstances which had negative effects upon planning are particularly likely to have been missed in this type of interview, because the interviewers did not probe for negatives and did not discuss them in detail unless the student indicated a willingness to do so.

The data collected may not be wholly accurate due to the fact that students were asked to recall experiences from earlier periods in their development. Also, cultural taboos place limitations on the discussion of family affairs with strangers, particularly on discussion of negative feelings towards parents and/or disagreement with parental suggestions. This factor may detract from the validity of the data obtained concerning familial influences in the process of occupational choice.

#### Value of the Study

The purpose, scope and limitations of this study have been indicated. One may now ask, "Of what value is the present study?"

Today, women constitute approximately 30 per cent of the labor force. In 1890 they made up only 15 per cent. At that time probably half the women in this country never worked for pay. Today more than 1 of every 3 women over 14 holds a job, and almost every young woman has some work experience before she starts raising a family.<sup>1</sup>

Although the preceding statement is from an American publication, it seems also to have some application to the participation of women in the Canadian labour force. Consequently, the importance of research undertaken to provide

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<sup>1</sup>

Roshco Bernard, "Jobs That Women Don't Get", New York Times Magazine, (March 17, 1957), 49.

knowledge and understanding of the way in which women select an occupation and plan to participate in it, is not be underestimated.

As already indicated,<sup>1</sup> three hypotheses are to be tested in this study. Each hypothesis is involved in an area of research which has value in itself.

The first of the hypotheses is concerned with the relationship between the point in the educational period when students manifest initial interest in occupations and the point at which they first become aware of the need to plan for post-graduation employment. If, as a result of research, the point at which children first become interested in occupations can be determined, this knowledge can be used as a guide to the inclusion of occupational information in the school curriculum at a point where it will be most readily absorbed by the children concerned. If the point at which students in general first become aware of a need to plan for post graduation employment is determined, this will suggest the point at which vocational counselors can be used to best advantage. It may be discovered that there is a wide gap between the point at which students become initially interested in occupations and the time when they become aware of a need to plan for post graduation employment. If this should be so, it might suggest that within the educational system there should be developed some means of stimulating awareness of the need to plan for an occupation earlier in the educational period. If a relationship is found between early initial interest in occupations and early awareness

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<sup>1</sup>Supra, p.3.

of the need to plan for post graduation employment, elementary school children should be made aware of the occupational opportunities around them. This knowledge would provide a more comprehensive and realistic frame of reference for occupational planning when students became aware of the need for plan for their life work.

The second hypothesis explores the impact of familial and non-familial influences on the occupational selection process. If the family is found to play a major role in this process, then more information is required concerning the ways in which the family can best help its members to make a wise occupational choice. Common sense suggests that parental advice given in a spirit of cooperation is more helpful to a young person than threats, prohibitions or demands to follow a particular occupation. But what advice can the parents give, and how should advice be given? One may speculate that 3 factors are important:

1. Parents should consider their children's needs, abilities and interests when evaluating an occupation for their child.

2. Parents should be aware of the many ways in which they influence their children's occupational choice. Do parents influence this choice by actions as well as by words, by their own occupational preferences and unfulfilled occupational hopes, and by the emotions they express when discussing occupations?

3. Parents should have as much information as possible on occupational opportunities and prerequisites for them.



If parents are highly influential in the process of occupational choice, it is important that they know how to be helpful in this process. Perhaps they could learn to be more helpful by discussing these problems at Home and School Association study groups.

The third hypothesis states that occupational participation is perceived by women students as an experience likely to occur at various points in a life time. If this is true, then it is important for women students to select an occupation for which they have ability and one which will provide them with a satisfying work experience both before and during marriage.

In addition to the forementioned values of this study, it is hoped that the findings may be useful in the counseling of students at McGill University. The findings also may support some of the existing conceptual models used to understand the process of occupational selection.

For the research team, this study has provided a valuable learning experience in the methodology and problems of social research. This experience has helped the team members to develop a more critical approach in analyzing and assessing the value of other social research projects. In the field of social work, much knowledge is empirical and untested. It is therefore of utmost importance that social work students develop an awareness of the need for research within their profession and develop an ability to undertake research projects. In this way, the profession may develop a more scientifically valid body of knowledge for use in the service of humanity.

## CHAPTER II

### THEORETICAL ORIENTATION

## CHAPTER II

### THEORETICAL ORIENTATION

#### General Introduction:

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a theoretical frame of reference for the facts gathered and interpreted in subsequent chapters of this thesis.

For the purpose of this study the researchers conceive the term "occupation" as identical with Kimball Young's definition of "work", namely: "regularized, recurrent, utilitarian and organized effort, directed toward a somewhat more remote goal."<sup>1</sup>

Most adults are engaged in an occupation for at least one-third of each twenty-four hour period and they frequently continue this activity beyond the socially accepted age of retirement. But an occupation has more than just a quantitative time value: often it is a unique contribution toward the satisfaction of economic, social or cultural needs of the various groups to which an individual belongs, from the smallest possible unit, the family, to international organisations of mutual occupational services. This unique contribution in turn frequently demands equally unique somatic and psychological qualities and skill, which involve considerable investment in training and experience before a person can adequately perform a given function.

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<sup>1</sup>

Kimball Young, Personality and Problems of Adjustment (London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trubner and Co. Ltd., 1947), p. 591.

With the increasing application of the exact sciences in the occupational process, this uniqueness of various careers has become a paramount problem in modern industrial civilisation, because extreme occupational differentiation (hence specialisation) has so far been the only means to make the accumulated socio-cultural inheritance useful to the demands of present-day communal living, and to transmit this inheritance to the future generation. A concrete example is the problem of extreme specialisation imposed on various occupations related to nuclear physics and nuclear chemistry in order to be able to apply and further develop the findings of earlier nuclear scientists. To make this nuclear knowledge available to posterity, an equally onerous problem of differentiation is imposed on the teaching profession, the military profession and the administrative profession, to name only a few.

Occupation selection as well as occupational training is caught in the dilemma between over-specialisation or a return to a broader but more simplistic career-type. In both instances this will mean a less efficient use of cultural inheritance in a world with many underdeveloped areas where the shortage of food, shelter and clothing is increasing instead of decreasing.

It would seem to the researchers that a world with such a guarded life prognosis for many years to come, can ill afford to leave the process of occupational choice largely up to the element of chance. A more scientific approach of occupational choice would seem the more justified because in many other fields of socio-economic, somatic, psychological and cultural well-being the Western hemisphere has already profited immensely by the application of the scientific method.

However, subjecting occupational choice to more scientific principles presupposes various areas of preparatory and concomitant research.

A first field of major exploration is the nature of the occupational planning process, its endogenous and exogenous determinants and its timing. Such a study should also indicate how and where the common sense choice differs from the scientific choice. Research of this kind exists, the present study being a small contribution, but the samples studied so far have been lacking representative value, and the knowledge collected is still rudimentary. Moreover, these studies lack practical suggestions as to how the various influential factors can be converged into a logical, systematic, objective method of occupational selection.

A second field of exploration which is directly coupled with the above mentioned area of study, is a search into the differences in long-term effects between common sense choice and scientific choice. Is there eventually no difference between the occupational efficiency and satisfaction of those who chose according to common sense and those who entered the occupational field guided by the scientific choice method? In other words, research should explore in measurable terms how much waste there is in industrial efficiency, in educational efficiency and in every day living due to inadequacy and subsequent emotional maladjustment of individuals who feel frustrated either by their own inappropriate occupational selection, or by the occupational dissatisfactions brought about by inadequately performing fellow workers, superiors or subalterns. Studies of this nature necessarily involve an expensive time investment and large samples. So far, few are under way partly because the method of scientific choice itself is still in an experimental stage.

The city of Eindhoven (The Netherlands) has now for eight consecutive years provided the opportunity to all pupils who graduate from primary school to take part in a vocational guidance programme headed by the Nijmegen Institute of Applied Psychology. The wishes of the child and his parents, school performance, the results of aptitude tests and the impression of the school physician are compared by the conference method. The joint results are then related to regional, educational, and occupational opportunities by the occupational counselor, who discusses the matter with the parents. No official reports have been made to date, but beneficial effects have been observed in the various secondary schools of the city. Such schools seem to be filled with a more efficient, better motivated student population than they were during the period before the experiment.

A third field of preparatory research is the systematic analysis and codification of the world's available and needed occupations, with a detailed description of somatic and psychological requirements, educational prerequisites, socio-economic expectations and promotion opportunities. The most comprehensive effort has thus far been undertaken by the Austrian Government which keeps up to date a nation wide survey, called "Die Osterreichische Berufskartei" with a central documentation system in Vienna (St. Rochus Gasse) and various regional branch offices. Besides the above mentioned information, each file carries a short content analysis of the career in question and a description of the tools or instruments used. In many other countries similar data are collected.

The dependability of psychological career analysis has so far been limited, partly because there is no agreement among psychologists upon a commonly accepted and all-encompassing theory of personality, partly also

because the various psychological characteristics of a given career cannot be sufficiently isolated for systematic observation due to their dynamic interrelationship with all the other personality aspects. It should also be noted that the whole field of occupations is constantly subject to a strong evolutionary trend which stems from an increased application of more scientific techniques, tools and machinery. A job analysis of welding, clerical work and accounting for instance is greatly different today from what it was thirty years ago.

The present study limits itself to the above mentioned second field of exploration.<sup>1</sup> The conceptual orientation of the researchers covers the following specific questions which over the last few decades have become of pregnant concern to the social theorist, the occupational counselor, the educationalist, and in a lesser degree also to the layman:

- a) How does an individual become identified with a specific occupation?
- b) What factors operate, either singly or in combination with others, in the selection of a particular occupation?
- c) When does occupational selection occur?

#### How Does an Individual Become Identified With a Specific Occupation?

The idea that "vocational choices do not emerge full-blown in late adolescence or young adulthood", as stated by Kuhlen and Thompson,<sup>2</sup> and that they have a long history, is generally accepted. Occupational planning therefore, refers to the stages the individual goes through in the selection of and planning for a specific occupation.

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<sup>1</sup>cf.

<sup>2</sup>J.L. Norton and R.G. Kuhlen, "The Development of Vocational Preferences," Psychological Studies Of Human Development, (ed. by R.G. Kuhlen and G.G. Thompson, The Century Psychological Series, New York: Appleton Century-Crofts, Inc., 1952) p. 444.

- a) For some, the choice of an occupation is perceived as an haphazard or even a chance affair, that involves little or no planning. Under such circumstances some individuals are lucky and procure employment that suits them. Others adapt themselves more or less resignedly to an uninteresting routine. Still others become obvious misfits, "falling short of their capabilities in usefulness and in happiness."<sup>1</sup>
- b) Others perceive the choice of occupation as being dependent upon talent for a particular business, trade, or profession. Planning for them involves development of this talent through specialized education and if possible through practical experience.
- c) Advantageous contacts or circumstances lead to the preparation and planning for specific employment. Such contacts are considered part of good fortune.

#### The Social Theorist's Viewpoint:

In general it can be said that there does not exist as yet any bona fide theory which explains the process of occupational selection in all its essential and dynamic elements. The existing theories are either based on relatively few data, or do not cover all aspects.

Eli Ginzberg describes three generalised approaches to occupational choice, which he refers to as theories.

#### The accident theory:

The most widely known of these theories is the accident theory which holds that individuals make decisions about the future "accidentally" and

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<sup>1</sup>Sidney L. Pressey et al., Life: A Psychologic Survey (New York and London: Harper and Bros., 1939) p. 588.



therefore, it is not possible for them to evaluate the decisive factors.<sup>1</sup> Ginzberg believes that "in explaining their occupational choices as 'accidents', most people seem to mean that they were affected by something beyond their control - an unplanned exposure to a powerful stimulus. But the point which this theory overlooks is that in the life of every individual there are countless such occurrences, only a few of which so stimulate the individual that he responds in a manner which has important consequences. The other exposures pass unnoticed and never emerge from the background of events in the individual's life."<sup>2</sup>

This theory relies uncritically on external factors of exposure and chance circumstances and ignores a wide range of individual options.<sup>3</sup> It is "right to the extent that it stresses the importance of external factors in the choice process; but it is wrong in that it is over-simplified."<sup>4</sup>

The impulse theory:

Another theory on occupational choice is the "impulse" theory. It infers that "occupational choice can be understood only through a theory that explains the individual's behaviour primarily in terms of unconscious forces."<sup>5</sup> The weakness of this theory is that "although a direct and unique correlation between a basic impulse and occupation may be established in individual cases, this connection cannot be made the basis of a general theory. Occupational choice involves more than basic impulses."<sup>6</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Eli Ginzberg, Occupational Choice, An Approach to a General Theory, (New York: Columbia University Press, 1951), p. 19.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 19.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 19.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., p. 20.

<sup>5</sup>Ibid., p. 21.

<sup>6</sup>Ibid., p. 22.

The group of implicit theories:

The third approach or "group of implicit theories",<sup>1</sup> is used by the vocational guidance counselor and borrowed primarily from differential psychology and the psychology of personality. "It relies upon psychological tests of aptitudes and interests, and considers the "reality factors in the environment of the individual."<sup>2</sup>

The developmental theory:

So far the most comprehensive theory on occupational choice has been formulated by Eli Ginzberg: "Occupational choice is a developmental process: it is not a single decision, but a series of decisions made over a period of years. Each step in the process has a meaningful relation to those which precede and follow it." This process is largely irreversible. It ends in a compromise, for a compromise is an essential aspect of every choice. The individual's chronological age cannot be changed; basic education and exposures to certain career influences can only be experienced once.

The vocational counselor's approach:

If the vocational counselor is ideally trained and disposed, he should be able to proceed towards vocational guidance according to the following main steps:

- a) He should have a thorough eclectic knowledge of the existing theories on occupational selection.
- b) Guided by this conceptual model, he should be able to recognise the developmental trend of a person's educational and occupational interests and abilities.

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 23.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 23.

- c) Having recognised this developmental process in the client, the counselor should match it with the findings of the psychologist, the school and the physician, and according to these findings specify, amplify or modify the optimum career range of the counselee.
- d) This fused knowledge of developing occupational interests and prorated occupational abilities is then projected onto the familial and cultural circumstances of the client and also on the present prorated educational and occupational structure of the client's locale. This forms at the same time an occasion to test the client's realistic knowledge of the occupational world.
- e) This total impression should then be presented to the client, or if he is a minor, to him and his parents, in non-directive manner.

The researchers are aware that in the practice of vocational counseling the five steps are frequently fused and that for instance the diagnostic activity continues far beyond the second step indicated. This is of minor importance. It is not necessary either that for each step an equal amount of time and an equal depth of focusing is involved. Every individual counseling process will be unique in this respect according to the exogenous and endogenous circumstances of the client and the kind of elucidation he needs to arrive at a proper selection. Vocational guidance, however, that does not in some way take each of these steps into account, remains essentially incomplete as a scientific counseling process and reduces the counselor's activity to the common sense level.

What Factors Operate, Either Singly or in Combination with Others,  
in the Selection of a Particular Occupation?

According to Super, the American literature of the last two decades

on the subject of occupational choice reveals that it is impossible to make any generalizations concerning the determining factors in the process of occupational selection.

Interests, capacities, education, economic status, family, and sex are most frequently cited. Other factors such as age, health, the opportunities of the labor market, the individual's cultural or social background and personality structure are also referred to as being influential in occupational choice.

#### Interests:

An individual's interests provide initially the criterion by which to formulate a tentative choice. This is confirmed by Eli Ginzberg: "Although many children still approach the question (of the choice of an occupation) in terms of the father's occupation or by expecting their parents to suggest a solution, they do recognise that they themselves will have to make the decision, and they assume that it will be based on their interests."<sup>1</sup>

The researchers are aware that interests as a motive in beginning occupational crystallization is a factor which is rather vague in its intrinsic components. Paul Lazarsfeld<sup>2</sup> calls interests the "Verlustkonto" of every study into occupational motivation. Interests for the adolescent would seem to be tautological with the indication of the occupational choice itself. This is largely due to the still poorly developed introspective activity of the child, being unable to verbalize deeper needs and impulses and therefore rubricizing them under the word "interests".

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<sup>1</sup>Eli Ginzberg, op. cit., p. 79.

<sup>2</sup>Paul Lazarsfeld, Jugend und Beruf, Jena 1931, p. 21.

Other researchers such as Liebenberg,<sup>1</sup> Stillich,<sup>2</sup> Döring,<sup>3</sup> Baumgarten,<sup>4</sup> Friedrich & Voigt,<sup>5</sup> and Stern,<sup>6</sup> attribute considerable importance to the adolescent's motivation of choice by expressing interests.

On this continent Strong,<sup>7</sup> and Kuder,<sup>8</sup> have become known by their laborious efforts to make this aspect of occupational selection a better known and experimentally useful one.

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<sup>1</sup>  
R. Liebenberg, Berufsberatung, Leipzig 1925.

<sup>2</sup>  
O. Stillich, Motive der Berufswahl des Bankbeamten, Leipzig 1916.

<sup>3</sup>  
Döring, Schulerauslese und Psychische Berufsberatung an Lübecker Schulen, Lübeck 1924.

<sup>4</sup>  
Fr. Baumgarten, Berufswünsche und Lieblingsfächer begabter Berliner Gemeindeschüler, Langensalza 1921.

<sup>5</sup>  
Friedrich und Voigt, Berufswünsche und Zukunftspläne der Jugend an Höheren Schulen, Breslau 1928.

<sup>6</sup>  
Erich Stern, "Die Feststellung der Psychischen Berufseignung und die Schule," Zeitschrift für angewandte Psychologie, Beiheft 26, Leipzig 1921, p. 149.

<sup>7</sup>  
E.K. Strong, Vocational Interests of Men and Women, Stanford 1943.

<sup>8</sup>  
G.F. Kuder, Manual to the Kuder Preference Record, Chicago 1936.

Ability:

Once an interest is expressed, this basis for choice is then usually broadened to include an appraisal of an individual's capacities before arriving at a particular choice. This appraisal of ability can take place through common sense judgment of an individual's every day activities; it can also be assessed on a semi-scientific basis by grading an individual in the school-system for performance within that system; it can finally take place by experimental and objective rating of ability through the application of various psychological tests. The great difficulty here is, that the ability itself can never be made demonstrable in measurable terms, only its outward manifestations. This creates the problem that when various people obtain the same results, the individual abilities may still differ in quality. Therefore choices based on rated ability alone, may be too narrow. If an interest is followed by a successful performance in the same field, such demonstrated ability greatly reinforces the interest. On the other hand, if one's performance is poor, interest in that direction is usually debilitated. Therefore, it is important that the adolescent have as many opportunities as possible to take part in various activities in order to demonstrate a special ability in one or more fields. This would make the period of the adolescent's tentative choices more realistic. It is furthermore to be encouraged that pupils and students at all school-levels become aware of a large number of occupations and that they receive a fairly comprehensive impression of them.

Education:

Another important reality aspect in the determination of occupational choice is the educational system.

Except for that tiny minority whose occupational choices are crystallized in childhood or early adolescence, choices occur at the point where they are built into the educational system. They cannot be evaded. Under the emerging system of occupational determination, complete passivity on the part of the student is itself a choice. If he does not select the appropriate subjects in his early years of high school, he rejects in effect the occupations for which college training is required. If he omits the natural sciences in favor of the social sciences, he eliminates himself as a candidate for thousands of industrial careers, and if he ignores both of them, he will never be qualified for the beginning ranks in the government service.<sup>1</sup>

Eli Ginzberg also perceives a relationship between the school curriculum and the eventual occupational status of the individual:

For example, a decision in high school not to take courses required for entrance to college may cut him off (the students) from future opportunities. Similarly, his decision about curricula will have a significant influence - positive or negative - on his occupational future.<sup>2</sup>

#### Economic Status:

Economic status is another factor in occupational selection.

Ginzberg's studies of occupational choice were based primarily on interviews with adolescents from upper income families, which he then compared with a group of boys from low income families. It was shown that the economic factor was an influence of major discrimination between the two planning groups.

The fact that economic resources are limited operates both directly and indirectly on the process of choosing an occupation ... the struggle to meet the primary demands of living and the absence of any substantial savings or other assets inevitably lead an adolescent to look forward to earning money as soon as possible, and as much money as possible. The advantages of college must be disregarded, not only because of the expense,<sup>3</sup> but also because of the loss of earning power in the college years.<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Theodore Caplow, op. cit., p. 220.

<sup>2</sup>Eli Ginzberg, op. cit., p. 196.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 134

Children from upper income families probably have more freedom of choice in the selection of an occupation. On the other hand, especially the girls in this group may be less disposed towards occupational planning. For the girls in the high income family, there may be the conviction that marriage with a partner of the same economic level will safeguard her financially for the rest of her life.

It can also be said for girls in traditionally wealthy families, that the physical equipment of the home, the preparation of food, the means of transportation, the social and recreational activities are all so elaborate and refined, that they demand the full-time attention of the women concerned.

There is also this difference between the two income levels, that whereas in lower and middle income families there is frequently encouragement to reach to a higher income level, members of high income families are less subject to such pressure. For children of fathers who have a respected career and who are able to provide for their family, there may be little desire to leave this level.

High income families have often derived their wealth from the laborious and sustained efforts of the father who built up a business, a law or medical practice. With this unique opportunity in the family setting and with a limited number of top level occupations available, there may be more social and parental pressure on the sons of high income families to follow the father's career. This trend has been substantiated by various researchers such as Fontegne,<sup>1</sup> Stern,<sup>2</sup> Cunliffe<sup>3</sup>.

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<sup>1</sup>J. Fontegne, L'orientation professionnelle et la determination des aptitudes, Geneve 1921.

<sup>2</sup>Erich Stern, "Die Feststellung der psychischen Berufseignung und die Schule", Zeitschrift fur Angewandte Psychologie, Beiheft 26. Leipzig 1921.

<sup>3</sup>R.B. Cunliffe, "Whither away and why: trends in choice of vocation in Detroit", Personnel Journal 1927, VI.



Key Persons:

It is Eli Ginzberg's opinion that almost every individual is influenced by the help which he seeks from key persons or the pressures which these key persons exert on him. "Parents are frequently found to play a strategic part in the choice process. At other times it is a relative, teacher or friend."<sup>1</sup> Chapters VI and VII of this study deal extensively with this influence-category.

It is as a member of a family that the child first learns about the jobs that exist in the adult world; it may be through the family that he acquires his first experience at work; and it is through the family that he is encouraged to follow one path and discouraged from following another, even if only indirectly through his absorption of familial attitudes and values.<sup>2</sup>

Especially the parents' kind of occupation will to a certain extent limit the childrens' outlook on occupations because the parents are apt to have more knowledge about their own career than about other careers. They are also apt to have relatives, friends and associates from the same career groups as their own.

Teachers or college instructors and friends outside the family setting all seem to exert an influence on the selection of an occupation. Chapter VII of the present study deals in extenso with this category of influences.

Sex differences:

The majority of laymen and some researchers attribute to the male an absolute superiority in the intellectual and occupational world.

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<sup>1</sup>  
Eli Ginzberg, op. cit., p. 36.

<sup>2</sup>  
Ibid., p. 234.

Among the important personalities, whose deeds are recorded in history, women of significance are indeed few in number. Neither in the arts nor in the sciences have women on the average achieved on as high a plane as for example what woman of historical importance can be compared with Plato, Newton, Kant, Rembrandt, Moliere, Goethe, Dostojewsky, Beethoven?

Mantegazza, when searching the biographical dictionaries, found only 4 to 8 percent names of women, and Bourdet found only six female inventors among 54.000 patented inventions.<sup>1</sup>

This popular impression of female occupational inferiority was reinforced by subjective studies such as the second part of Schopenhauer's *Parerga et Paralipomena* and also publications by C. Lombroso<sup>2</sup> and by P.J. Moebius<sup>3</sup>, all of which describe women as of inferior biological and psychological quality. Gradually however it has become clear that the reported female inferiority in occupational activities is not related to biological inferiority of women but to inferiority in the choice of samples and in the choice of comparable occupational activities. The following points may be elucidating:

- a) Many more gifted males than females are known from history because numerically the men have always been employed in far greater number than the women. The absolute number of great men and women in history therefore is not indicative of female occupational inferiority.

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<sup>1</sup> Dr. G. Revesz, *Creatieve Begaafdheid*, Den Haag 1946, p. 99.

<sup>2</sup> C. Lombroso & G. Ferrero, Das Weib als Verbrecherin und Prostituierte, 1848.

<sup>3</sup> P.J. Moebius, Über den physiologischen Schwachsinn des Weibes, 1908.

- b) The persons who became known in history were largely persons whose deeds involved a great deal of inventive, aggressive and abstract-logical talent. All these abilities happen to be more or less typical aspects of male occupational activity. A study which takes only such aspects of ability into account, leaves no opportunity for the women in the sample to demonstrate their unique aspects of ability.
- c) Woman's maternal role through marriage has systematically eliminated many women from the occupational participation, or if they participated they had to divide their interest and concentration between two heavy tasks. This has contributed to the socio-cultural trend that women cannot compete with men on the labor market and that consequently their training facilities, salaries and promotion opportunities have remained unequal. Consequently in the present process of female emancipation, those women who want to enter the occupational world find only a narrow traditionally established frame of reference related to female occupations.
- d) Women are inclined to be more emotionally attached to a given home, community, social position and circle of intimate friends than men. Consequently women are not as mobile and are more reluctant than men to give up a home and a cherished community life for an occupational advancement.

The biological sciences have increasingly demonstrated that sex differences are not merely restricted to the genital apparatus; they involve skeletal and hystological differences as well. Also the endocrinological differences are far greater than former medical authorities believed. In other words the biological function of childbearing and child murturing has gifted women with many related psycho-somatic and psychological qualities

which are uniquely female. She is rather receptive, reproductive than aggressive, inventive; she is stronger in concrete intuitive knowledge than in abstract logical thinking. She is eminently suited to occupations which require service, personal attachment, devotion, refinement in social relationships, charms, accuracy, all this rather on the reproductive-interpretative level than on the inventive level. The popular belief is that sciences are not for women. Here one overlooks the fact that there are several branches of science which are very close to life's reality and which require a good deal of concrete practical thinking: for example, education, social work, applied psychology, commercial and clerical work, biology and several technical sciences including architecture.

Along with a woman's unique occupational qualities, it is the general or specific expectation of marriage which introduces unique elements in a woman's occupational planning.

From that point on (namely college entrance) the strategic influences on the girls are decidedly different from those on the men by reason of one major consideration: the girls are thinking and planning for their future primarily in terms of marriage; everything else falls into a subsidiary position. Because of this they are not deeply concerned about an occupation. Even those who look forward to deriving considerable satisfactions from work cannot concentrate on their "career problems" because they anticipate that their principal satisfactions will be derived largely through marriage.<sup>1</sup>

For women, therefore, the selection of an occupation does not take place under the same combination of motivations as it does for the men. Since the work problem for women remains peripheral and since "the intermittent career pattern of women is typical of all socio-economic levels, with the partial exception of the highest and the lowest",<sup>2</sup> the selection of an occupation by women is largely determined by several factors inherent

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<sup>1</sup>  
Eli Ginzberg, op. cit., p. 175.

<sup>2</sup>  
Theodore Caplow, op. cit., p. 235.

to their potentially marital future: -"Whether they marry, when they marry, whom they marry, when they have children and how many, and finally` the specific attitudes of their husbands toward their working."<sup>1</sup>

Age and Health:

The age and health of a person may also operate as positive or as negative factors in the choice of an occupation. Increasing occupational differentiation involves a greater length of formal education and of accumulated experience. Therefore age has become an increasingly critical factor in the selection of various occupations.

Socio-economic Locale:

One cannot proceed very realistically toward the selection of an occupation if one does not take into account the present or prorated opportunities for occupational training and occupational performance. Added to this problem is the "jobs hierarchy, variety of working conditions, specific conditions for entrance into occupations, various income and security factors, and the host of allied elements which are part of the working world".<sup>2</sup>

Emotional Needs:

No occupational choice is satisfactory unless the individual can satisfy his emotional needs through performance of the career in question. What these needs are is partly drive-psychologically<sup>3</sup> and partly environmentally determined. Some individuals want to be away from people and to work

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<sup>1</sup>  
Eli Ginzberg, op. cit., p. 166

<sup>2</sup>  
Ibid, p. 196

<sup>3</sup>  
L. Szondi, Schicksalsanalyse, Basel 1944.

with materials only; others have a need to talk with people; again others may want to satisfy aggressive needs. This socialised way of satisfying more primitive needs through an occupation is called "operotropism".<sup>1</sup>

As already stated, the factors thus far discussed cannot be definitely referred to as determining factors in the process of occupational selection. The incidence of one or any combination of these factors may become the circumstance under which one becomes identified with a specific occupation.

#### When Does Occupational Selection Occur?

The third major question in the theoretical orientation of this study is related to the time factor involved in the process of occupational selection.

It would appear from E. Ginzberg's cumulative theory that occupational selection does not take place at any specific point in the life of an individual, but that the choice is a process of long duration involving an accumulative process of occupational crystallization.

Caplow believes that the greatest device in timing occupational selection is the educational system: "A series of important choices confront the school child as early as the eighth grade, and a mistaken decision is often irrevocable."<sup>2</sup>

If as is indicated by Eli Ginzberg, occupational selection depends upon a developmental process which involves a series of decisions, then there are certain stages to be noted in this process.

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<sup>1</sup>L. Szondi, Experimental Diagnostics of Drives (transl. by G. Aull), New York 1952, p. 11.

<sup>2</sup>Theodore Caplow, op. cit., p. 218.

According to Eli Ginzberg these stages are:

- a) The fantasy stage, which usually lasts to the age of 11 years.
- b) The tentative stage between the ages of 11 - 17 years.
- c) The realistic stage from 17 years to adulthood.<sup>1</sup>

The child in the fantasy stage imitates occupations partly because some of them provide a great deal of satisfaction through movement.

The child in the fantasy stage identifies successively with a great many occupations as a form of experimentation with adult roles.

"He still believes that he can be whatever he wants to be. His translations are arbitrary." In the German psychology this phenomenon is known as "Rollenspiel". The kind of occupations imitated, or to be more exact "re-lived" by the child are those which are most frequently known to the outer world, such as: busdriver, conductor, teacher, priest, minister, nurse, milkman, grocer.

In the tentative stage he is largely concerned with his own subjective interests, capacities and values. At the same time he begins to evaluate some of the realistic external factors involved in occupational selection. This period differs among other aspects from the fantasy period by the fact that instead of present career satisfactions (in the play situation itself), future satisfactions must be sought. The adolescent realizes that in order to procure this future satisfaction, he has to incorporate more reality considerations and this will be possible only on the basis of additional experience with various occupational-like activities. One of the implications of this knowledge would seem that the adolescent should be provided with as many curricular and extra curricular occupation resembling or occupational reminding activities as possible (botany, zoology, traveling,

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<sup>1</sup>

Eli Ginzberg, op. cit. p. 186.

administration of clubs, working with tools, organising groups, writing essays, music, etc.).

"During the realistic period the translation is so heavily weighted by reality considerations that a synthesis is difficult. The individual recognises that he must work out a compromise between what he wants and the opportunities which are available to him."<sup>1</sup>

Maturity is the state of healthy compromise between the individual's personal somatic and psychological needs and the demands made upon him by the external world. Where such balance has not been reached when chronological age, educational achievement and the occupational locale have logically set the stage for a realistic compromise, such an individual may be emotionally regressed. Such persons are in need of intensive counseling, preferably by a team-approach between the vocational guidance counselor and the psychotherapist.

There are persons who during the greater part of their lifetime remain uncertain as to the direction of their occupational evolution. This is usually an uncertainty concerning a given role within an already chosen occupational category, or the uncertainty relates to the possible addition of executive and administrative responsibilities superimposed on the basically satisfying function. For these persons counseling can also bring marked elucidation of hitherto vague motivations and anxieties related to a difficult choice.

Especially at university where the majority of the students are in the transitional stage between tentative and realistic choice it would be beneficial if an opportunity could be provided for contacts with an occupational counselor. This would help students to select courses for which they are highly motivated. The adequacy of the college students occupational choice is

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<sup>1</sup>Eli Ginzberg, op. cit., p.



all the more important because from this group, the leaders in industry, arts, science and politics are recruited. Occupational maladjustment among the members of this group may have uncalculable repercussions for various organisations in communal living.

### CHAPTER III

#### SOURCES OF DATA AND RESEARCH PROCEDURE

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#### Sources of Information

In this chapter, the sources of information, the research tools and the research procedure are described. To obtain information indicative of the influences operative in the occupational planning of women undergraduates at McGill University, it was decided to focus this study on women students who were in the final year of the B.A. degree course. This decision was based upon the following circumstances:

(1) this group of students were in the final year of a four year course of study; (2) this course was not specifically oriented towards participation in a particular occupation. For most of these students, initially, registration for this course was not dependent upon selection of a particular occupation prior to university entrance as is required of students who aspire to employment as engineers, architects and laboratory technicians. Since these students were in the final year of their course, the research team assumed that many of them would have already formulated their postgraduation employment plans, or at least be in the process of planning.

For the forementioned reasons, it was assumed that interviews with these students concerning their postgraduation plans would yield significant information indicative of at least some of the forces operative in the process of occupational selection.

Contact Procedure:

As of November 1956, 84 women students were enrolled in the fourth year of the B.A. course. All but 6 of these students were eligible as subjects for the present study. These 6 students were excluded because they had participated in the 1956 study.<sup>1</sup>

The cooperation of the 78 eligible students was enlisted through a letter<sup>2</sup> mailed to each student. In this letter, the purpose of the study and the students' contribution to it were explained. It was also stated that the letter would be followed by a telephone call during which there would be ample opportunity for the students to raise questions concerning the project.

Students were telephoned three days after the letters were mailed. Seventy-one of the seventy-eight letters and phone calls resulted in interviews. The majority of the students appeared interested in the study and participated actively in the research interview. Reasons for lack of cooperation on the part of the 7 students who did not participate are as follows:

- (1) One student who was married in June 1956 had participated in the 1956 study. Due to change of name, this was not detected when the list of students was checked for purposes of eligibility.
- (2) The remaining 6 students refused to cooperate either because of their heavy class schedule or lack of interest in the study.

Research Tools

Complex entities such as perception, motivation, beliefs and anticipations of future plans are virtually unobtainable through systematic

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<sup>1</sup>Cumas et. al., Planning for Post-Graduation Employment.

<sup>2</sup>Appendix 1.

observation of behaviour. Therefore a student's verbal report of introspective activity related to postgraduation occupational plans is regarded as the most appropriate tool for the collection of data in this study.

The research team is aware of limitations inherent in the interview method, in that the material reported could be largely that which the subjects are willing and able to express. There is also the added difficulty that reporting about oneself almost always demands a "self-diagnostic statement."<sup>1</sup>

Members of the research team are of the opinion that their training and field experience in social case work could contribute in no mediocre way to the reduction and/or control of various sources of error inherent in the interview method. Social case work has recently developed into a technique which allows the counsellor to piece into a social diagnosis feelings and beliefs, the degree of consistency in attitudes, and the underlying needs which support an attitude.

Both the questionnaire and interview were considered as data-collection tools for purposes of this study. The relative merits and limitations of each were critically examined by the research team. Full cognizance was given to the values of a questionnaire such as: "its time saving aspect; its uniformity in presentation; its easy accessibility; its applicability to large numbers of respondents; its impersonal nature and its standardized lay-out for recording the responses."<sup>2</sup>

The research group shares a widely accepted assumption that "information is the more valid the more freely it is given."<sup>3</sup> The

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<sup>1</sup>Jahoda M., et al., Research Methods in Social Relations, Vol. I, (2d ed.; The Dryden Press Co., New York, 1952) p. 153.

<sup>2</sup>Jahoda M. et al., op. cit., pp. 156-57.

<sup>3</sup>Benny M. and E.C. Hughes, "Of Sociology and the Interview", The American Journal of Sociology, LXII, (September, 1956), p. 139.

questionnaire, through possibly forcing respondents to write down revealing information relevant to "complex emotionally laden experiences" or through "probing of private sentiments"<sup>1</sup> could prove threatening to them. Few people, even those with superior intelligence, enjoy good penmanship, and even then the solemnity and permanent nature of written response to a socially taboo or socially controversial issue can have inhibiting effects.

One advantage that the interview has over the questionnaire is the opportunity it provides to observe the subjects and the total situation to which the subjects are responding. Moreover, in the interview situation there is always the possibility of rephrasing questions to further clarify the meaning of responses and to appraise their validity. It gives a more equal chance of expression to all the members of the sample and it produces a larger number of respondents than the questionnaire because "the latter is usually left unanswered by a large percentage of the addressees."<sup>2</sup>

"The interview is a dynamic process in which there is a constant shifting relationship between the type of information sought and its meaning."<sup>3</sup> A "quasi-clinical type"<sup>4</sup> of interview was selected for this study. "Its flexibility makes it a superior technique for the exploration of areas where there was little basis for knowing either what questions to ask or how to formulate them."<sup>5</sup> The persons to be interviewed were known to be involved in the social situation of having to plan for postgraduation employment.

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<sup>1</sup>Jahoda M., et al., op. cit., p. 158.

<sup>2</sup>Jahoda M., et al., op. cit., p. 158.

<sup>3</sup>Gordon, R.L., "Dimensions of the Depth Interview," American Journal of Sociology, LXII, (September, 1956), p. 164.

<sup>4</sup>Jahoda M., et al., op. cit., p. 175.

<sup>5</sup>Hyman, H.H., et al., Interviewing in Social Research (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1954), p. 191.

This largely "non-directive interview"<sup>1</sup> was preceded by a number of direct and merely factual questions designed to elicit identifying information concerning the subjects and their families. Various error inducing sources which the team tried to control were "expectational and ideological processes in the interviewer"<sup>2</sup>; "systematic and differential effects of personal interaction in the interview-situation"<sup>3</sup>; differences in respondent reaction to ethnic group, "age, sex"<sup>4</sup>, "class and residence of interviewer"<sup>5</sup>; the lack of structure in the interview procedure with the subsequent problem of statistical analysis; and finally "the mechanical difficulties of the interview task."<sup>6</sup>

As recommended by Caplow,<sup>7</sup> optimum interviewing conditions were approached through application of the following procedure: interviewers were well-trained and had several hundred hours of field experience in social case work; briefing, quality control and schedule revisions took place prior to the research interviews; intuitive impressions and preliminary analysis were discussed at frequent meetings of the research group so that each interviewer developed the highest possible awareness of the situation in which the respondent was met. Only brief notes were taken during the interview and process recording was undertaken immediately after the interview. The respondents were allocated to interviewers on the basis of a code number rather than by name.

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<sup>1</sup>Rogers, C.R., Counselling and Psychotherapy, New York, 1942.

<sup>2</sup>Hyman, H.H., et al., op. cit., pp. 83-137

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., pp. 138-150

<sup>4</sup>Benney, M., et al., "Age and Sex in the Interview," The American Journal of Sociology, LXII, (September, 1956), pp. 143-152.

<sup>5</sup>Hyman, H.H., op. cit., pp. 164-167.

<sup>6</sup>Hyman, H.H., op. cit., pp. 167-170.

<sup>7</sup>Caplow, T., "The Dynamics of Information Interviewing," American Journal of Sociology, LXII, (September, 1956), p. 165.

#### Need for Interview Guide:

As already indicated, a non-directive approach was used in the interviews. However, in order to ensure the uniformity in the type of data collected, an interview guide was developed.

#### Development of Interview Guide:

Prior to formulation of the interview guide, the research team surveyed the recent literature with a view to obtaining an understanding of the process of occupational selection. With this background, the group designed questions related to each of the working hypotheses. These questions were used in 18 trial interviews. The data obtained from these interviews were critically reviewed by the research group. As a result, weaknesses in the interview guide were perceived and it was revised accordingly. The final form of the interview guide appears in Appendix 1.

The first part of this guide is designed as a face sheet for the recording of identifying data such as: a student's age, place of birth, religion, health, year of degree course, work experience and interests; parents' incomes; age, birthplace, education and the occupation of parents and siblings. The second part consists of the questions relevant to each hypothesis.

#### Use of the Interview Guide:

The interview guide is used in three ways. It was used as a flexible outline for the interviews, as a check to ensure that all questions had been answered, and as an outline for process recording of the interview content. The interviewers did not adhere rigidly to the form and order of the questions in the guide, but rather used a student's trend of thought and asked questions related to it. The researchers found that the students



spontaneously supplied answers to many questions and therefore it was frequently unnecessary to ask all the questions in the guide.

### Research Procedure

The majority of interviews were held at the McGill School of Social Work. Due to time limitations, each student was interviewed only once. The duration of the interview was approximately one hour which is the amount of time generally accepted as adequate for one interview in social case work.

The students were oriented to the interview by the interviewer who re-stated the purpose of the study, ensured confidentiality of the information given and answered any questions raised by the student at this stage. The face sheet<sup>1</sup> of the interview guide was the point of departure for the interview. The interview proper was developed as indicated in the previous section of this Chapter.

The method of terminating the interview depended on the individual interviewer and the respondent. In some cases the respondent's answers were summarized in order to ensure the accuracy of information obtained and to provide an opportunity for the student to amplify or reformulate her response if she so desired. In other cases, the respondent was asked whether she had any questions concerning the interview. In all cases, students were thanked for their cooperation.

Most of the students stated that they found the interview helpful in the clarification of their own plans. They also thought the study was important and valuable since they felt there was a definite lack of orientation for employment on the campus.

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<sup>1</sup>

Infra, Appendix.2p.

### Thesis Plan

As already stated in Chapter I, this study was undertaken as a group research project. All five members of the research group were involved in the planning of this study, in the development of the research procedure, in the survey of the literature, in the collection and analysis of data, and in the reporting and discussion of results.

Chapters I, II, III, and X of this thesis are a group product. The following Chapters are the sole responsibility of the individual students listed.

Chapter IV: Profile of 71 Fourth Year Women Students in the  
B. A. Degree Course At McGill University, 1956-1957.

Mary Elizabeth LeMay

Chapter V: Initial Occupational Interest and Initial Awareness of the  
Need to Plan for Postgraduation Employment Manifested  
by 71 Fourth Year Women Students in the B. A. Degree  
Course at McGill University, 1956-1957.

Christine McLellan

Chapter VI: Familial Influences on The Occupational Planning of  
71 Fourth Year Women Students in the B. A. Degree  
Course at McGill University, 1956-1957.

John Eymberts

Chapter VII: Non-Familial Influences on The Occupational Planning  
of 71 Fourth Year Women Students in the B. A. Degree  
Course at McGill University, 1956-1957.

Mary Seely

Chapter VIII: Familial and Non-Familial Influences on Occupational Planning of 71 Fourth Year Women Students in the B.A. Degree Course at McGill University, 1956-1957.

John Eymberts and

Mary Seely

Chapter IX: Employment Plans and Occupational Participation of 71 Fourth Year Women Students in the B.A. Degree Course at McGill University, 1956-1957.

Marguerite Blanchard

This study was initiated to obtain information concerning the forces operative in the process of occupational selection and also to provide a research experience for five second year Master of Social Work degree students. To ensure that these students had a profitable research experience, they were encouraged, particularly in the chapters undertaken by individuals, to test their own ideas with the data derived from the research interviews. In other words, a "workshop" approach was encouraged. Consequently, a certain lack of cohesiveness may be apparent and also a lack of uniformity in the presentation of the research results. Also to be noted is that due to time limitations and individual differences in productivity, it is not always possible to interrelate the findings of individual chapters.

CHAPTER IV

PROFILE OF 71 FOURTH YEAR WOMEN STUDENTS IN THE

B.A. DEGREE COURSE AT MCGILL UNIVERSITY,

1956-1957

by

Mary Elizabeth LeMay

## CHAPTER IV

### PROFILE OF 71 FOURTH YEAR WOMEN STUDENTS IN THE B.A. DEGREE COURSE AT MCGILL UNIVERSITY, 1956-1957

In this chapter the 71 selected women students who form the research sample will be described. This description will serve as background for the content of subsequent chapters of this thesis.

As already indicated in Chapter III, the sample is composed of fourth year B.A. degree students in the Arts and Science Faculty at McGill University. Seventy-eight B.A. degree students were contacted with a view to their participation in the study and of the group 71 were available for interviews.

It is interesting to note that the sample is larger by 11 students than the 1956 sample.<sup>1</sup> The 71 students who comprise the sample represent approximately .9 percent of the total university student body, 3 percent of the total number of women students, and 13 percent of the B.A. degree women students. It can be seen that although the sample is larger than the one used last year, it is still a small sample.

The content of this chapter will be presented under the following headings: I. Degree Course

#### II. Personal Characteristics

##### A. Age

##### B. Country of birth

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<sup>1</sup> Steve Cumas, Gwen Bersch, Holly Ogryzlo, Phyllis Cumas, Mark Dranov, Sophie Goldfarb, Planning for Post-Graduation Employment, McGill University Group Thesis for M.A.S.W., Montreal, 1956.

- C. Religion
- D. Civil status
- E. Health
- F. Work experience
- G. Occupational planning level
- H. Marriage plans
- I. Extra-curricular interests

### III. Family Characteristics

- A. Family constellation
- B. Father and mother
  - 1. Age
  - 2. Country of birth
  - 3. Education
  - 4. Income
  - 5. Occupation
- C. Siblings
  - 1. Sex
  - 2. Age
  - 3. Education
  - 4. Occupation

### IV. Summary and Conclusions

#### 1. Degree Course

In this section, the subjects are described in terms of the academic course they were following at the time of the research interview.

Sixty-two of the 71 students in the sample were taking a pass course

and 9 an honors course. Only approximately 13 percent, therefore, were specializing. Many of the students who were not specializing stated that, in retrospect, they wished they had received more guidance from the university when they were choosing their course of study. These students expressed the opinion that if they had realized the academic and occupational advantages of specialization they would have chosen an honors course.

Several students expanded on this idea. They thought their parents should have advised them to choose an honors course. On second thought, however, they stated that they considered it was the university's responsibility to help them to select their curriculum, because their parents were not informed about the curriculums and their implications. The students were of the opinion that if their parents had been aware of the problem they would have helped them.

Foreign students expressed surprise and indignation that they had not received orientation at McGill. They felt that they particularly needed guidance and orientation and had often been confused and made unnecessary mistakes because of not receiving it.

## II. Personal Characteristics

A profile of the 71 subjects will now be given in terms of their age, country of birth, religion, civil status, health, work experience, occupational planning level, marriage plans, and extra-curricular interests.

### A. Age

The age distribution of the students at the time of the research interview was 19 to 30 years with the mean age at 21 years. The age distribution of the sample is shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1

AGE DISTRIBUTION OF 71 FOURTH YEAR WOMEN STUDENTS  
IN THE B.A. DEGREE COURSE AT MCGILL UNIVERSITY,  
1956-1957<sup>a</sup>

| Age in Years | Number of Students |
|--------------|--------------------|
| Total        | 71                 |
| 19 - 20      | 38                 |
| 21 - 22      | 25                 |
| 23 - 24      | 6                  |
| 25 - 26      | 1                  |
| 27 - 28      | 0                  |
| 29 - 30      | 1                  |

<sup>a</sup>Hereafter, the University, city and time of study are omitted from the title of tables. It may be assumed that the tables refer to the above sample group of students from McGill University, unless otherwise stated.

It was expected that there would be a youthful age range since courses at McGill are given primarily during the day time and do not, therefore, attract the working population who are only able to attend evening classes. Universities where courses are given primarily in the day time have a comparatively young student body since the students usually come directly from high school to university. On the other hand, students who attend universities where courses are given primarily in the evening are mostly working people. It takes longer for them to obtain a degree since they cannot take as many courses in the evening as the day students can and are, therefore, older when they graduate. Also people who decide to take university courses in middle or old age usually attend



in the evening because of their day-time jobs or obligations.

Since 63 of the 71 students are in the 19 to 22 year age group, it is evident that most of them came directly from high school to university. For this reason they had little opportunity to become aware of occupations which are available for women or to acquire experience in areas of interest to them.

#### B. Country of birth

Ethnic background is important because cultural values influence where a girl will work and what she will work at. For this reason the distribution of the students by country of birth is shown in Table 2. Later on in the family section their parents country of birth will also be examined since parental cultural values may influence or conflict with the values of the student and thereby be an important factor for or against the student's occupational planning.

TABLE 2  
DISTRIBUTION OF 71 STUDENTS BY COUNTRY  
OF BIRTH

| Country of Birth    | Number of Students |
|---------------------|--------------------|
| Total               | 71                 |
| Canada              | 50                 |
| U.S.A.              | 7                  |
| Europe <sup>a</sup> | 7                  |
| England             | 4                  |
| Israel              | 1                  |
| Jamaica             | 1                  |
| Bermuda             | 1                  |

<sup>a</sup> Europe includes: Rumania, Czechoslovakia, France, Italy, Germany, Sweden. Two students were born in Rumania and one in each of the remaining countries.

As is to be expected, 50 students or approximately 70 percent of the group are native born. The 3 largest groups of foreign born students were born in the United States, Europe, and England respectively.

In comparing these findings with the countries of birth of the total population of Canada, it is apparent that the sample is representative, as the dominant countries of birth in the 1931, 1941 and 1951 census years were Canada, the United Kingdom, Europe, and the United States respectively.<sup>1</sup> The sample differs from the total population in that it contains a smaller proportion of subjects born in the United Kingdom and Europe.

#### C. Religion

Religious beliefs or lack of them influence a person's entire outlook on life, goals, and aspirations. Blaise Pascal described the place that religion "ought to" and sometimes does hold in a person's life as follows:

The whole course of things ought to have as its object the foundation and greatness of religion; men ought to have within themselves ideas consistent with what it teaches us; and, finally so much ought it to be the object and center to which all things tend that he who knows its principles may also account not only for the complete nature of man in particular but also for the entire course of the world in general.<sup>2</sup>

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1

Dominion Bureau of Statistics, Canada Year Book 1956 (Ottawa: Queen's Printer and Controller of Stationery, 1956) Table 17, "Countries of Birth of the Population, Census Years 1931, 1941, and 1951," p. 166.

2

Blaise Pascal, "Pensees," The Wisdom of Catholicism, Anton C. Pegis (The Modern Library; New York: Random House, Inc., 1949) p. 641.

On this account, for some people at least, religious beliefs can be the most important factor in occupational planning.

Similar to the 1956 sample,<sup>1</sup> the majority of students are Protestant. The second and third largest religious groups are Jewish and Roman Catholic respectively. The distribution of the subjects according to religion is shown in Table 3.

TABLE 3  
DISTRIBUTION OF 71 SUBJECTS AND TOTAL UNIVERSITY  
STUDENT BODY BY RELIGION

| Religion           | Subjects |         | University Student Body |         |
|--------------------|----------|---------|-------------------------|---------|
|                    | Number   | Percent | Number                  | Percent |
| Total              | 71       | 100     | 7254                    | 100     |
| Protestant         | 34       | 48      | 3471                    | 48      |
| Jewish             | 27       | 38      | 1623                    | 22      |
| Roman Catholic     | 4        | 6       | 1437                    | 20      |
| Other <sup>a</sup> | 4        | 6       | 629                     | 9       |
| None               | 2        | 2       | 92                      | 1       |

<sup>a</sup>"Other" for the subjects comprises Christian Science and Ukrainian Greek Orthodox; and students with "no affiliation" and "others" for the university student body.

It is to be noted that the alignment of the dominant religions - Protestant, Jewish, and Catholic - is the same for the subjects as for the total university student body. Similarly, the proportion of Protestant's is 48 percent for both groups.

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<sup>1</sup>Cumas et al, op. cit., Vol. I, p. 65.

The dissimilarity occurs in the Jewish and Catholic proportions. In the university student body these proportions are approximately equal, whereas in the sample the proportion of students belonging to the Jewish faith is approximately 6 times as large as those belonging to the Catholic faith. The explanation for this is possibly that the majority of Catholic students attend McGill rather than a Catholic university because they wish to specialize in a subject which is either not offered or emphasized in the Catholic university which they would be able to attend. They do not, therefore, enroll in the B.A. degree course in as large a proportion as the Jewish students who do not have their own universities in Canada. In the 1956 sample<sup>1</sup> there was likewise a disproportion between the Jewish and Catholic students in the B.A. degree course.

#### D. Civil Status

Sixty students are single and 11 students are married. As expected because of the age range of the group, none of the students are widowed or divorced. At the time of the research interview, the age of the 11 married students ranged from 20 to 23 years.

The fact that approximately one-sixth of the sample is married is an indication of the larger number of marriages and of a tendency to marry earlier than prior to World War II.<sup>2</sup> It is also a reflection of Canada's

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<sup>1</sup>  
<sup>2</sup> Ibid, p. 66.

Dominion Bureau of Statistics, Canada 1956 (Ottawa: Queen's Printer and Controller of Stationery, 1956), p. 35. "Between 1941 and 1951 the proportion of married women rose from 38 percent to 51 percent in the age group 20-24. While much of this difference may be attributed to postponement of marriage during the depression period of the early 1930's there is evidence that a higher proportion of women are now marrying at a somewhat earlier age than formerly."

present prosperous period. Many of these married students stated that their parents were helping them financially. Such assistance made it possible for them to attend university and at the same time to marry and establish homes of their own. They were thereby preparing for occupations where a college degree was a prerequisite at the same time as they were establishing their own homes. In a less prosperous economic era, this would not have been possible.

#### E. Health

Sixty-eight of the 71 students stated that they are in good health. The remaining 3 students are handicapped in that one has a heart condition, another a deformed hand, and a third has had tuberculosis. In occupational planning, it is necessary for these 3 students to consider their health.

Health may be a factor which handicaps a student's occupational planning as the following two cases illustrate. In tenth grade, the student with a deformed hand decided that she wanted to be a physio-therapist. She was told that because of her deformity this would be impossible. Several years later, a vocational guidance counselor told her she could be anything she wanted to be. At the time of the interview she had no plans and could not decide what she wanted to do. She was considering, among other occupations, teaching, but did not mention physio-therapy.

It would seem that this student's desire to be a physio-therapist may have been a compensation for her own physical handicap. Since this one strong occupational drive was thwarted when she was in tenth grade, she has not been able to choose an alternate occupation or even reconsider physio-therapy.

The student with a heart condition demonstrates the case of a person who is able to adjust to a handicap and choose an occupation in keeping with their physical strength. This student wanted to be a teacher. When she was in her second or third year at McGill, she was told that she had a heart condition which would make teaching too strenuous for her. At the time of the interview she had decided to be a librarian.

#### F. Work experience

All but one of the students in the sample had work experience prior to and/or during university attendance. This one student is from a \$10,000 and over income level foreign family who only considers it necessary for their daughter to prepare herself to earn a living if she does not marry. The parents sought a college education for their daughter as a form of security in case she did not marry. They have moved frequently from one country to another. Therefore, parental attitude towards work combined with wealth, moving, and the consequent language difficulty in each new country seem to be the reasons for this student's lack of work experience.

For purposes of this study work experience is defined as a paid job which is either full-time, summer, or sessional work experience. Full-time work experience refers to employment held on a weekly or monthly basis which was not undertaken concurrently with school or university studies. For example, one student worked full-time for three years following graduation from teacher's college. She subsequently decided to take further courses, gave up her job and enrolled at McGill.

TABLE 4

DISTRIBUTION OF 71 STUDENTS ACCORDING TO  
FREQUENCY AND TIMING OF WORK EXPERIENCE

| Work Experience                     | Frequency and Timing<br>of Work Experience |        |           |
|-------------------------------------|--|--------|-----------|
|                                     | Full-time                                  | Summer | Sessional |
| Total                               | 3  | 153    | 37        |
| Professional and semi professional: | 1  | 28     | 20        |
| Teacher                             | 1  | 1      | 1         |
| Governess                           |  | 3      |           |
| Tutor                               |  |        | 5         |
| Researcher                          |  | 1      |           |
| Laboratory technician               |  | 1      |           |
| Group leader and counsellor         |  | 3      | 3         |
| Physio-therapist                    |  |        | 1         |
| Occupational-therapist              |  |        | 1         |
| Newspaper reporter and proof-reader |  | 3      |           |
| Musician                            |  |        | 1         |
| Photographer                        |  | 1      |           |
| Geographer                          |  | 1      |           |
| Assistant librarian                 |  | 7      | 7         |
| Investigator for credit bureau      |  | 1      |           |
| Swimming instructor                 |  | 2      |           |
| Lifeguard                           |  | 1      |           |
| Social worker aide                  |  | 2      |           |
| Nurse's aide                        |  | 1      |           |

TABLE 4 - cont'd.

| Work Experience                       | Frequency and timing<br>of Work Experience |        |           |
|---------------------------------------|--|--------|-----------|
|                                       | Full-time                                  | Summer | Sessional |
| Armed Forces:                         |  | 1      | 1         |
| R.C.A.F. Reserve                      |  | 1      | 1         |
| Managers and officials:               |  | 34     |           |
| Store manager                         |  | 1      |           |
| Children's home assistant             |  | 1      |           |
| Playground supervisor                 |  | 3      |           |
| Camp counsellor and employee          |  | 29     |           |
| Clerical, sales, and kindred workers: | 2  | 61     | 12        |
| Business correspondent                |  | 1      |           |
| Bookkeeper                            |  | 1      | 1         |
| Accountant                            |  | 3      |           |
| Cashier                               |  | 2      |           |
| Payroll department employee           |  | 2      |           |
| Rate checker                          |  | 11     |           |
| Secretary                             |  | 8      | 1         |
| Clerk-typist                          | 1  | 25     | 2         |
| Receptionist                          |  | 1      |           |
| Information clerk                     |  | 2      |           |
| Mail department employee              |  | 1      |           |
| Passenger reservations agents         | 1  |        |           |
| Advertising agency employee           |  | 1      |           |
| Salesgirl                             |  | 13     | 6         |
| Model                                 |  |        | 2         |



TABLE 4 - cont'd..

| Work Experience         | Frequency and timing<br>of Work Experience |        |           |
|-------------------------|--|--------|-----------|
|                         | Full-<br>time                              | Summer | Sessional |
| Service Workers:        |  | 27     | 5         |
| Companion               |  | 1      |           |
| Baby-sitter             |  | 2      | 3         |
| Bell-telephone operator |  | 4      |           |
| Waitress                |  | 12     | 1         |
| Maid                    |  | 4      |           |
| Elevator operator       |  | 3      |           |
| Locker room attendant   |  |        | 1         |
| Guide                   |  | 1      |           |
| Laborer:                |  | 2      |           |
| Farm hand               |  | 2      |           |

Including full-time, summer, and sessional work, the jobs with the highest frequency are, in order of precedence, camp counselor and employee, clerk-typist, salesgirl, assistant librarian, waitress, and secretary. The sessional jobs with the highest frequency are in order of precedence assistant librarian, salesgirl, and tutor. These findings are what could be expected in any sample of university students in an urban area, since there is a demand for workers in the forementioned fields and in view of this employers are willing to hire students.

Whether a student attends college or not is usually based on finances. Economic need usually determines whether a student works or not. Therefore, the distribution of the timing (full-time, summer, or sessional) of work experience of the students in relation to parental income level is indicated in Table 5.

TABLE 5  
TIMING OF WORK EXPERIENCE OF 71 STUDENTS RELATED TO  
PARENTAL INCOME LEVEL

| Timing of Work Experience | Number of Students | Income Level of Parents |                  |                   |         |
|---------------------------|--------------------|-------------------------|------------------|-------------------|---------|
|                           |                    | \$10,000 and over       | \$5,000 and over | Less than \$5,000 | Unknown |
| Full-time                 | 3                  | 1                       | 0                | 2                 | 0       |
| Sessional                 | 27                 | 11                      | 9                | 4                 | 3       |
| Summer                    | 70                 | 41                      | 16               | 8                 | 5       |

Seventy of the 71 students have summer work experience as might be expected since this is the one long vacation period during the year when they can earn extra pocket-money or money to finance their education. Twenty-seven of the 71 students have sessional work experience. Three students have full-time work experience.

It can be seen that at least 13 of the 27 students with sessional work experience have families whose income level is under \$10,000. However, since there are 11 students whose family income is \$10,000 and over, there is not sufficient evidence that low parental income level causes the need for sessional work experience, although the latter can be reasonably suspected.

It is evident that a relationship exists between full-time work experience and parental income level. The student whose father's income is over \$10,000 is dependent on both her mother and father who are divorced, but she is never really sure how much financial support she can expect from either one. Her mother is remarried but her income level is under \$2,000 and she is not able to help her daughter very much. All 3 students with full-time work experience have had summer and sessional jobs as well.

These 3 students acquired full-time work experience in this way. One is a teacher who practised her profession for several years after graduating from teacher's college. Her parents had always encouraged her to be a teacher since they believed she had

a marked talent for this profession. It was not until she had acquired practical experience, however, that she definitely made up her mind to be a teacher. Again with the encouragement of her parents, she decided to leave her home town and come to McGill for further training. She is on a scholarship and otherwise self-supporting.

Another student completed one year at university in her home town and then decided to get a job instead of returning for the second year. She claims she was "mixed-up" and did not know what she wanted to do. Her parents were divorced and both remarried, and she says she was being physically and emotionally pulled between them. After she had worked for approximately one year in a routine type of job, she decided to leave home and to complete her university course at McGill. She stated that she made this decision because she found that her job and co-workers were not intellectually stimulating and she felt she needed a university degree to get the type of job, co-workers, and friends she would find interesting. She has almost entirely supported herself.

The third student with full-time work experience graduated from high school and took a job for six months to earn money for university tuition fees. Her board at home is free, but she is otherwise self-supporting and has paid entirely for her university education through full-time, summer, and sessional jobs.

Evidence of work opportunities for students who seek it for economic or other reasons is indicated by the fact that all but one of the students in the sample have had work experience. Most students who attend university today have some form of work experience prior to graduation. Over half the students in the sample are from families whose income level is \$10,000 and over and presumably do not need to work but do so because of the value placed on work in our present society which makes people feel they must work. As will be shown later, preoccupation with work does not delimit their extra-curricular activities.

#### G. Occupational planning level

Since this study deals with the process of occupational planning, it is of interest to determine what plans students in the sample have for post-graduation employment. Analysis of the interview content indicates that in so far as planning is concerned the students fall into three groups, namely those with definite plans, tentative plans, or no plans.

For purposes of this study an occupational plan is defined as a plan to take a job or to do graduate studies. A definite occupational plan implies that a student has been accepted for a job or academic course and that she has decided to pursue the plan and start the job or course on a fixed date. A tentative occupational plan means that a student has investigated the possibility of a job, or an academic course, but that she has either not yet received notification of acceptance or that she has not definitely decided to pursue the plan. No occupational plan means that the student has

not investigated the possibility of a job or academic course although she may have ideas concerning her future line of action.

The distribution of the 71 subjects according to occupational planning level is shown in Table 6.

TABLE 6  
DISTRIBUTION OF 71 STUDENTS ACCORD-  
ING TO OCCUPATIONAL PLANNING LEVEL

| Occupational Planning Level | Students |         |
|-----------------------------|----------|---------|
|                             | Number   | Percent |
| Total                       | 71       | 100     |
| Definite                    | 13       | 18      |
| Tentative                   | 42       | 59      |
| None                        | 16       | 23      |

The majority or 59 percent of the students are in the tentative plan category. This may be due to the fact that these students stated their plans during interviews which were two or three months before the end of their university course, and in many cases they had not yet received definite answers from their prospective employers. In some cases the students were not able to decide definitely on a given occupation because they had marriage plans upon which their occupational plans depended. In other cases, they had applied for a job because they wanted the security of knowing they could have definite employment, but they were not decided as to whether they would take what they had found.

Upon examining Table 7, it will be seen that occupational planning level of students in the low income group seems to be related to parental income.

TABLE 7  
STUDENTS OCCUPATIONAL PLANNING LEVEL  
AS RELATED TO PARENTAL INCOME LEVEL

| Parental Income Level | Total Number of Students | Students Occupational Planning Level |           |      |
|-----------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------------------|-----------|------|
|                       |                          | Definite                             | Tentative | None |
| Total                 | 71                       | 13                                   | 42        | 16   |
| \$10,000 and over     | 42                       | 5                                    | 26        | 11   |
| \$9,000 - 9,999       | 0                        | 0                                    | 0         | 0    |
| \$8,000 - 8,999       | 3                        | 0                                    | 1         | 2    |
| \$7,000 - 7,999       | 6                        | 4                                    | 2         | 0    |
| \$6,000 - 6,999       | 3                        | 1                                    | 0         | 2    |
| \$5,000 - 5,999       | 4                        | 1                                    | 3         | 0    |
| \$4,000 - 4,999       | 3                        | 0                                    | 2         | 1    |
| \$3,000 - 3,999       | 2                        | 0                                    | 2         | 0    |
| \$2,000 - 2,999       | 2                        | 0                                    | 2         | 0    |
| less than \$2,000     | 1                        | 0                                    | 1         | 0    |
| not known             | 5                        | 2                                    | 3         | 0    |

At the time of the research interview, there were no students without plans from families whose income was under \$4,000, and no students with definite plans from families whose income was under \$5,000 except possibly one of the 5 students whose parental income level is unknown. It appears, therefore, that students from low income level families assure their future by making at least tentative occupational plans, but that they may take more time to make definite plans than the students from higher income level families. Their tentative plans may be explained by a need for security. Their lack of definite plans, on the other hand, may be due to hasty decisions which caused them to make tentative plans but which caution restrained them from finalizing immediately. Also low income level families possibly have more limited chances to hear about university level job opportunities than higher income level families, in which the father usually has a university education and associates with people of similar educational background. The result may be that they have less knowledge concerning available occupations and, therefore, less choice. It is possible that a majority of these students with tentative plans will finalize their hastily made decisions and possibly be ill-suited for the jobs which they decided upon.

In the \$5,000 and over income level group the proportion of students with definite, tentative, and no plans is fairly even. In the \$10,000 and over income level, however, the number of students in the tentative occupational planning category is 5 times



as large as those in the definite plans category and ever twice as large as the no plans group. It is more likely the financial security, the time of the interview and the marriage plans as previously mentioned which accounts for the large proportion of students with tentative plans in the sample.

#### H. Marriage plans

All the students in the sample are interested in marriage. Aside from the 11 students who are already married, 17 students have definite marriage plans, 9 students have tentative marriage plans, and 34 students have general expectations of marriage at an indeterminate future time. Since being married or expecting to be married at some time influences occupational planning, this subject will be discussed in greater detail in Chapter 9.

#### I. Extra-curricular interests

Extra-curricular interests in this study designates leisure-time pursuits. These pursuits are of considerable importance for occupational planning for:

"Rest is not quitting the busy career;  
Rest is the fitting of self to one's sphere."<sup>1</sup>

"In our industrialized civilization, where most occupations are narrowly specialized, fitting oneself for one's sphere involves finding avenues outside of one's occupation for a well-rounded development of personality."<sup>2</sup>

These interests might also be useful for the students in future occupations.

In Table 8 the extra-curricular interests of the 71 subjects are listed in order of frequency.

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<sup>1</sup>M.E. Bennett, College and Life, Problems of Self-Discovery and Self-Direction (N.Y. and London: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1933) p.408.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

TABLE 8

EXTRA-CURRICULAR INTERESTS OF THE 71 STUDENTS

| Extra-curricular interests                | Number of Students |
|---|--------------------|
| Musical                                   | 67                 |
| Literary                                  | 64                 |
| Sports                                    | 56                 |
| Dancing                                   | 55                 |
| Artistic                                  | 50                 |
| Dramatic                                  | 49                 |
| Domestic (sewing, cooking, etc.)          | 45                 |
| Movies                                    | 39                 |
| Collecting                                | 34                 |
| Religious                                 | 25                 |
| Photography                               | 22                 |
| University societies, clubs, and councils | 19                 |
| Scientific and botanic                    | 7                  |
| Mechanical                                | 6                  |
| Welfare campaigns and activities          | 4                  |
| Travelling                                | 2                  |
| Politics                                  | 1                  |
| Animals                                   | 1                  |
| Executive activities                      | 1                  |
| History                                   | 1                  |
| Guide for tourists                        | 1                  |
| Fashion show convenor                     | 1                  |

As in the 1956 study,<sup>1</sup> cultural pursuits are in the forefront, but it does not seem surprising in this youthful group of women to find sports and dancing third and fourth on the list.

All the students in the sample have more than one interest. Thirteen is the maximum number of interests for any one student. The average number of extra-curricular interests is 8, which seems like a good start on the road towards finding avenues outside of one's occupation for a well-rounded development of personality.

If an examination is made of extra-curricular interests in relation to occupational planning level, it is found that the definite plan group have an average of 8 interests, the tentative plans group have an average of over 8 interests, and the no plans group have an average of 7 interests. Students with no plans, therefore, also have less extra-curricular interests. This may be an indication of a less well-rounded personality which lacks sufficient motivation to make an occupational plan.

### III. Family

Since each individual in a family influences and is influenced by other members in that family, it is necessary to examine the characteristics of the families of the 71 subjects now described.

In this section the profile is given of fathers, mothers, and siblings of the students in the sample.

#### A. Family constellation

At the time of the research interview all the students lived in Montreal. Twenty-two of the 71 students, or 31 percent of the sample,

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<sup>1</sup>Cumas et al, op. cit., Vol. I, p. 59-60

are temporarily separated from their families and reside at Royal Victoria College, the women's residence on the McGill University campus. Since the interviewers did not ask the students whether they were residing with their families at the time of the interview, the information on this subject was obtained indirectly and no precise data concerning place of residence can be given for the students who were not living at Royal Victoria College. It is possible that among the married students there were several who were not living at home. However, most of the students who are not living at the Royal Victoria College, including the married students, still reside with their parents. This is important since parental influence is undoubtedly more keenly felt when children are living with their parents.

As in the 1956 study,<sup>1</sup> the average family in the sample consists of mother, father, and 2 children, one of whom is the student.<sup>2</sup> The number of children in the families of the 71 students ranges from 1 to 7. It is to be noted that a Jamaican family is the largest family in the sample. The average number of persons per family in 1951 was 3.7 in Canada and 4.2 in the Province of Quebec.<sup>3</sup> The average family in the sample consists of 4 people which is slightly less than the average Quebec family. This can be explained

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<sup>1</sup> Cumas et al, op. cit., Vol. I, p. 68.

<sup>2</sup> Calculation based on full-blood, step, half siblings, and subjects.

<sup>3</sup> Dominion Bureau of Statistics, Canada 1956 (Ottawa: Queen's Printer and Controller of Stationery, 1956) p. 30.

by the fact that the sample consists predominantly of students from Protestant or Jewish families, whereas the Province of Quebec consists primarily of Catholics who tend to have larger families.

Three students have lost their mother and 13 their father through death. Only 1 in this group of 16 students is an orphan. It is not surprising that 4 times as many fathers have died as mothers since in the population in general men die younger than women.<sup>1</sup>

Two students have parents who are divorced, 5 have a step-father, and 3 students a stepmother. As is indicated in Chapter 6, death or divorce of a parent had an influence on the occupational planning of at least some of the students concerned.

Authorities are in agreement that an individual's position in the family constellation has important implications for personality development and hence for planning in general. Twenty-nine students or one third of the sample are the youngest members and 20 students or less than one third of the sample are the oldest members of the family. Twelve students are only children.<sup>2</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Dominion Bureau of Statistics, Canada Year Book 1956, (Ottawa: Queen's Printer and Controller of Stationery, 1956), Table 20

"Numbers and Percentages of Bridegrooms and Brides by Age and Marital Status 1953 and 1954," p. 227. In 1954 the average age of widows was 48 years and the average age of widowers was 54.6 years.

<sup>2</sup>Step and half siblings are not included since it was not possible to obtain their ages in every instance.

## B. Father and mother

### 1. Age

At the time of the interview, fathers ranged in age from 42 to 70 years with the mean at 54 years. The mothers' ages ranged from 41 to 61 years with the mean at 50 years. Since the average age of the students is 21 years, the parents ages are what could be expected.

The age range of the mothers (41 to 61 years) compared to that of the students (19 to 30 years) shows that the youngest and oldest mother's age is approximately double that of the youngest and oldest daughter. If the daughters followed in the footsteps of their mothers they would be getting married this year. As already indicated in this chapter, 28 of the 71 students are either married or have definite plans for marriage in the near future.

### 2. Country of birth

When the students country of birth was discussed it was said their parents' country of birth would also be examined because parental cultural values may influence or conflict with the values of the student and thereby be an important factor for or against occupational planning. Table 9, therefore, shows the distribution of the parents of the 71 students according to country of birth.

TABLE 9

DISTRIBUTION OF PARENTS OF 71 STUDENTS  
ACCORDING TO COUNTRY OF BIRTH

| Country of Birth | Number of Parents   |                     |
|------------------|---------------------|---------------------|
|                  | Father <sup>a</sup> | Mother <sup>b</sup> |
| Total            | 75                  | 74                  |
| Canada           | 36                  | 32                  |
| England          | 9                   | 10                  |
| U.S.             | 6                   | 12                  |
| Poland           | 7                   | 5                   |
| Russia           | 6                   | 1                   |
| Hungary          | 1                   | 1                   |
| Czechoslovakia   | 1                   | 1                   |
| Rumania          | 0                   | 1                   |
| Lithuania        | 0                   | 1                   |
| Jamaica          | 2                   | 1                   |
| Bermuda          | 1                   | 1                   |
| Scotland         | 1                   | 0                   |
| Ireland          | 0                   | 1                   |
| Mexico           | 1                   | 0                   |
| Java             | 0                   | 2                   |
| Switzerland      | 1                   | 0                   |
| Germany          | 1                   | 1                   |
| Italy            | 1                   | 2                   |
| Greece           | 1                   | 1                   |
| China            | 0                   | 1                   |

<sup>a</sup> Father includes the 5 step-fathers and 13 fathers who are deceased.  
The country of birth of 1 father is unknown and he is the only one excluded.

<sup>b</sup> Mother includes the 3 step-mothers and the 3 mothers who are deceased.

The countries where the largest number of parents were born are Canada, England, the U.S., and Poland respectively. As to be expected, the largest proportion of parents, 48 percent of the fathers and 43 percent of the mothers, are Canadian born. England followed with approximately 13 percent of the parents born in that country. Then came the U.S. where 8 percent of the fathers and 16 percent of the mothers were born. It is interesting that Poland, historically one of the most war ravaged countries in Europe, is the nation from which the fourth highest number of parents originated, with Russia occupying fifth place.

Among the other countries of parental origin, all of the satellite nations except Bulgaria, Latvia, and Estonia are represented. This is not surprising due to the turmoil in that area since the early 1900's, and the fact that Central Europe ranks fourth in the countries of birth of the Canadian population for the census years 1931 and 1941 and third for the year 1951.<sup>1</sup>

### 3. Education

It has frequently been observed that the educational level of parents influences or has an effect upon their daughters aspirations and likewise parents aspirations for their daughters. On this account an examination of the educational level of the parents of the 71 subjects is warranted. Table 10 shows the educational level attained by the parents of the 71 subjects in the sample.

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<sup>1</sup>Dominion Bureau of Statistics, Canada Year Book 1956, (Ottawa: Queen's Printer and Controller of Stationery, 1956) Table 17 "Countries of Birth of the Population, Census Years 1931, 1941 and 1951", p. 166.



TABLE 10

DISTRIBUTION OF PARENTS OF 71 STUDENTS  
ACCORDING TO EDUCATIONAL ACHIEVEMENT

| Education <sup>a</sup> | Distribution of Parents |         |                     |         |
|------------------------|-------------------------|---------|---------------------|---------|
|                        | Father <sup>b</sup>     |         | Mother <sup>c</sup> |         |
|                        | Number                  | Percent | Number              | Percent |
| Total                  | 76                      | 100     | 74                  | 100     |
| Elementary             | 4                       | 5       | 4                   | 5       |
| High School            | 30                      | 40      | 39                  | 53      |
| University             | 39                      | 51      | 28                  | 38      |
| Other: Nurse           | 0                       | 0       | 1                   | 1       |
| Unknown                | 3                       | 4       | 2                   | 3       |

<sup>a</sup> Education here refers to the educational level attained, i.e. some parents classified under university have only completed 2 years whereas other parents in the same category have completed 4 years.

<sup>b</sup> Father includes the 5 step-fathers and 13 fathers who are deceased.

<sup>c</sup> Mother includes the 3 step-mothers and 3 mothers who are deceased.

A study of this table indicates that 39 (or 51 percent) of the 76 fathers have attended university for 1 to 4 years and that 30 fathers (or 40 percent) have completed 1 to 4 years high school. The picture is reversed for the mothers. Thirty-nine (or 53 percent) out of the total 74 mothers have completed 1 to 4 years high school and 28 (or 38 percent) attended university for 1 to 4 years. An equal number of mothers and fathers, 4, have only an elementary school education.

It was to be expected that the majority of the fathers of the students would be university trained and that the majority of their mothers would only have a high school education. As is discussed later in this section,<sup>1</sup> 42 of the 71 fathers earned \$10,000 and over and 67 were either professionals or businessmen. Their earning capacity and occupations would, nowadays, usually require a university education. The mothers received their education at a time when comparatively few women were employed after marriage and they consequently did not pursue their studies beyond high school. In addition to the forementioned circumstance, they were probably unaware of the need to prepare themselves for future employment. As is suggested later in this section,<sup>2</sup> this will probably not be so in the future.

Approximately 62 percent of the mothers do not have any university education whereas all their daughters do. The question is why are so many of their daughters at college? The answer is to be found in the emancipation of women and the fact that some of

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<sup>1</sup>Infra, p. 74.

<sup>2</sup>John R. Seeley, R. Alexander Sim, Elizabeth W. Loosley, Crestwood Heights (Canada: University of Toronto Press, 1956), p. 143.

the parents are unable to afford a university education for their children which they were themselves deprived of because of inadequate financial resources. According to a Canadian study of a representative North American suburb fictitiously known as Crestwood Heights, due to

the measure of equality now prevailing, the girl passes through her early years in an environment which integrates her sufficiently into the male world to permit her, if circumstances and character so demand, to enter into the vocational world traditionally occupied by the male, and to pursue a career similar to, but not identical with, that of the male.<sup>1</sup>

This study states that:

nowhere is the transience of social norms and roles more evident than in the career of the women in Crestwood Heights. Before marriage, the Crestwood girl usually has a job. She has realized one of the goals set before her, that of finding a useful place in society and of being able to look after her own financial needs. Matrimony and more emphatically, motherhood, represents another set of goals, much more deeply rooted in society - and these are in conflict with the vocational goal. ...the woman must pursue two goals and integrate them into one.<sup>2</sup>

If a girl is to achieve her occupational goal as indicated above, it is, therefore, desirable for her to obtain a university education. Even if she marries directly after graduating from university, her education is considered as a security in case she should ever need to earn her living. Viewed from a social point of view, a university education is an asset for a girl today and frequently both mother and father, therefore, encourage their daughter to obtain it. For example, the parents of one of the students were both only high school graduates. They encouraged their daughter to attend university.

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<sup>1</sup> Ibid.

<sup>2</sup> Ibid., p. 139.

Following graduation she was considering becoming a teacher, but her mother especially discouraged this occupation because she thought her daughter would not make any useful social contacts while working in a school and would possibly even end up an "old-maid." They, therefore, encouraged her to apply for a job at the United Nations where her university degree would enable her to obtain a job among "interesting people." It would seem that these parents were ambitious for their daughter to ascend "the higher reaches of the social structure"<sup>1</sup> by taking advantage of the opportunities ensuing from a university education. An American study of a Middle Western Corn Belt community - Elmtown - points out that the current product of the American ideology

is a class system which provides persons in the higher reaches of the social structure greater opportunities to gain and enjoy the benefits of our culture than it does persons on the lower levels. Finally, we must voice the conclusion that this class system is far more vital as a social force in our society than the American creed.<sup>2</sup>

A university education can possibly provide an in-road to a higher social class.

#### 4. Income

Since formal training is a prerequisite for participation in many occupations the family's economic status is a major consideration in occupational selection. The parental income level of the students in the sample has already been discussed in relation to their occupational planning level.<sup>3</sup> The distribution of the paternal income level

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<sup>1</sup>August B. Hollingshead, Elmtown's Youth, The Impact of Social Classes on Adolescents (N.Y.: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1949) p. 452.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

<sup>3</sup>Supra. Table 7 and related discussion pp. 60-61

will now be shown in Table 11. It is to be noted that the students mothers income is not described as in almost every case the fathers income was the main determinant of the family income. In three cases, however, the income level represents the combined earnings of mother and father.

TABLE 11  
DISTRIBUTION OF INCOME LEVEL  
OF FATHERS OF 71 STUDENTS

| Income Level <sup>a</sup> | Father <sup>b</sup> |         |
|---------------------------|---------------------|---------|
|                           | Number              | Percent |
| Total                     | 71                  | 100     |
| \$10,000 and over         | 42                  | 59      |
| \$ 5,000 and over         | 16                  | 23      |
| Under \$5,000             | 8                   | 11      |
| Not known                 | 5                   | 7       |

<sup>a</sup>Income level of fathers includes "fathers estates" in 6 cases where father is dead, and in 1 case the combined income of the mother and father.

<sup>b</sup>"Father" includes only natural fathers.

It can be seen from Table 11 that at least 58 (or 82 percent) of the subjects come from families whose income level is \$5,000 or higher. Over one half (or 59 percent) of the subjects' fathers have a yearly income of \$10,000 or higher. In terms of the 1957 cost of

living index, \$10,000 is considered as a high average income. Only 8 of the 71 fathers have an income under \$5,000. It would seem, therefore, that the majority of the 71 subjects in the sample come from financially adequate families. This implies that they are relatively free to choose an occupation at their leisure without feeling immediate pressure to do so because of monetary need. Because of this they are perhaps less likely than students in a lower income group to select jobs for which they are ill-suited. On the other hand they are perhaps apt to delay their occupational decisions for a longer period than students from lower financial groups, since they are under less pressure to make a decision.

It was noted in the 1956 study<sup>1</sup> that the majority of the subjects came from families in the upper economic bracket. It would seem that this is also true of students in this sample. The total implications for these students of their economic background appears to be that: (1) they are under less pressure to formulate occupational plans than students in the lower economic groups; (2) they have more freedom to choose an occupation in which they are really interested; (3) they are more likely to attend university and to do graduate study if they wish. (4) Because of their families socio-economic status they probably have more opportunities to know what is available in the world of work and to secure the most desirable positions.

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<sup>1</sup> Cumas et al, op. cit., p. 57.

### 5. Occupation

As stated in Chapter 2, not infrequently the children follow the occupation of their parents. This has been observed most frequently in the case of sons, but due to the increasing involvement of women in the labor field the same trend may become apparent for daughters. On this account it is of interest to ascertain the occupations of the parents of the student group. Table 12 lists the fathers occupations and the incidence of these occupations in the sample. The job descriptions were given by the subjects and may or may not be accurate.

TABLE 12  
FREQUENCY OF OCCUPATIONS  
OF FATHERS OF 71 STUDENTS

| Occupation           | Number of<br>Fathers |
|----------------------|----------------------|
| Total                | 71                   |
| Professional:        |                      |
| Doctor               | 3                    |
| Lawyer               | 2                    |
| Architect            | 1                    |
| Engineer             | 5                    |
| Chartered accountant | 5                    |
| Merchant marine      | 1                    |
| Professor            | 1                    |
| School principal     | 1                    |
| Teacher              | 2                    |
| Newspaper man        | 2                    |

TABLE 12 (cont'd.)

| Occupation                   | Number of<br>Fathers |
|------------------------------|----------------------|
| Professional (cont'd.)       |                      |
| Printer                      | 1                    |
| Sheriff                      | 1                    |
| Bookkeeper                   | 1                    |
| Total                        | 26                   |
| Business:                    |                      |
| Manufacturer                 | 4                    |
| Company (or companies) owner | 8                    |
| Personnel manager            | 1                    |
| Investment broker            | 6                    |
| Sales promoter               | 1                    |
| Retailer                     | 1                    |
| Banker                       | 4                    |
| Department manager           | 1                    |
| Merchant                     | 1                    |
| Real estate manager          | 1                    |
| Real estate agent            | 1                    |
| Salesman                     | 4                    |
| Insurance investor           | 1                    |
| Grocer                       | 1                    |



TABLE 12 (cont'd.)

| Occupation                                  | Number of<br>Fathers |
|---|----------------------|
| Business (cont'd.)                          |                      |
| Food broker                                 | 1                    |
| Tobacco jobber                              | 1                    |
| President of clothing manufacturing<br>firm | 1                    |
| Executive in paper company                  | 1                    |
| Meat packer                                 | 1                    |
| Advertising executive                       | 1                    |
| Total                                       | 41                   |
| Clerical:                                   |                      |
| Ocean traffic clerk                         | 1                    |
| Total                                       | 1                    |
| Labor:                                      |                      |
| Dress presser                               | 1                    |
| Supervisor in steel plant                   | 1                    |
| Foreman for electrical lines                | 1                    |
| Total                                       | 3                    |

Forty-one of the 71 fathers are in the business group, 26 are professionals, 4 are laborers and 1 is in the clerical group. Considering that 59 of the 71 fathers have incomes of \$10,000 and over, it is understandable that the majority are in the business and professional groups. The fathers occupations undoubtedly afford them a variety of business and social contacts which provide them with information helpful for their daughters occupational planning. Also since "job opportunities are strongly associated with the class position of the applicant"<sup>1</sup>, the fathers positions may be an asset for their children.

Only 9 of the 71 mothers are employed on a remunerative basis outside their own home. The occupations of these 9 mothers were as in the case of the fathers occupations given by the students and are as follows: teacher (2), assistant director of nurses residence, gift shop owner, music teacher, secretary, clerical work, bookkeeper, landlady of boarding house. Their income level ranges from less than \$2,000 to over \$10,000 with the mean at approximately \$6,000.<sup>2</sup> Five of these mothers are married, 2 are widowed, and 2 divorced of whom one is remarried. Only 2 of the mothers are in the \$10,000 and over income level and it would appear that at least in the 7 other cases they work because of financial need.

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<sup>1</sup>August B. Hollingshead, Elmstown's Youth, op. cit., p. 281.

<sup>2</sup>In 4 cases the income level estimates are based on the income of mother and father combined since the students did not give their separate earnings.

### C. Siblings

As stated in the opening paragraph of this section,<sup>1</sup> since each individual in a family influences and is influenced by other members in that family, it is necessary to examine the characteristics of the siblings of the 71 subjects who comprise the sample. In this section the profile is given of the siblings according to sex, age, education, and occupation.

#### 1. Sex

The 71 subjects in the sample have a total of 91 siblings of whom 44 are masculine and 47 feminine.

#### 2. Age

At the time of the interview, the average age for the masculine siblings was 20 years and 22 years for the feminine siblings. The mean age of the sibling group at the time of the interview was 20 years. It is to be noted that the mean age of the sibling group is 1 year younger than the mean age of the subjects. This implies that the siblings would have less influence on the subjects occupational planning than if they had been older.

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<sup>1</sup>Supra, p. 64.

3. Education

Table 13 shows the siblings education.

TABLE 13  
EDUCATIONAL ACHIEVEMENT OF SIBLINGS  
OF 71 STUDENTS

| Education <sup>a</sup> | Siblings         |                 |       |
|------------------------|------------------|-----------------|-------|
|                        | Masculine<br>No. | Feminine<br>No. | Total |
| Total                  | 43 <sup>b</sup>  | 47              | 90    |
| Elementary             | 3                | 4               | 7     |
| High School            | 19               | 18              | 37    |
| University             | 21               | 20              | 41    |
| Others: nurse          |                  | 4               | 4     |
| teacher                |                  | 1               | 1     |

<sup>a</sup>Siblings who are still at school, those who left school before graduating, and those who have graduated are classed at the level at which they are at present or at the level they were at when they left school.

<sup>b</sup>One masculine sibling is left out as he is pre-school age.

It is to be noted that the subjects who had siblings in high school frequently remarked during the interview that these siblings would most likely be going on to university. As 41 of the 91 siblings are already university students, it appears that a university education will be obtained by each member of the family in most cases. This implies that there is a family pattern of university attendance when

the father attends university. Although it is not the purpose of this chapter to delineate influences on planning it is important to note that data in this chapter brings out the tendency of children of university graduates to attend university. This implies that the family members will usually obtain jobs commensurate with their educational level.

#### 4. Occupation

The occupation of a sibling may be an influence on a sister's occupational planning. Table 14 lists the occupations of the brothers and Table 15 lists the occupations of the sisters of the 71 subjects. The job description is in each case that given by the subject, and, therefore, may or may not be accurate.

TABLE 14  
OCCUPATION OF BROTHERS OF 71 STUDENTS

| Occupation                 | Number of Brothers <sup>a</sup> |
|----------------------------|---------------------------------|
| Total                      | 18                              |
| Chartered accountant       | 1                               |
| Engineer                   | 1                               |
| Lawyer                     | 2                               |
| Teacher                    | 1                               |
| Psychiatric social worker  | 1                               |
| Printer                    | 1                               |
| President of firm          | 1                               |
| Production manager         | 1                               |
| Salesman                   | 4                               |
| Wireless operator          | 1                               |
| Bell Telephone installator | 1                               |
| Dog breeder                | 1                               |
| Dairy owner                | 1                               |

<sup>a</sup> Step and half brothers are excluded as it was not possible to obtain information on their occupations in every case. Twenty-five brothers are excluded because they are students, and one brother is excluded because he is a baby.

It is interesting that there are 5 professions represented among the brothers of the subjects, only 1 laborer, and no clerical workers. It can be seen that the occupations are on the whole those for which a younger person usually requires an upper socio-economic background and/or higher education. This is further evidence that the subjects are on the whole from financially comfortable homes.

TABLE 15  
OCCUPATION OF SISTERS OF 71 STUDENTS

| Occupation                            | Number of Sisters <sup>a</sup> |
|---------------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| Total                                 | 25                             |
| Lecturer                              | 1                              |
| Teacher                               | 1                              |
| Librarian                             | 2                              |
| Secretary                             | 1                              |
| Bookkeeper                            | 1                              |
| Nurse                                 | 3                              |
| Post office telegraph clerk           | 1                              |
| Clerical job                          | 2                              |
| Bell Telephone engineering department | 1                              |
| Bell Telephone Service representative | 1                              |
| Housewife                             | 11                             |

<sup>a</sup> Step and half sisters are excluded as it was not possible to obtain information on their occupations in every case. Twenty-two sisters are excluded because they are students.

It is to be noted that among the subjects sisters the 3 professions which are represented - teacher, librarian, and nurse - are professions which are considered suitable for the feminine sex. None of the group are engaged in manual service occupations such as waitress or maid.

The feminine siblings mean age is 22 years, or 1 year older than the mean age of the subjects. It is therefore likely that their occupations are representative of the types of occupations

the subjects will have in a year's time. It is also possible that their choice of occupations will in some cases influence their sisters occupational planning.

#### IV. Summary and Conclusions

The main characteristics of this group of 71 students will now be restated.

##### A. Degree Course

Only 9 students are taking honors subjects. Many of the others feel that they should have received more counselling from the university on the academic curriculums and implications thereof. They felt that they would have chosen an honors course instead of a pass course if they had realized the academic and occupational advantages of so doing.

##### B. Personal Characteristics

1. The students range in age from 19 to 30 years with the mean at 21 years.

2. Approximately three fourths of the students are native born. The three largest groups of foreign born students are those from the United States, Europe, and England respectively.

3. The majority of the students are Protestant, 38 percent are Jewish, and 6 percent are Roman Catholic.

4. Eleven of the 71 students are married, 17 have definite marriage plans, 9 have tentative marriage plans, and the remaining 34 students are interested in marriage. None of the students are widowed or divorced.



5. All but one of the students had work experience. Most of this experience was acquired during the summer. Twenty-seven students had sessional work experience, and only 3 had full-time work experience. As shown in the 1956 study,<sup>1</sup> it would appear that adolescents today obtain employment experience.

6. The number of job experiences acquired by a student ranges from 1 to 10 with an average of 4.

7. There is a wide variety in the types of work experience acquired by the students. Jobs with the highest frequency are those which are the commonest and the most easily obtainable by university students. They are in order of highest frequency: camp counselor and employee, clerk-typist, salesgirl, assistant librarian, waitress, and secretary.

8. Thirteen students have definite plans, 42 have tentative plans, and 16 have no plans.

9. The students occupational planning level seems to be related to their parents income level since there are no students without plans from families whose income is under \$4,000, and there appear to be no students with definite plans from families whose income is under \$5,000. University students from low income level families seem, therefore, to assure their future by making at least tentative occupational plans, but they may take longer to make definite plans than students from higher income level families because their family's socio-economic background is not as helpful in acquainting them with job opportunities for a university graduate.

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<sup>1</sup>Cumas et al, op. cit., p. 56

10. In spite of preoccupation with college studies and in most cases work, students have time for extra-curricular interests. All the students have more than 1 interest and the average number is 8. Musical and literary interests have the highest frequency among the subjects leisure time pursuits. Sports and dancing rank third and fourth.

### C. Family Characteristics

1. At the time of the research interview, all the subjects resided in Montreal, and most of them resided with their parents. Twenty-two students are temporarily separated from their families and residents at Royal Victoria College.

2. The average family in the sample consists of mother, father, and 2 children, one of whom is the student.

3. The mothers ages are just below that of the fathers as might be expected. The mothers ages range from 41 to 61 years with the mean at 50 years, and the fathers ages range from 42 to 70 years with the mean at 54 years.

4. The majority of parents are Canadian born. England, the United States, Poland, and Russia respectively were the countries where the remaining largest groups of parents were born.

5. The majority of fathers received from 1 to 4 years university training and the majority of mothers received from 1 to 4 years high school education. An equal number of mothers and fathers, 4, have an elementary school education.

6. It is to be noted that although nearly two thirds of the mothers had no university education whereas all their daughters have, the answer seems to be found in the emancipation of women and the fact that some of the families are able to afford a university education for their children which they were themselves deprived of because of inadequate financial resources.

7. The majority of the subjects come from families whose income is \$5,000 or higher per annum. Over one half of the subjects fathers, or 59 percent, have a yearly income of \$10,000 or higher.

8. Only 9 of the 71 mothers are employed on a remunerative basis outside their own homes. Their income level ranges from less than \$2,000 to over \$10,000 with the mean at approximately \$6,000. Only 2 of the mothers are in the \$10,000 and over income level, and it would appear that in the other 7 cases they work because of financial need.

9. The mean age of the siblings at the time of the interview was 20 years which is 1 year younger than the mean age of the subjects.

10. Since a university education is planned for each child in the subjects families, the occupations of siblings will usually be in keeping with the educational level.

11. Five of the subjects brothers are professionals, there is only 1 laborer, and there are no clerical workers. Most of them are employed in jobs for which a young person usually requires a comparatively high socio-economic background and/or higher education.

12. Among the feminine siblings the professions which are represented are those which are considered suitable for the feminine sex. None of the group are engaged in manual service operations. It is probable that the subjects will choose the same type of occupations.

In conclusion it can be stated that most of the 71 students in the sample felt a need for guidance from the university in selection of their curriculums. They felt that if they had realized the academic and occupational advantages of specialization they would have chosen an honors instead of a pass course which is not oriented toward any particular specialty or profession. Since university enrollment all over the continent will increase in the next few years due to the "war babies" the need for guidance will become even more pronounced than it is now.

The majority of the students are in the tentative plans category when they are only a few months from university graduation. This is probably due to the fact that the students stated their plans two or three months before their university course and in many cases had not yet received definite answers from their employers. Some were not able to decide definitely on a given occupation because they had marriage plans upon which

their occupational plans depended. Others had applied for a job because they wanted the security of knowing they could have definite employment but they were not decided as to whether they would take what they had found.

Although many of the students had no clear-cut occupational goals they all had marriage expectations. Since the students are pursuing a liberal arts course, should a small part of the course prepare them for the future role they all look forward to as homemakers?

INITIAL OCCUPATIONAL INTEREST AND  
AWARENESS OF NEED TO PLAN FOR POST GRADUATION  
EMPLOYMENT OF 71 WOMEN STUDENTS IN FOURTH  
YEAR OF B.A. DEGREE COURSE AT MCGILL  
UNIVERSITY 1956 - 1957

BY

Christine MacLellan

CHAPTER V  
INITIAL OCCUPATIONAL INTEREST AND  
AWARENESS OF NEED TO PLAN FOR POSTGRADUATION  
EMPLOYMENT OF 71 WOMEN STUDENTS IN FOURTH  
YEAR OF B.A. DEGREE COURSE AT MCGILL UNIVERSITY  
1956 - 1957

This chapter proposes to test the hypothesis that "There is a relationship between the point in the educational period when a student first becomes interested in a specific occupation and the point when she becomes aware of the need to plan for employment after graduation".

The data collected from the 71 students in the sample will be examined in order to indicate the validity of this hypothesis. In order to do this, it is necessary to obtain the answers to the following questions.

1. When in the educational period do students manifest initial interest in occupations?
2. At what point in the educational period do students become aware of the need to plan for postgraduation employment?

The content of the present chapter will be presented under the following headings.

1. Initial interest in occupations.
2. Awareness of need to plan for postgraduation employment.
3. Summary.
4. Conclusions.

### INITIAL INTERESTS IN OCCUPATIONS

In this section of the Chapter information is presented indicative of the answer to the first major question to be answered. Interest for purposes of this study is defined as a strong stimulus which motivates the student towards a concern or curiosity concerning a specific occupation.

Interest seems to be a prerequisite for the selection of an occupation and most studies agree that there is some correlation between a person's interests and occupational choice. Roe states that "Interests are of importance for occupational psychology because it has been found that occupations can be differentiated in these terms."<sup>1</sup>

Interests are not stagnant but seem to change over the years. As the person becomes more mature and gains more knowledge of occupations he tends to broaden his interests and to choose occupations on a more realistic basis. This is shown in Ginzberg's three stages of occupational choice already discussed in Chapter II.

#### Point of Initial Interest

According to TABLE 16 initial occupational interest was manifested by students in the sample at one of four points in the educational period.<sup>2</sup> These points are Pre-School, Elementary School, High School and University. For purposes of this study they are defined as follows.

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<sup>1</sup>Anne Roe, The Psychology of Occupations (New York, 1956), p. 83.

<sup>2</sup>For purposes of this study the educational period refers to the interval between commencement of the Pre-School period (3 to 5 years inclusive) and completion of an undergraduate degree course.



1. Pre-School - This period includes from early childhood to Elementary School.
2. Elementary School - This period commences with entrance to Elementary School and ends with graduation from it.
3. High School - This period commences upon graduation from Elementary School and terminates upon graduation from High School.
4. University - This period commences with commencement of an undergraduate degree course and terminates upon successful completion of it.

In TABLE 16 the points in the Educational period are shown at which the 71 students in the sample manifested initial occupational interest.

TABLE 16

POINT IN THE EDUCATIONAL PERIOD AT WHICH INITIAL  
INTEREST IN OCCUPATIONS WAS MANIFESTED BY 71 STUDENTS

| Point of Initial<br>Occupational Interest | Number of Students | Percent of Sample |
|---|--------------------|-------------------|
| Total                                     | 71                 | 100               |
| Pre-School                                | 8                  | 11                |
| Elementary School                         | 47                 | 66                |
| High School                               | 13                 | 19                |
| University                                | 3                  | 4                 |

TABLE 16 indicates that 60<sup>1</sup> (85 percent) of the 71 students manifested initial interest in occupations during the Elementary or High School period. Forty-seven or 66 percent of these 60 students first became interested in occupations while at Elementary School and 13 or 19 percent in High School. Eight of the 71 students in the sample manifested initial interest as early as the Pre-School period. Three stated that they first became interested while at University. These findings agree with the findings of the 1956<sup>1</sup> study which showed that the majority of students who participated in that study had their initial interests during the Elementary or High School period.

As already indicated only 3 students in the present study reported initial interest as late as the University period. It is of interest to examine the familial background of these 3 students with a view to delineating some of the circumstances that may have contributed to initial interest in occupations at a much later point in the educational period than most students in the sample. Examination of the interview content shows that the families of all 3 students are in the income bracket of \$10,000 per annum and over. This may be suggestive of a tendency on the part of students in high income families to manifest initial occupational interest later than students not so well-endowed from an economic standpoint. Two of the students are members

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<sup>1</sup> Steve Cumas, Gwen Bersch, Holly Ogryzlo, Phyllis Cumas, Mark Dranov and Sophie Goldfarb. "Planning for Post-Graduation Employment". Unpublished MSW group thesis, McGill University, October, 1956, p.96.

of the Jewish religion and the third professed the Protestant faith. One of the two Jewish students had definite plans for marriage and the second tentative plans. The student who belonged to the Protestant faith had no plans. In all three cases, there appears to be no relationship between point of initial occupational interest and parental occupations. If these 3 girls are compared with the 2 girls in the 1956 study<sup>1</sup> whose point of initial interest was at the University level the similarities are striking. The latter 2 girls were both from high income Jewish families. One was married and the other had marriage as her primary goal.

Since the forementioned evidence is derived from interviews with only 5 students it is probably unwise to speculate concerning the implications of these findings. However since this is an exploratory study any cues from the data should be noted. The present findings suggest that whether a person becomes interested in certain types of work and the point at which this occurs may be dependant upon the family's economic level and concept of women's role in modern society. A study designed to explore these relationships might well form the basis of future research.

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<sup>1</sup>

Ibid. pp.97 - 98

Point of Initial Occupational Interest and Familial Economic Level

Since the 3 students who stated that they manifested no interest in occupations prior to University level were in the \$10,000 and over economic group, it is of interest to ascertain for the sample what relationship there is between point of initial occupational interest and familial economic level. TABLE 17 will now be presented in order to determine the existence of this relationship.

TABLE 17

FAMILIAL ECONOMIC LEVEL RELATED TO POINT IN  
EDUCATIONAL PERIOD AT WHICH INITIAL OCCUPATIONAL  
INTEREST WAS MANIFESTED BY 71 STUDENTS

| Familial<br>Economic<br>Level Per<br>Annum | Total No. of<br>Students |         | Number and Percentage of Student at Points of<br>Initial Occupational Interest |              |                      |              |                |              |            |              |
|--|--------------------------|---------|--|--------------|----------------------|--------------|----------------|--------------|------------|--------------|
|  |                          |         | Pre-<br>School   |              | Elementary<br>School |              | High<br>School |              | University |              |
|  | Number                   | Percent | No.  | Per-<br>cent | No.                  | Per-<br>cent | No.            | Per-<br>cent | No.        | Per-<br>cent |
| Total                                      | 71                       | 100     | 8  | 11           | 47                   | 66           | 13             | 19           | 3          | 4            |
| \$10,000 and<br>over                       | 42                       | 100     | 4  | 10           | 27                   | 64           | 8              | 19           | 3          | 7            |
| \$5,000 to<br>\$9,999                      | 16                       | 100     | 1  | 6            | 11                   | 69           | 4              | 25           |            |              |
| Under<br>\$5,000                           | 8                        | 100     | 2  | 25           | 6                    | 75           |                |              |            |              |
| Unknown                                    | 5                        | 100     | 1  | 20           | 3                    | 60           | 1              | 20           |            |              |

As indicated in this table, the data collected from the sample show that in the economic bracket under \$5,000 all 8 students manifested initial interest prior to high school. In the \$5,000 to \$9,999 economic

group, all 16 students manifested initial interest prior to University. Of these 16 students 12 (75 percent) first became interested in occupations at the Pre-School or Elementary School level and 4 (25 percent) while at High School. Of the 42 students in the economic group of \$10,000 and over 31 (74 percent) manifested initial interest during the Pre-School or Elementary period, 8 (19 percent) in High School and 3 (7 percent) in University.

These findings agree with the 1956 study<sup>1</sup> which also showed that students in the higher economic groups manifested initial occupational interests later than those in the lower economic group. The 1956 study<sup>2</sup> also showed that the majority of students in the lower and middle economic brackets manifested initial interest at Elementary school whereas only a minority of students in the higher income bracket manifested initial interest during this same period.

Thus it would appear that generally there may be a tendency on the part of students who come from the higher economic groups to manifest occupational interests later than students in the lower income groups. This possibly could be attributed to the fact that because of the degree of security afforded by the home little pressure was brought to bear upon the students to become interested in occupations or in how other people earn a living.

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1

Ibid. p. 101

2

Ibid.

Point of Initial Occupational Interest and Occupational Planning Level<sup>1</sup>

The question may now be asked whether there is any relationship between the students' point of initial occupational interest and their occupational planning level at the time of the research interview. TABLE 18 is designed to show this relationship. As already stated in Chapter IV approximately 1/5 of the students in the sample had definite post-graduation employment plans. Slightly over 1/2 had tentative plans while approximately 1/4 had no plans.

TABLE 18

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN POINT IN EDUCATIONAL PERIOD OF INITIAL OCCUPATIONAL INTEREST AND OCCUPATIONAL PLANNING LEVEL OF 71 STUDENTS

| Point of Occupational Initial Interest | TOTAL  |         | Occupational Planning Level of Students |         |           |         |        |         |
|--|--------|---------|---|---------|-----------|---------|--------|---------|
|  | Number | Percent | Definite                                |         | Tentative |         | None   |         |
|  |        |         | Number                                  | Percent | Number    | Percent | Number | Percent |
| TOTAL                                  | 71     | 100     | 13                                      | 100     | 42        | 100     | 16     | 100     |
| Pre-School                             | 8      | 11      | -                                       | -       | 6         | 14      | 2      | 13      |
| Elementary School                      | 47     | 66      | 10                                      | 77      | 25        | 60      | 12     | 75      |
| High School                            | 13     | 19      | 2                                       | 15      | 10        | 24      | 1      | 6       |
| University                             | 3      | 4       | 1                                       | 8       | 1         | 2       | 1      | 6       |

<sup>1</sup>Supra p.58

TABLE 18 indicates that of the 8 students who displayed initial occupational interest during the Pre-School period none are in the Definite Plans group. Six had Tentative plans and 2 had "No Plans". This may possibly be explained by Eli Ginzberg<sup>1</sup> who in developing his theory on occupational choice pointed out that although occupational interests are expressed at a very early age, they are based on a wish to be grown up and are often unrealistic.

According to TABLE 18, 10 of the 13 students (77 percent) in the Definite Plans group stated that they became initially interested in occupations in Elementary School.

In the Tentative Plans group 25 (60 percent) of the 42 students expressed initial interest in Elementary School.

A comparison of the percentage of students in the Definite Plans group who manifested initial occupational interest during the Elementary, High School or University period with students in the Tentative Plans group who manifested initial interest at one of these points suggests that the earlier the manifestation of initial interests the higher the occupational planning level. However this deduction becomes invalid when it is perceived that the highest percentage of students in the "No Plans" group also manifested initial interest at Elementary School. That these students are without plans can possibly be explained by the

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<sup>1</sup>Eli Ginzberg, Sol. W. Ginsburg, Sidney Axelrad John L. Herma.  
Occupational Choice (New York, 1951), p. 186

fact that 7 of these 12 students belonged to families in the economic group of \$10,000 and over. Three of these 7 students have neither definite marriage plans nor are they married. This suggests that a high familial income may be one of the factors that retard planning in spite of relatively early interest in occupations. Another explanation is suggested by the fact that 6 of the 12 students in the "No Plans" group were either married or had definite plans for marriage. Ginzberg states that "for most women marriage, rather than a job forms the center of life".<sup>1</sup> Thus definite occupational plans may have been disrupted because of marriage plans. Since marriage appears to be the ultimate goal for most women it therefore takes precedence over occupational aspirations.

The hypothesis that early initial interest is associated with a high level of planning is not supported by evidence from the 3 students who manifested no apparent interest in occupations prior to their attendance at University for these 3 students are distributed in the three planning levels.

Generally therefore it can be stated that this study does not show that there is a relationship between manifestation of initial occupational interest early in the educational period and the formu-

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid. p. 42



lation of definite occupational plans. This is in disagreement with the 1956 study<sup>1</sup> which showed that students who had definite occupational plans had initial occupational interests earlier than students with less definite occupational plans.

Point of Initial Occupational Interest and Religious Denomination.

Thus far in this Chapter the relationship between point of initial occupational interest, familial economic status and the students' occupational planning level has been discussed. In view of the importance of religious values upon the behaviour of many individuals, TABLE 19 has been compiled to indicate what effect the students' religious belief may have had upon point of initial manifestation of occupational interests.

TABLE 19

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN POINT IN EDUCATIONAL PERIOD OF INITIAL OCCUPATIONAL INTEREST AND RELIGION OF 71 STUDENTS

| Point of Initial Occupational Interest | TOTAL |          | Distribution of Students |          |            |          |             |          |             |          |
|--|-------|----------|--------------------------|----------|------------|----------|-------------|----------|-------------|----------|
|  |       |          | Jewish                   |          | Protestant |          | Roman Catho |          | No Religion |          |
|  | No.   | Per-Cent | No.                      | Per-Cent | No.        | Per-Cent | No.         | Per-Cent | No.         | Per-Cent |
| TOTAL                                  | 71    | 100      | 26                       | 100      | 39         | 100      | 4           | 100      | 2           | 100      |
| Pre-School                             | 8     | 11       | 5                        | 19       | 3          | 8        |             |          |             |          |
| Elementary School                      | 47    | 66       | 14                       | 54       | 28         | 72       | 3           | 75       | 2           | 100      |
| High School                            | 13    | 19       | 5                        | 19       | 7          | 18       | 1           | 25       |             |          |
| University                             | 3     | 4        | 2                        | 8        | 1          | 2        |             |          |             |          |

<sup>1</sup> Cumas et al. op. cit., p.99

TABLE 19 shows that the 2 students with No Religious affiliation had initial occupational interests prior to High School.

It is to be noted that all or most of the students who specified that they belonged to a particular religion first became interested in the world of work prior to their attendance at University. Also to be noted is the fact that 2 of the 3 students who manifested no interest until they were at University are Jewish. It is of interest that in the 1956 study<sup>1</sup> the only students who manifested interest as late as the University period were also Jewish. These observations could be indicative of a relationship between the timing of initial interest in occupations and religious affiliation. In consideration of the small number of students involved the possibility of such a trend could be interpreted by the reader as mere speculation on the part of the writer. However as already stated elsewhere in this chapter, since this is an exploratory study reference to cues suggestive of trends appears to be warranted.

#### Type of Initial Occupational Interests.

In the foregoing section of this Chapter information has been presented to indicate when students in the sample first expressed an interest in the world of work. The relationship has also been shown between the students' planning level, their economic status, religious affiliations and point of initial manifestation of occupational interest. The occupational interests expressed at points of initial interest will now be described.

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid p. 101.

TABLE 20 indicates the interests expressed by the group at point of initial interest. It is to be noted that the job descriptions listed in this table are those given by the student during the research interview. Where more than one job was given both are listed.

TABLE 20

STUDENTS OCCUPATIONAL INTERESTS AT POINT OF INITIAL MANIFESTATION IN THE EDUCATIONAL PERIOD

| Occupational Interests at Point of Initial Manifestation during the Educational Period  |  |   |   |
|---|--|---|---|
| Pre-School  | Elementary Sch.  | High School   | University  |
| Artist (1)*<br>Explorer (1)<br>Housewife (2)<br>Nurse (1)<br>Policewoman (1)<br>Skier (1)<br>Stewardess (1)<br>Teacher (1)<br>Violinist (1) | Artist (1)<br><br>Housewife (1)<br>Nurse (9)<br><br>Stewardess (1)<br>Teacher (12)<br><br>Actress (4)<br>Architect (1)<br>Arts & Crafts (1)<br><br>Dancer (5)<br>Doctor (2)<br>Lawyer (1)<br>Physicist (1)<br>Piano Player (3)<br><br>Singer (2)<br>Skater (2)<br>Veterinarian (2)<br><br>Writer (2) | <br><br><br><br><br>Stewardess (1)<br>Teacher (2)<br><br>Actress (1)<br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br>Advertising (1)<br>Fine Arts (1)<br>Fund Raising (1)<br><br>International Relations(1)<br>Physical Education (1)<br>Physio Therapy (2)<br>Pilot (1)<br>Secretarial(1)<br>Social Work(1) | <br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br>Writer (1)<br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br>International Relations(1)<br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br>Interpreter (1) |

\* Figures in parentheses indicate number of students who expressed this particular interest.

TABLE 20 shows that among the students who manifested initial occupational interests during the Pre-School and Elementary School periods, the tendency was to choose occupations that would indicate a wish for glamor, adventure, or generally those occupations which they considered exciting or pleasurable. Ginzberg states when speaking of the fantasy stage in the occupational choice period

Certain adult activities appear pleasurable to them, and they know that certain occupations enable one to engage in these activities. Hence they choose the occupation which permits an activity that seems attractive at the moment.<sup>1</sup>

The students who first became interested in occupations while at High School and University undoubtedly possessed a broader knowledge of the working world. Such knowledge is reflected by reference to occupations of a more realistic nature.

"Interests come from experience, they are learned".<sup>2</sup>  
An interest in a specific occupation implies some knowledge or contact with it. In the Pre-School period, children have little opportunity to acquire this knowledge except through their family, through stories, the radio and their own observations. One could expect therefore that interests

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Ginzberg et al, op.cit., p.63

2

G. Frederic Kuder. Discovering Your Real Interest  
(Chicago 1949) p. 6.

reported for the Pre-School period such as explorer, policewoman, skier, violinist would not be mentioned at a later point in the educational period.

During the Elementary School period children acquire increased knowledge of occupations as is shown by the fact that 12 new interests appear in TABLE 20. They are actress, architect, arts and crafts, dancer, doctor, lawyer, physicist, piano player, singer, skater, veterinarian and writer.

Some of these occupations are possibly unrealistic since the student as a child may not have had any direct contact with individuals or activities undertaken in the areas mentioned. As indicated in Chapter II Ginzberg refers to the early part of the Elementary School period (5 to 9 years) as the fantasy stage in the process of occupational selection. On this account one could expect the Elementary School child to express interest in occupations on the basis of very little information concerning them.

It is to be noted that what appear to be unrealistic choices (e.g. explorer, skier) in the Pre-School period are not cited again in the Elementary School period. Interests that reappear in the Elementary period are housewife, nurse, stewardess and teacher.

The initial interests expressed during the High School period again suggests an ever widening knowledge of occupations. Nine new interests appear, namely, advertising, fine arts, fund raising, international relations, physical education, physio-therapy, pilot, secretary and social worker. Here again, in terms of the sex of the students, availability of employment and the training required most of the choices listed during the High School period appear to be more realistic than those listed in the Elementary period. Stephenson states that "To be realistic in the sense of conformity with the actual occupational structure is to be "unrealistic" in terms of the value system held out to American youth".<sup>1</sup> Again some of the seemingly unrealistic interests in the Elementary period are not mentioned in the High School period. Ginzberg in speaking of the tentative stage in occupational choice states "The young person is learning more about himself and reality, and part of the maturing process is his increasing ability to consider simultaneously his desires and reality".<sup>2</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> Richard M. Stephenson. Realism of Vocational Choice, - "A Critique and An Example", The Personnel and Guidance Journal, vol. 35, No. 8 (April 1957) p. 483

<sup>2</sup> Ginzberg et al. op.cit., p. 73

As already stated, only 3 students in the sample manifested initial interest as late as the University period. Their interests as stated in TABLE 20 are writer, international relations and interpreter. The only interest in this period that had not been mentioned at a previous period is that of interpreter. This could indicate that although students are aware of a number of occupations by the end of High School there are still some of which they become aware during the University period or later. These choices could be realistic ones. Ginzberg in speaking of the realistic stage in occupational selection states that it is "the time when the individual is able to assess the multitude of factors influencing the occupational choice which he has had under consideration, and is finally able to commit himself."<sup>1</sup>

Generally then, according to TABLE 20, there would seem to be some relationship between chronological age and the point in the educational period when initial interest in occupations is manifested and the type of work in which an interest is expressed. This is possibly due to the fact that as a person matures a greater knowledge of the working world accumulates and as a result interests are more realistic. Therefore it is conceivable that a person could manifest initial interest in occupations during the University period and that the expressed interests could be realistic. This would disagree with Ginzberg's theory that occupational selection depends on a series of decisions made over the years.<sup>2</sup> However there are two points which should be remembered. One is that the students in recalling interests have probably overlooked some, and the time in the educational period where they placed their

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid p. 95

<sup>2</sup>Ibid p. 185



expressed interests may not be accurate. A second point is that in the recall process particularly students at the High School and University level may have failed to distinguish between aspirations and plans. Relevant to this Stephenson states

Students distinguish aspirations from plans. Their plans more nearly reflect the occupational structure than their aspirations. This suggests the necessity of differentiating plans and aspirations in studies concerned with youth's vocational orientation and is particularly pertinent in assessing degree of realism of choice.

#### INITIAL AWARENESS OF NEED TO PLAN FOR POST-GRADUATION EMPLOYMENT

The previous section dealt with point of initial occupational interest. In this section, point of initial awareness of the need to plan for postgraduation employment will be investigated and related to the findings of the previous section.

Awareness for purposes of this study is defined as consciousness of a need to initiate action towards the attainment of an occupational goal.

##### Point of Initial Awareness.

Analysis of the interview content indicates that students in the sample became aware of the need to plan for postgraduation employment at various times during the educational period. Caplow states

The principal device for the limitation of occupational choice is the educational system. It does this in two ways: first by forcing the student who embarks upon a long course of training to renounce other careers which also require extensive training: second by excluding from training and eventually from the occupations themselves those students who lack either the intellectual qualities (such as intelligence, docility, aptitude) or the social characteristics (such as ethnic background, wealth, appropriate conduct, previous education) which happens to be required.<sup>2</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Stephenson. op.cit. p. 484

<sup>2</sup>Theodore Caplow. The Sociology of Work (Minneapolis, 1954) p. 216

The point in the educational period and the number of students who manifested awareness at each of these points are shown in TABLE 21.

TABLE 21

POINTS DURING THE EDUCATIONAL PERIOD WHERE 71 STUDENTS BECAME AWARE OF THE NEED TO PLAN FOR POSTGRADUATION EMPLOYMENT

| Point of Initial Awareness of Need to Plan | Students |         |
|--|----------|---------|
|  | Number   | Percent |
| TOTAL                                      | 71       | 100     |
| Pre-School                                 | 2        | 3       |
| Elementary School                          | 2        | 3       |
| High School                                | 8        | 11      |
| University                                 | 49       | 69      |
| Other <sup>a</sup>                         | 2        | 3       |
| Unaware of need to plan                    | 8        | 11      |

<sup>a</sup>Both these students became aware of the need to plan after graduation from High School or between High School and University, - One through teaching and the other through illness.

According to TABLE 21 all but 8 of the 71 students became aware of the need to plan for postgraduation employment prior to graduation from University. To be noted is the fact that 49 of the 71 students became aware while attending University and only 8 during the High School period.

Four of the 8 students who at the time of the research interview were still unaware of any need to formulate plans for their future employment are married or have definite marriage plans. Five of these 8 students are in the economic group of \$10,000 and over per annum and

2 of the 5 are neither married nor have definite plans for marriage. Of the 8 girls there are only 2 in the economic bracket under \$10,000 who are neither married nor have definite plans for marriage. Thus there may be a tendency for a high familial income and marriage or marriage plans to deter awareness of the need to plan. As already indicated in a previous section of this chapter students from high income families also tend to manifest initial occupational interests at a later point in the educational period than students in the lower income groups.

In the 1956 study<sup>1</sup> which was based on a sample of 60 B.Sc. (P.& O.T.) B.Sc., B.Com. and B.A. degree students, approximately 3/4 became aware of the need to plan during High School or University as compared with 4/5 of the 71 students in the present study which concerns only B.A. degree students. The two studies are in agreement in that the majority of the students in both studies became initially aware of the need to plan during either High School or University. When only the B.A. group in the 1956 study<sup>2</sup> is considered, it is to be noted that approximately 1/2 of the students had initial awareness at University as compared with 2/3 in the present study. Here again there is agreement between the findings of the two studies. Thus the findings of both the 1956 and the 1957 studies suggest that vocational counseling could be used to advantage by students during their undergraduate period.

Point of Initial Awareness as Related to Initial Occupational Interest.

The question may now be raised as to whether there is any relationship between the point of the students' initial manifestation of occupational interests and point of initial awareness of the need

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<sup>1</sup>Cumas et al. op.cit., p.109

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

to plan for future employment. TABLE 22 has been designed to indicate whether this relationship exists.

TABLE 22

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN POINT IN EDUCATIONAL PERIOD OF INITIAL OCCUPATIONAL INTEREST OF 71 STUDENTS AND POINT OF AWARENESS OF NEED TO PLAN FOR POSTGRADUATION EMPLOYMENT.

| Initial Point of Occupational Interest | TOTAL | Distribution of Students at Points of Awareness |            |             |            |                    |        |
|--|-------|---|------------|-------------|------------|--------------------|--------|
|  |       | Pre-School                                      | Elementary | High School | University | Other <sup>a</sup> | None   |
|  |       | Number  | Number     | Number      | Number     | Number             | Number |
| Total Number of Students               | 71    | 2   | 2          | 8           | 49         | 2                  | 8      |
| Pre-School                             | 8     | 1   |            |             | 4          | 1                  | 2      |
| Elementary                             | 47    | 1   | 2          | 5           | 33         | 1                  | 5      |
| High School                            | 13    |   |            | 3           | 9          |                    | 1      |
| University                             | 3     |   |            |             | 3          |                    |        |

<sup>a</sup>Both these students became aware of the need to plan after graduation from High School or between High School and University, one through teaching and the other through illness.

It has already been shown in TABLE 16 that the majority (47) of the 71 students first became interested in occupations while they were attending Elementary school. According to TABLE 22, 33 of the 47 students who manifested initial interest at this point first experienced the need to plan while at University.

The next most important group consists of 13 who showed initial occupational interests in High School. Of these 13 students 9 became aware of the need to plan at University, 3 in High School and 1 was not aware of this need to plan even at the time of the research interview.

The 8 students who had no awareness and the 2 students in the "other" category have already been discussed in relation to TABLE 21.

As is indicated in TABLE 22 well over half of the sample (69 percent) had their initial awareness at University. Thus regardless of when in the educational period they first manifested initial occupational interest over half of the 71 students first became aware of the need to plan while at University. According to the present findings it would appear that there is not a close relationship between the time when a student becomes initially interested in occupations, and the time when she first becomes aware of the need to formulate postgraduation employment plans.

It is possible that informal discussions during the Elementary School period concerning various occupations and vocational guidance during the High School period would make students more conscious of work opportunities and of the need to plan.

#### Point of Initial Awareness, as Related to Family Income.

At this point the question may be asked as to whether there is any relationship between family income and the point in the educational period when the student becomes aware of the need to plan for her future career. TABLE 23 will attempt to answer this question.

TABLE 23

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FAMILIAL ECONOMIC LEVEL AND POINT  
IN THE EDUCATIONAL PERIOD WHEN STUDENTS BECOME AWARE  
OF THE NEED TO FORMULATE POSTGRADUATION EMPLOYMENT PLANS

| Familial<br>Economic<br>Level per<br>Annum | TOTAL |         | Distribution of Students at Points of Awareness |         |                        |         |                |         |                 |         |       |         |      |         |
|--|-------|---------|---|---------|------------------------|---------|----------------|---------|-----------------|---------|-------|---------|------|---------|
|  |       |         | Pre-School                                      |         | Elemen-<br>tary School |         | High<br>School |         | Univer-<br>sity |         | Other |         | None |         |
|  | No.   | Percent | No.   | Percent | No.                    | Percent | No.            | Percent | No.             | Percent | No.   | Percent | No.  | Percent |
| TOTAL                                      | 71    | 100     | 2   | 3       | 2                      | 3       | 8              | 11      | 49              | 69      | 2     | 3       | 8    | 11      |
| \$10,000<br>and over                       | 42    | 100     | 1   | 2       | 2                      | 5       | 5              | 12      | 29              | 69      |       |         | 5    | 12      |
| \$5,000 to<br>\$9,999                      | 16    | 100     | 1   | 6       |                        |         | 3              | 19      | 10              | 62      |       |         | 2    | 13      |
| Under<br>\$5,000                           | 8     | 100     |   |         |                        |         |                |         | 5               | 62      | 2     | 25      | 1    | 13      |
| Unknown                                    | 5     | 100     |   |         |                        |         |                |         | 5               | 100     |       |         |      |         |

TABLE 23 indicates that there is a tendency for students in the higher economic brackets to become aware later of the need to plan for an occupation than students in the lower economic brackets.

The Pre-School, Elementary, High School and "Other" categories together show that in the \$10,000 and over economic bracket 19 percent of the students became aware of the need to plan for an occupation before reaching University. This when compared to the 25 percent shown in both the lower income brackets of \$5,000 to \$9,999 and under \$5,000 would indicate that a higher percentage of the students in the lower income bracket had earlier initial awareness than those in the higher income brackets.

TABLE 23 shows that over 60 percent of the students in each economic bracket mentioned had initial awareness in University. This suggests that there is not much relationship between the economic bracket of the families concerned and manifestation of initial awareness late in the educational period. However in the \$10,000 and over group 69 percent manifested initial awareness at University as compared to 62 percent in the economic groups of \$5,000 to \$9,999 and under \$5,000 respectively. Thus there is a 7 percent difference between the highest and the two lower economic brackets.

Seven of the 8 students in the "no awareness" group are in the higher economic brackets.

If this study is compared with the 1956 study<sup>1</sup> the results are somewhat similar. In the 1956 study which comprised the degree courses B.A., B.Sc., B.Sc. (P. & O.T.) and B.Com., 1/2 of the students in the upper income bracket were aware of the need to plan before University as compared to approximately 1/5 in the present study. In the 1956 study<sup>2</sup> 4/5 of the students in the lower and middle income brackets combined manifested initial awareness before University as compared with 1/2 in the present study. Thus in both studies, the students in the higher income bracket became aware of the need to plan somewhat later than students who were in the middle and lower income brackets.

Generally, then, there seems to be some relationship between family income level and initial point of awareness. This may be due to more pressure in low income families to gain social status and also to become financially independent.

#### Point of Initial Awareness as Related to Planning Level.

Since this study is concerned with the occupational plans of the students subsequent to graduation from University, it is of interest to explore whether there is any relationship between the point at which they first experienced a need to formulate occupational plans and their actual planning level at the time of the research interview. In order to determine the existence of this relationship TABLE 24 will now be presented.

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid. p. 114

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.



TABLE 24

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN POINT IN EDUCATIONAL PERIOD OF INITIAL AWARENESS OF NEED TO PLAN FOR POSTGRADUATION EMPLOYMENT AND OCCUPATIONAL PLANNING LEVEL OF 71 STUDENTS

| Point of Initial Awareness of Need to Plan | TOTAL  |         | Number of Students at Each Planning Level |         |           |         |          |         |
|--|--------|---------|---|---------|-----------|---------|----------|---------|
|  |        |         | Definite                                  |         | Tentative |         | No Plans |         |
|  | Number | Percent | Number                                    | Percent | Number    | Percent | Number   | Percent |
| TOTAL                                      | 71     | 100     | 13  | 100     | 42        | 100     | 16       | 100     |
| Pre-School                                 | 2      | 3       | 1   | 8       | 1         | 2       |          |         |
| Elementary School                          | 2      | 3       |   |         | 1         | 2       | 1        | 6       |
| High School                                | 8      | 11      |   |         | 5         | 12      | 3        | 18      |
| University                                 | 49     | 69      | 12  | 92      | 31        | 74      | 6        | 38      |
| Other <sup>a</sup>                         | 2      | 3       |   |         | 2         | 5       |          |         |
| None                                       | 8      | 11      |   |         | 2         | 5       | 6        | 38      |

<sup>a</sup>Both these students became aware of the need to plan after graduation from High School or between High School and University one through teaching and the other through illness.

As already indicated in Chapter III, the research interview was conducted towards the middle of the second term of the session. Even at this point 6 students had not yet become aware of any need to formulate postgraduation employment plans. Analysis of the interview content does not suggest that lack of awareness in these students of the need to plan can be attributed to religious affiliation, economic status or plans for marriage.

As already indicated elsewhere in this Chapter 55 of the 71 students had either Definite or Tentative occupational plans. From TABLE 24, 43 of the 49 students who became aware of the need to plan while at University had Definite or Tentative plans. Among these 43 students there was a greater proportion with Definite than Tentative plans.

The family income of all 6 students who became aware of the need to plan while at University and who still were without plans at the time of the research interview was \$10,000 and over. Also to be noted is that 1 of the 6 was married and 3 others had definite plans for marriage.

This trend is contrary to what one might expect. It could be expected that students in the high income bracket

might never experience any need to plan and consequently be without plans. Since the 6 students already referred to were aware of the need to plan they may have been diverted from planning because of financial security provided by the family and/or by marriage expectations.

Occupational Interests at Point of Awareness of Need to Plan for Postgraduation Employment.

Thus far in this Chapter the point in the educational period when the students first experienced the necessity to plan for their future have been shown and discussed in relation to the students point of initial interest in occupations, familial economic status and occupational planning level. The students' occupational interests at the point in the educational period when they first recognized the need to make occupational plans will now be discussed. Occupational interests reported by the students at this time are shown in TABLE 25.

TABLE 25

STUDENTS' OCCUPATIONAL INTERESTS AT POINT IN EDUCATION PERIOD OF INITIAL AWARENESS OF NEED TO  
PLAN FOR POSTGRADUATION EMPLOYMENT

Occupational Interest at Point of Initial Awareness of Need to Plan for Postgraduation Employment

| Pre School         | Elementary School        | High School  | University  | Other       | None        |
|--------------------|--------------------------|--|---|-------------|-------------|
| Any occupation (2) | Nurse (1)<br>Teacher (1) | Actress (2)<br>Civil Service (1)<br>Interpreter (1)<br>Librarian (1)<br>Physical Education (1)<br>Physio Therapy (1)<br>Psychology (1)<br>Writer (1) | Any occupation (2)<br>Teacher (9)<br><br>Civil Service (1)<br>Interpreter (1)<br>Librarian (2)<br>Physical Education (1)<br>Physio Therapy (2)<br>Psychology (2)<br>Writer (1)<br>Administration (1)<br>Advertising (3) | Teacher (2) | Teacher (1) |

TABLE 25 continued

| Pre School | Elementary School | High School | University   | Other | None |
|------------|-------------------|-------------|--|-------|------|
|            |                   |             | Artist (1)<br>Arts & Crafts (1)<br>Bookkeeper (1)<br>Book Store Clerk (1)<br>Diplomatic Service(5)<br>Fund Raising (1)<br>International Relations(1)<br>Personnel (2)<br>Political Science (1)<br>Representative of<br>Office Equipment (1)<br>Retailing (1)<br>Script Girl (1)<br>Secretarial (1) |       |      |

TABLE 25 continued

| Pre School | Elementary School | High School | University   | Other | None |
|------------|-------------------|-------------|--|-------|------|
|            |                   |             | Sociologist (1)<br>Social Worker (8)<br>Spot Announcer (1)<br>Supervisor Bell<br>Telephone (1)<br>T.V.(1)<br>Traveling (1) |       |      |

■ Figures in parentheses indicate number of students who expressed this particular interest.

As already indicated in this Chapter most of the students became aware of the need to plan for their future careers while still at University. This is possibly to be expected since it is only when they are mature that individuals have sufficient knowledge of the working world and of themselves that they are able to make a realistic selection.

It is only when the period of conflict and tension comes to an end at about the age of seventeen or eighteen, when the individual has succeeded in channeling anew the manifold emotional pressures upon him, that he finally acquires a solid foundation with which to cope with the problems of adulthood. At this point he is ready to relinquish his earlier tentativeness and finally face the fact that he must make a definite choice.

TABLE 25 shows that as early as the Pre-School period 2 students claim that they became conscious of the need to plan for employment. It is interesting to note that at this point neither of these 2 students named a specific occupation but stated only as their choice "any occupation". This may indicate that although they perceived that individuals had to plan they were unable at this point to verbalize any specific occupational interest. As already stated earlier in this Chapter during the Pre-School period children have little opportunity to know anything about the various occupations. Neither are they capable of weighing their interests, abilities or any of the other reality factors inherent in the selection of an occupation. Thus it is not surprising that no specific occupations are listed for this group.

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<sup>1</sup>Ginzberg et al. op.cit., p.69.

The question might be raised as to whether a child at the Pre-School level could be aware of the need to plan for future jobs. While it is in the realm of possibility that awareness could occur at this age the individual would not have sufficient knowledge of occupations to relate this need to a specific type of occupational activity.

The students who became aware of the need to plan during the Elementary School period cited two occupations, namely, teacher and nurse. Interest in these occupations is to be expected since school is a new experience and the majority of children have at this time their first contact with teachers. The elementary school child has also usually had some personal contact with the nursing profession. The child's knowledge of occupations is growing but he still has a very narrow field from which to choose. Therefore the students who stated that they perceived a need to plan in Elementary School could only choose from the occupations of which they had knowledge. It is not surprising then that the two choices listed in TABLE 25 are teaching and nursing. These could be realistic choices but it is unlikely that children of this age would realize what is involved in order to achieve their goal.

An examination of the High School period shows a wider variety of occupational choices and also an increasing number of students who have become aware of the need to plan. This could indicate that with increased maturity and greater knowledge of the world of work students are in a better position to select the occupation they wish to enter. Ginzberg states when discussing the termination of the tentative stage that "it is characterized by a shift from subjective considerations to a greater awareness of external reality".<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>

Ibid. p.95



Thus it is possible that realistic choices could be made during this period.

As already stated a large majority of the students become aware of the need to formulate occupational plans during the University period. This supports Ginzberg's principle "that occupational choice is a process" and takes place only after a series of decisions made over the years. Ginzberg is of the opinion that only at this point are students mature enough and enough aware of the reality factors to choose an occupation.<sup>1</sup>

A possible explanation as to why so few students experienced the need to plan for their future while in High School compared to the number reported for the University period may be answered by Ginzberg's second and third principles, namely, that "the process is largely irreversible: compromise is an essential aspect of every choice".<sup>2</sup> Therefore, it is possible that although the student in High School may be aware of the occupations she will follow she also realizes she has changed her mind before and will possibly do so again but that there is still some time before she must choose. Thus she is not willing to weigh the factors involved and compromise as she may fear that her interests may change and she is not willing to commit herself to a decision that may be irreversible.

The student realizes in University that soon she will have to select an occupation. The pressure that is brought to bear by the knowledge that she will soon be leaving University for the working world

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1

Ibid pp.185-186

2

Ibid p. 186

forces her to examine the different occupations open to her and finally to commit herself to an occupation.

#### Consistency of Occupational Interests

In the first section of this Chapter the initial point of occupational interest is discussed in some detail. It will be recalled that the majority of the students manifested initial interest in occupations at some point during the Elementary School period. Also that the majority of the sample first experienced a need to formulate plans for their future employment while at University. The question may now be raised as to whether the occupational interests manifested at these two points (Point of Initial Interest and Point of Initial Awareness) are similar or consistent with the type of employment in which the students hope to participate subsequent to graduation.

Occupational consistency for purposes of this study refers to an occupational interest that is manifested by the student at 2 or more points in the educational period.

In this study, interest consistency is determined by a comparison of the students' interest at three points, namely Point of Initial Interest, Point of Initial Awareness and at the time of the research interview.

#### Consistency in Occupational Interest at Three Points implies

the presence of the same interest at Initial

Point of Interest, Initial Point of Awareness, and at time of the research interview.

Consistency in Occupational Interest at Two Points implies

the presence of the same interest at

any two of the aforementioned points

Inconsistency implies that at none of the above points

were the interests similar.

The sample with which Interest Consistency is tested consists of only 65 students. This is due to the fact that 6 of the 71 students in the sample cited no interest at one or more points.

TABLE 26 shows the extent to which occupational Interest Consistency is manifested in the sample and also the relationship between it and Occupational Planning Level.

TABLE 26

EXTENT OF OCCUPATIONAL INTEREST CONSISTENCY AND ITS RELATIONSHIP TO  
OCCUPATIONAL PLANNING LEVEL

| Interest Consistency   | Occupational Planning Level |         |          |         |           |         |      |         |
|------------------------|-----------------------------|---------|----------|---------|-----------|---------|------|---------|
|                        | Students                    |         | Definite |         | Tentative |         | None |         |
|                        | No.                         | Percent | No.      | Percent | No.       | Percent | No.  | Percent |
| Total                  | 65                          | 100     | 12       | 100     | 41        | 100     | 12   | 100     |
| Consistent at 3 points | 12                          | 19      | 1        | 8       | 8         | 20      | 3    | 25      |
| Consistent at 2 points | 32                          | 49      | 8        | 67      | 19        | 46      | 5    | 42      |
| Not Consistent         | 21                          | 32      | 3        | 25      | 14        | 34      | 4    | 33      |

Comparison of the present findings (TABLE 26) with those of the 1956 study<sup>1</sup> which involved students in the B.Sc., B.Sc.(P.& O.T.), B.A., and B.Comm. degree courses indicates that approximately 1/5 of the students in the present study manifested interest consistency at three points compared to 1/3 in the 1956 study. In both studies  $\frac{1}{2}$  of the sample manifested consistency of interest at two points. Thus in the present study slightly over 2/3 of the sample manifested consistency in occupational interests compared with 3/4 in the 1956 study.

The question can now be raised as to whether there is any relationship between consistency in occupational interest throughout the educational period and occupational planning level.

According to TABLE 26 a larger proportion of students who manifested occupational consistency have either tentative or definite occupational plans than students whose interests were inconsistent. Of the 12 students in the Definite Plans group 9 manifested interest consistency (75 percent) compared with 27 of the 41 (66 percent) in the Tentative Plans group.

TABLE 26 also shows that a greater proportion of students who manifested no consistency of interest had Tentative rather than Definite or No Plans.

In the "No Plans" group one might expect a higher proportion of students who manifested no interest consistency. However, this is not the case. In the "No Plans" group, 8 of the 12 girls manifested interest consistency at 2 or 3 points. The question might be raised as to why these 8 girls,

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<sup>1</sup>  
Cumas et al. op.cit. p. 103

although manifesting initial consistency, are without plans. Examination of the interview content reveals that 7 of these 8 students came from homes where the family income level is \$10,000 and over per annum. Also to be noted is that 4 of these students had definite marriage plans which in each case had changed their plans to go on to further study and to enter a profession. Thus the aforementioned circumstances may explain the presence of interest consistency and yet the absence of employment plans.

The 12 students who showed consistency of interest at three points could be expected to be in the highest planning level but this is not the case for 11 of these students.

It is to be noted that of the 8 students with tentative plans whose interest is consistent at 3 points 6 belonged to families in the \$10,000 and over income group, and 4 of these 6 girls were either married or had tentative plans for marriage. Had the aforementioned circumstances not prevailed it is possible that these girls would have more definitely formulated occupational plans.

The findings of the present study, insofar as the relationship between occupational interest consistency and occupational planning level of the students in the sample is concerned, agree with those of the 1956 study.<sup>1</sup> In other words, the majority of students who manifest consistency of interest tend to have more clearly defined occupational plans than those where such consistency is not apparent.

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid. p.105

### SUMMARY

In order to present a summary of the findings in this chapter the two major questions are repeated. They are

1. At what point in the educational period do students manifest initial interest in occupations?
2. At what point in the educational period do students become aware of the need to plan for postgraduation employment?

In answer to the first question the research results indicate

1. The majority of students manifested initial interest in occupations during the elementary school period.
2. The students from the high income group manifested initial interest later in the educational period than those from the middle and lower income groups.
3. There appears to be little relationship between manifestation of initial occupational interest early in the educational period and the formulation of definite occupational plans.
4. There is some indication that religious affiliation may have some influence upon the point in the educational period at which initial interest in occupations is manifested.
5. There appears to be a relationship between the age at which occupational interests are manifested and the type of occupation in which interest is expressed.

In answering the second major question an examination of the data showed:

1. The majority of the students manifested initial awareness of the need

- to plan for postgraduation employment while attending university.
2. There appears to be no relationship between initial point of occupational interest and point of awareness of the need to plan for postgraduation employment since regardless of where in the educational period students first manifested occupational interests over half in each educational period had initial awareness at university.
  3. Students from the higher income brackets became aware of the need to plan somewhat later than those in the middle and lower income brackets.
  4. Of the students who manifested initial awareness of the need to formulate occupational plans at university a higher proportion had definite than tentative occupational plans and more had tentative plans than no plans.
  5. An examination of the occupational interests at point of initial awareness suggests that it is in the university period that the majority of students seem to possess the necessary knowledge of occupations and the maturity to enable them to make a realistic occupational choice.
  6. There appears to be a relationship between interest consistency and the existence of occupational plans.

At this point mention again is warranted of the fact that the aforementioned findings were derived from a very small sample and that any inferences derived from the data are only relevant to this sample.

Here and there the writer has suggested the existence of certain trends with the sole intention of supplying cues for further research.

#### CONCLUSIONS

In this Chapter the data was presented to test the validity of the hypothesis that "There is a relationship between the point in the educational period when a student first becomes interested in a specific occupation and the point when she becomes aware of the need to plan for employment after graduation."

According to the research findings this hypothesis is not valid. In this connection it is to be noted that the majority of students in the sample manifested Initial Interest in occupations during the Elementary School period and became initially aware of the need to plan for postgraduation employment while at University. It is to be noted that regardless of whether students manifested initial occupational interest at the Pre-School, Elementary School, High School, or University stages in the Educational period, the majority of students who manifested interest at each of these points first became aware of the need to plan for their future occupation while at University. Thus there does not seem to be a significant positive relationship between point in the educational period of manifestation of initial occupational interest and point in this period of initial awareness of the need to plan for post-graduation employment.

In addition to this it appears that family income had an effect upon initial interest and that both family income and marriage plans



had an important effect on initial awareness of the need to plan for postgraduation employment. It should be noted, however, that the research findings were derived from a very small sample and the deductions derived from the data apply only in connection with this sample.

CHAPTER VI

FAMILIAL INFLUENCES ON OCCUPATIONAL PLANNING  
OF 71 FOURTH YEAR WOMEN STUDENTS IN THE B.A.  
DEGREE COURSE AT MCGILL UNIVERSITY, 1956-1957.

by

JOHN EYMBERTS

## CHAPTER VI

### FAMILIAL INFLUENCES ON OCCUPATIONAL PLANNING OF 71 FOURTH YEAR WOMEN STUDENTS IN THE B.A. DEGREE COURSE AT MCGILL UNIVERSITY, 1956-1957.

#### Introduction:

This chapter is the first step in the process of testing the second working hypothesis<sup>1</sup> on which this study is based. This hypothesis states that familial influences are predominant in the period of occupational planning. The second step is a description of the non-familial influences.<sup>2</sup> The third step involves a comparison of the incidence of the forementioned influences in the sample and their significance in planning.<sup>3</sup>

The present chapter is devoted to the study of the exogenous factors in occupational planning which are believed to have been induced by the family situation of the students in question. Although the focus is on exogenous factors, the researchers are aware that in a study of this nature which involves retrospection verbalized by the interviewee in a personal interview, there remains constantly an endogenous factor involved. It is not just a study of familial influences, but of familial influences as viewed, evaluated and reported by the subjects, and under certain circumstances inferred from the interview content by the interviewers. Thus it could happen that the premature death of one student's father was viewed as a positively precipitating factor toward planning, whereas by

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<sup>1</sup>supra, p. 3.

<sup>2</sup>infra, p. 213.

<sup>3</sup>infra, p. 282.

another student under similar circumstances the incident in question was rated as a factor which had inhibited occupational planning. Therefore, although this study is mainly a study of familial influences the students were exposed to, it is also partly a study of how the students perceived these influences. This is a necessary limitation of a socio-psychological study which tries to approach statistically a process which is in reality a constantly interacting fluidum of exogenous influences and of endogenously colored responses to these influences. It is all the more a limitation because the data have been collected by means of an interview which introduces two sets of possibly subjective elements: those of the interviewee and those of the interviewer. These limitations have been discussed generally in Chapter III;<sup>1</sup> also the error reducing methods applied by the researchers. It is important however to bring these limitations once more to the foreground, this time specifically related to the process of occupational choice and to the difficult auto-anamnesis by the subjects in question.

Questions to be answered:

Why are familial influences on occupational planning chosen as a specific area of research? Largely because the researchers consider it of value to test objectively and systematically a widely held popular assumption that familial influences are predominant during the period of occupational planning. This assumption has gradually become reenforced by increased knowledge of the impact of

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<sup>1</sup>supra, p.

parental and familial influences on the child's behavior: biological studies have demonstrated important elements of heredity in psychosomatic endowment; psychoanalytic literature has introduced the concept of parental identification; social psychology has demonstrated the strong environmental influences at work in the small face-to-face group; developmental psychology has pictured the adolescent period as a stage of experimentation with various life values and also as a period of increased suggestibility. All this suggests that the familial key persons with whom the adolescent develops a strong identification, exercise a unique influence during this critical period of development from tentative to realistic occupational planning.

If the present study should be able to demonstrate that the parents are indeed predominantly, or at least strongly influential in the adolescents' occupational selection, then such knowledge may be a useful information for all those who are frequently engaged in counselling parents and adolescents: occupational counselors, teachers, social workers, psychologists, psychiatrists and clergy-men. In an age which has become so extremely complex in occupational differentiation, and consequently in differentiation of occupational prerequisites, the parents should be helped to gain insight in the basic dynamics of occupational selection, as well as in their own role and its limitations. They should be made <sup>1</sup>basically familiar with the present occupational and educational system. They should also be given an opportunity to learn how to develop the most desirable attitude towards their childrens' occupational planning.

Discussion of the matter in small homogenous groups would seem to be the most effective method of approach. Again, if parental influence on occupational planning should prove to be predominant, the above mentioned counselors would probably be more stimulated to help the adolescent broaden his occupational outlook beyond the family setting by helping him to clarify his motivations for employment in general and by providing him with opportunities to arrive at realistic knowledge of the main career types and the various prerequisites in terms of health, personality and training. For this purpose various methods could be used, such as personal discussion, group discussion, film showings, excursions to various schools of occupational training and to key points in industry where occupations can be observed and explained on the spot. Descriptive literature should also be more plentifully available.

The results of research in this chapter will be presented under the following headings:

A. Definition of concepts:

- definition of concept "familial influences"
- definition of positive, negative and ambivalent influences
- definition of influence vectors and factors
- definition of paired parental influences (unitendent, opposed, contrasting)

B. Familial influences per subject and their characteristics:

- general description of sample
- quantitative and qualitative analysis
- frequency distribution

C. Familial influences per vector and their characteristics:

- description and interpretation of the data obtained from the 23 significant vectors and 56 significant factors.

D. Paternal versus maternal influences:

general characteristics  
paired parental influences (unitendent, opposed, contrasting)

E. Relationship between familial influences and planning level:

the definite plans group  
the "no-plans" group  
the tentative plans group

F. Summary, conclusions and suggestions for further study:

DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS

Familial influences:

In this study familial influences are defined as the exogenous factors within the family setting, based on personal relationships with members of the student's family, which induce movement related to occupational planning.

To know that familial influences have been at work is not enough to be useful knowledge: it is necessary to know the direction of the movement they induced related to planning. Therefore (again for purposes of this study only) the familial influences are qualitatively categorized under the following terms:

- a) positive influences: familial circumstances which induce movement toward occupational planning either by initiating movement or by accelerating already existing movement .
- b) negative influences: familial circumstances which divert a positive movement toward occupational planning away from it, or which exercise an inhibiting effect on movement.

c) ambivalent influences: familial circumstances which have partly a positive, and partly a negative effect on movement, to the extent that the subject in question and/or the interviewer senses it as an influence without being able to indicate by approximation the direction of its effect.<sup>1</sup>

A limitation of this study is, that it is not designed to measure the intensity of the influences reported. If throughout this chapter some impression of the intensity of certain influences is provided by the writer, this has been made possibly only by the subjects' verbal report, or has been deduced from the fact that certain influences are reenforced through their frequent co-existence with other groups of influences.

Vectors and factors:

For the sake of uniform content analysis 23 hypothetically significant categories of influences were formulated by the researchers. For the purpose of this study, these categories are called "vectors", derived from the Latin verb "vehi, vectum": to convey, indicating that they are leading influence categories, composed of the data contributed by a paternal and a maternal influence-factor, expressing both the direction and the magnitude of the recorded influences.

The vectors are each divided into two sub-categories, which are given the name "factors", derived from the Latin verb "facere, factum": to make, indicating an element in the composition of anything. In the present study the factors are designed to register homologous or contrasting paternal and maternal groups of influences.

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<sup>1</sup>For a scientific approach of "movement" in the social sciences, the readers are referred to a study by J. McV. Hunt et al., Measuring Results in Social Casework, A Manual on Judging Movement, New York: (1950).



Two factors compose one vector (except for the sibling influences where 8 factors compose one vector). An example of an influence factor is the number of familial influences related to the mother's educational background and aspiration (TABLE 30, Vector IV, factor M.).<sup>1</sup>

It is to be noted that in this study the names "vector" and "factor" do not bear an heredo-biological connotation as they sometimes do in biological or in drive-psychological studies such as the publications by Dr. L. Szondi.<sup>2</sup> Nevertheless the researchers owe Szondi a great deal of appreciation for his experimental demonstration that the pattern of occupational selection is always to a certain extent influenced by a set of linear (familial and ancestral) drive tendencies which can be socialised by the individual through "operotropism", but which remain structurally the same.

The selection of the vectors and factors is based partly on the researchers' knowledge of and experience in social casework, partly also on the knowledge of theoretical concepts developed by authorities in the field of occupational guidance such as: Strong,<sup>3</sup> Ginzberg,<sup>4</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>infra, p. 155.

<sup>2</sup>L. Szondi, Schicksalsanalyse, (Basel, 1944). Experimentelle Triebdiagnostik (2 Vols., Bern, 1947). Triebpathologie (2 Vols., Bern, 1952).

<sup>3</sup>E.K. Strong, Jr., Vocational interests of men and women, Stanford, 1943.

<sup>4</sup>E. Ginzberg, et al., Occupational choice: an approach to a general theory, New York, 1951.

Super,<sup>1</sup> Caplow,<sup>2</sup> et al. . Also the 1956 study in this field has been a conceptual resource, especially in those areas where the present study served as a re-evaluation and/or continuation of that study.<sup>3</sup>

The sum total of 56 factors does yield a hypothetical maximum of 3976 familial influences possibly to be reported by the 71 students of the sample group.

#### Paired parental influences:

The researchers have subdivided the influence vectors into paternal and maternal influence factors because they felt it important to study the parents' influence as a pair. It was expected that the parents would exercise a unique kind of influence on occupational planning, not only due to the uniqueness of the parent-child relationship, but also due to the symbiotic relationship between the two parents. It was assumed that this symbiotic relationship would result in considerably alignment of paternal and maternal influences.

For this purpose the term "paired parental influence" has been introduced to indicate that a given influence is reported to have stemmed from both parents. These paired parental influences can have a threefold differentiation related to the direction of movement they induce:

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<sup>1</sup>D.E. Super, The Dynamics of Vocational Adjustment, New York, 1942.

<sup>2</sup>Th. Caplow, The Sociology of Work, Minneapolis, 1954.

<sup>3</sup>S. Cumas, et al., "Planning for Post-Graduation Employment", unpublished M.S.W. Thesis, McGill University, October, 1956.

- a) unitendent paired parental influences, indicating that both parents are perceived as having induced movement of the same direction (positive-positive; negative-negative; ambivalent-ambivalent).
- b) opposed paired parental influences, indicating that the parental partners have induced diagonally opposed movement (positive-negative; negative-positive).
- d) contrasting paired parental influences, indicating that the parental partners have induced contrasting (but not diagonally opposed) movement related to their daughter's occupational planning. (positive-ambivalent; negative-ambivalent; ambivalent-positive; ambivalent-negative)

#### FAMILIAL INFLUENCES PER SUBJECT AND THEIR CHARACTERISTICS

General description of the sample group:

As is shown in TABLE 27 below, of the hypothetical maximum of 3976 familial influences already referred to in the previous section, 1096 (28 percent) are recorded. This leaves a total of 72 percent familial influences either unknown or unrecorded. These unrecorded influences exemplify one of the typical difficulties inherent in social research, namely that it is impossible in one largely unstructured interview, to obtain all the hypothetically significant factors.

Moreover, the students in sample were faced with a complicated retro- and intro-spective reconstruction of their process of occupational crystallization, which for many did seem to be rooted in early childhood. This reconstruction did sometimes bring emotionally laden material and

complex sentiments to the surface. In such a situation it was difficult for the subjects to recognise the final direction of a given set of influences. At the same time the increased resistance met in that particular part of the interview, did absorb proportionally too much of the total available interview time at the expense of other familial influences which did have less chance to come into focus.

TABLE 27

NUMBER, PERCENTAGE AND AVERAGE OF THE HYPOTHETICAL,  
RECORDED AND UNRECORDED FAMILIAL INFLUENCES ON  
OCCUPATIONAL PLANNING OF THE STUDENT GROUP:

| Influences              | Num-<br>ber | Per<br>Cent | Aver-<br>age |
|-------------------------|-------------|-------------|--------------|
| Hypothetical influences | 3976        | 100         | 56           |
| Recorded influences     | 1096        | 28          | 15.5         |
| Unrecorded influences   | 2881        | 72          | 40.5         |

The relatively low percentage of recorded influences may also be related in part to the interviewers' limitations. As already indicated in Chapter III, the interviews, their process recording and content analysis were conducted concurrently with classes and fieldwork during the final year of the M.S.W. Degree Course. If more curricular time would have been allotted for this study, more interviews per subject would have been possible, and as a result more influential factors inherent to the family situation would have been recorded.

As is indicated in TABLE 28 below, the 1096 recorded familial influences can be differentiated into 664 (61 percent) positive influences; 187 (16 percent) negative influences; and 254 (23 percent) ambivalent influences. That proportionally positive influences greatly exceed the negative and ambivalent influences is a trend which has been found in about the same proportions in the data collected by the majority of the interviewers (TABLE 29)<sup>1</sup> and also in the majority of the influence vectors to be described later in this Chapter.

TABLE 28

NUMBER, PERCENTAGE AND AVERAGE OF THE POSITIVE, NEGATIVE  
AND AMBIVALENT FAMILIAL INFLUENCES ON OCCUPATIONAL PLANNING  
OF THE STUDENTS:

| Influences                | Num-<br>ber | Per<br>Cent | Aver-<br>age |
|---------------------------|-------------|-------------|--------------|
| Total recorded influences | 1096        | 100         | 15.5         |
| Positive influences       | 664         | 61          | 9.4          |
| Negative influences       | 178         | 16          | 2.5          |
| Ambivalent influences     | 254         | 23          | 3.6          |

<sup>1</sup>infra, p. 148.

TABLE 29

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF POSITIVE, NEGATIVE AND  
AMBIVALENT FAMILIAL INFLUENCES RECORDED PER INTER-  
VIEWER:

| Interviewers     | Total Influences |          | Positive Influences |          | Negative Influences |          | Ambivalent Influences |          |
|------------------|------------------|----------|---------------------|----------|---------------------|----------|-----------------------|----------|
|                  | Num-ber          | Per Cent | Num-ber             | Per Cent | Num-ber             | Per Cent | Num-ber               | Per Cent |
| All Interviewers | 1096             | 100      | 664                 | 61       | 178                 | 16       | 254                   | 23       |
| Interviewer 1    | 289              | 100      | 173                 | 60       | 65                  | 22       | 51                    | 18       |
| Interviewer 2    | 244              | 100      | 140                 | 57       | 9                   | 4        | 95                    | 39       |
| Interviewer 3    | 210              | 100      | 127                 | 60       | 45                  | 22       | 38                    | 18       |
| Interviewer 4    | 199              | 100      | 113                 | 57       | 28                  | 14       | 58                    | 29       |
| Interviewer 5    | 154              | 100      | 111                 | 72       | 31                  | 20       | 12                    | 8        |

This trend is probably related to a complex set of factors which have made for certain distortions inherent in the interview as a social science research tool. The non-directive approach<sup>1</sup> and the introductory sentence used by every interviewer "Do you have any plans for employment after graduation?", do logically create a set for a positive response or sequence of positive responses. Furthermore, according to psychoanalytic literature, negative emotional experiences are subject to amnesia sooner than positive experiences because the former are more likely to be repressed and harder to bring back to the conscious level than the latter. There is, not to forget, the conceptual frame of thinking of the interviewers who have been quite strongly focusing on developmental sequences of occupational interests and planning from early childhood to the present. This necessarily

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<sup>1</sup>Supra, p.

entails a higher concentration on positive values in the process of occupational planning than on negative and ambivalent influences.

Familial influences described per student:

In this section the writer has made an attempt to provide the reader with a global picture of the range and average of the familial influences on occupational planning per student. This horizontal cross-section of the sample group will later serve as useful material for comparison with the vertical treatment of the familial influences per vector.

Part of this section is also a frequency distribution of the various clusters of influences per person. Apart from elucidating how certain groups of influences have been at work, this material would also seem to substantiate the internal consistency of the data recorded. In other words, the quite homogenous distribution of familial influences recorded per student and per interviewer does seem to indicate considerable homogeneity of the sample; also a considerable degree of reliability in the students' responses and in the interviewers' interpretation of these responses.

According to FIGURE 1<sup>1</sup>, the number of recorded familial influences per student ranges from 2 to 32, with an average number of 15.5 influences as indicated in TABLE 28<sup>2</sup>. It is to be noted that none of the 71 students in question reports a total absence of familial

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<sup>1</sup>Infra, p. 151.

<sup>2</sup>Supra, p. 147.

influences on occupational planning: the majority does recognise a complex set of familial influences, ranging most frequently from 10 to 20 influences per person. FIGURE 1 shows a rather homogenous, unimodal frequency distribution of the influences recorded. What scattering there is in the higher brackets of the distribution could be largely due to differences in age and interviewing experience of the researchers.'

As FIGURE 2<sup>1</sup> shows, the positive familial influences range from one single influence to 26 influences per person. This range is considerably wider than that of the negative and ambivalent influences, largely because so many more positive influences are recorded than negative or ambivalent influences.<sup>2</sup> Again the frequency distribution is fairly homogenous for such a small sample. The average number of positive familial influences is 9.4 per person (TABLE 28).<sup>3</sup>

The negative familial influences exhibit the narrowest range of the three influence groups, from 0 to 11 influences per person (FIGURE 3).<sup>4</sup> The frequency distribution shows a skewing towards the group that reported no or relatively few influences. This appears to be related to the fact that one-third of the students reports no negative familial influences; also to the fact that more than one-third of the students report only one or two negative familial influences.

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<sup>1</sup>Infra, p.152.

<sup>3</sup>Supra, p.147

<sup>2</sup>Supra, p.147.

<sup>4</sup>Infra, p.153.



FIGURE I.  
FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF THE NUMBER OF UNDIFFERENTIATED  
FAMILIAL INFLUENCES ON OCCUPATIONAL PLANNING, RECORDED  
PER SUBJECT:

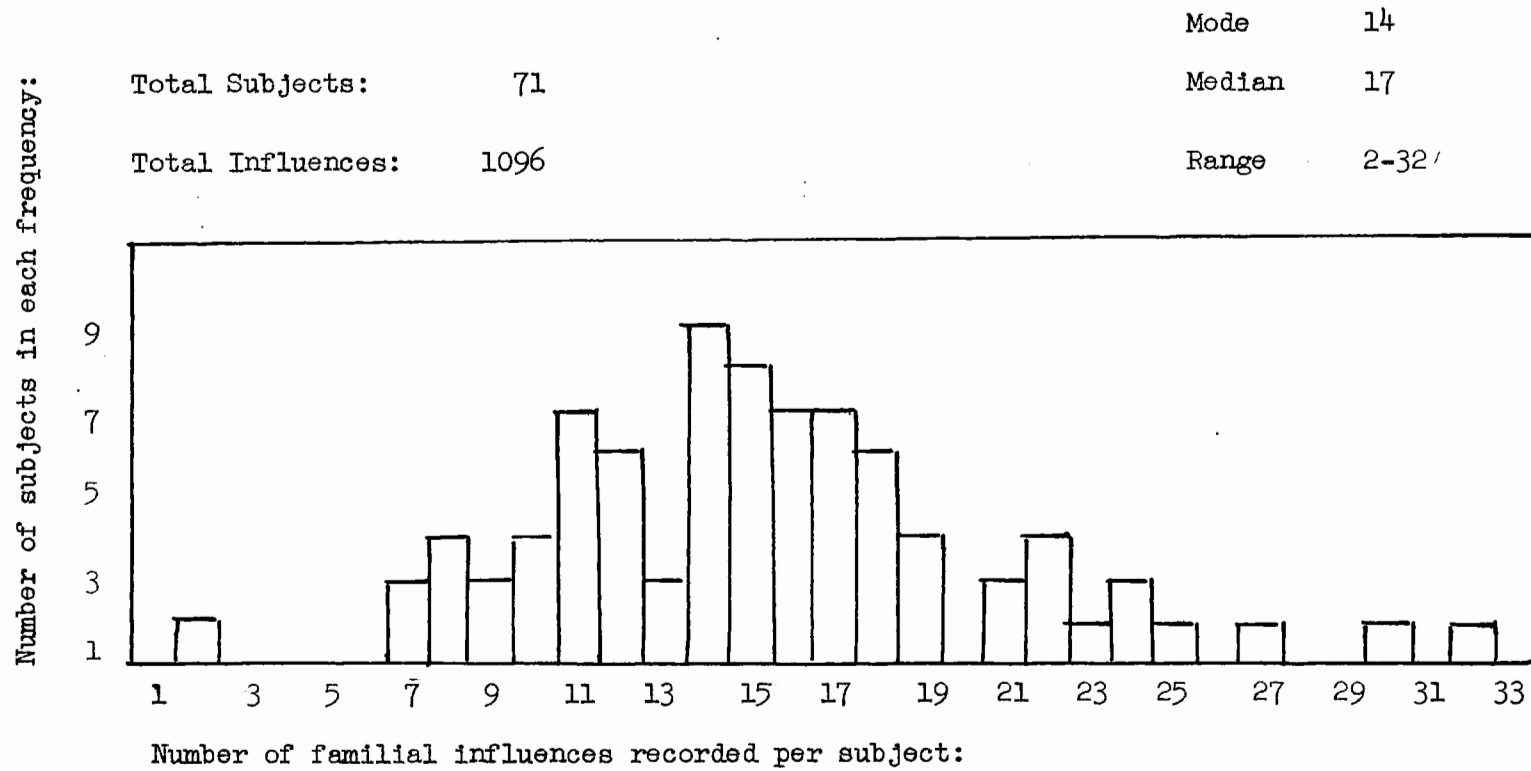
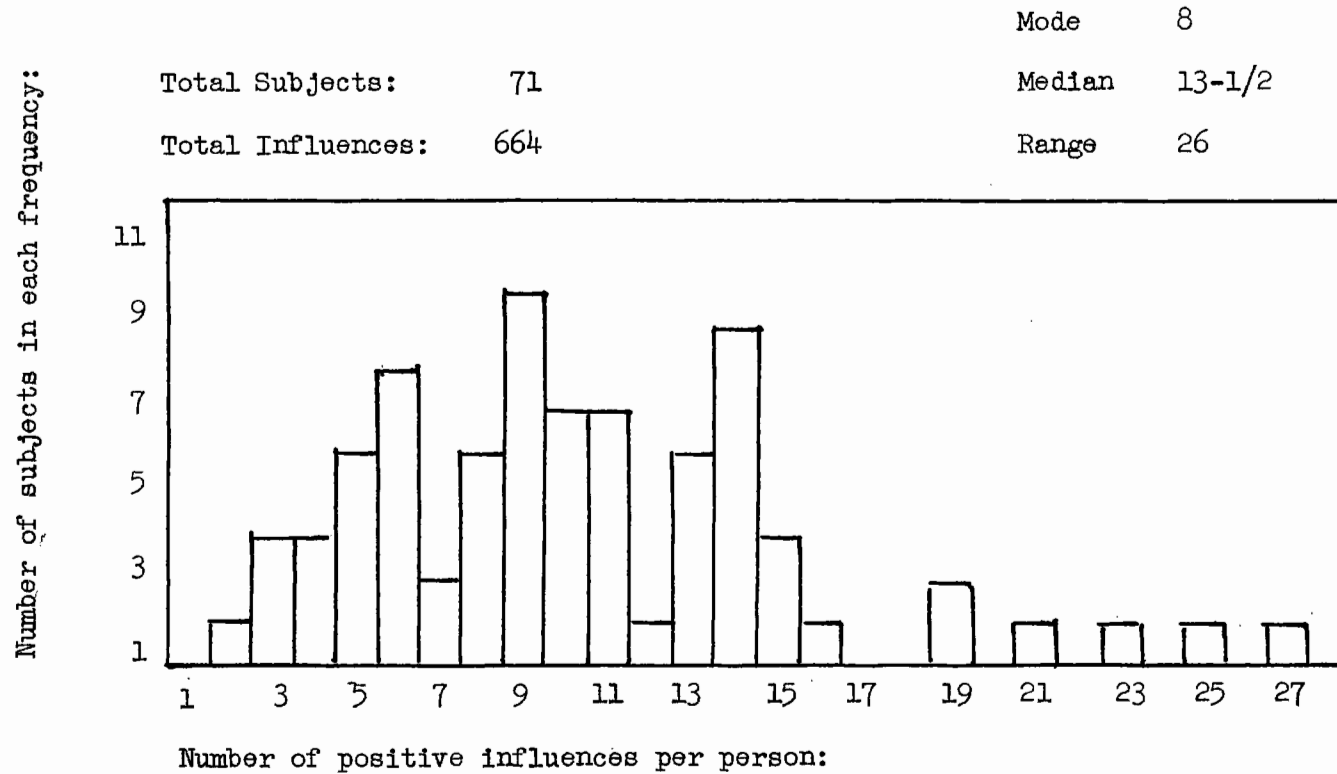


FIGURE II  
FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF THE NUMBER OF POSITIVE  
FAMILIAL INFLUENCES ON OCCUPATIONAL PLANNING, RE-  
CORDED PER SUBJECT:



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FIGURE III  
FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF THE NUMBER OF NEGATIVE  
FAMILIAL INFLUENCES ON OCCUPATIONAL PLANNING,  
RECORDED PER SUBJECT

|                     |     |        |       |
|---------------------|-----|--------|-------|
| Number of Subjects  | 71  | Mode   | 0     |
|                     |     | Median | 5-1/2 |
| Negative Influences | 178 | Range  | 0-11  |

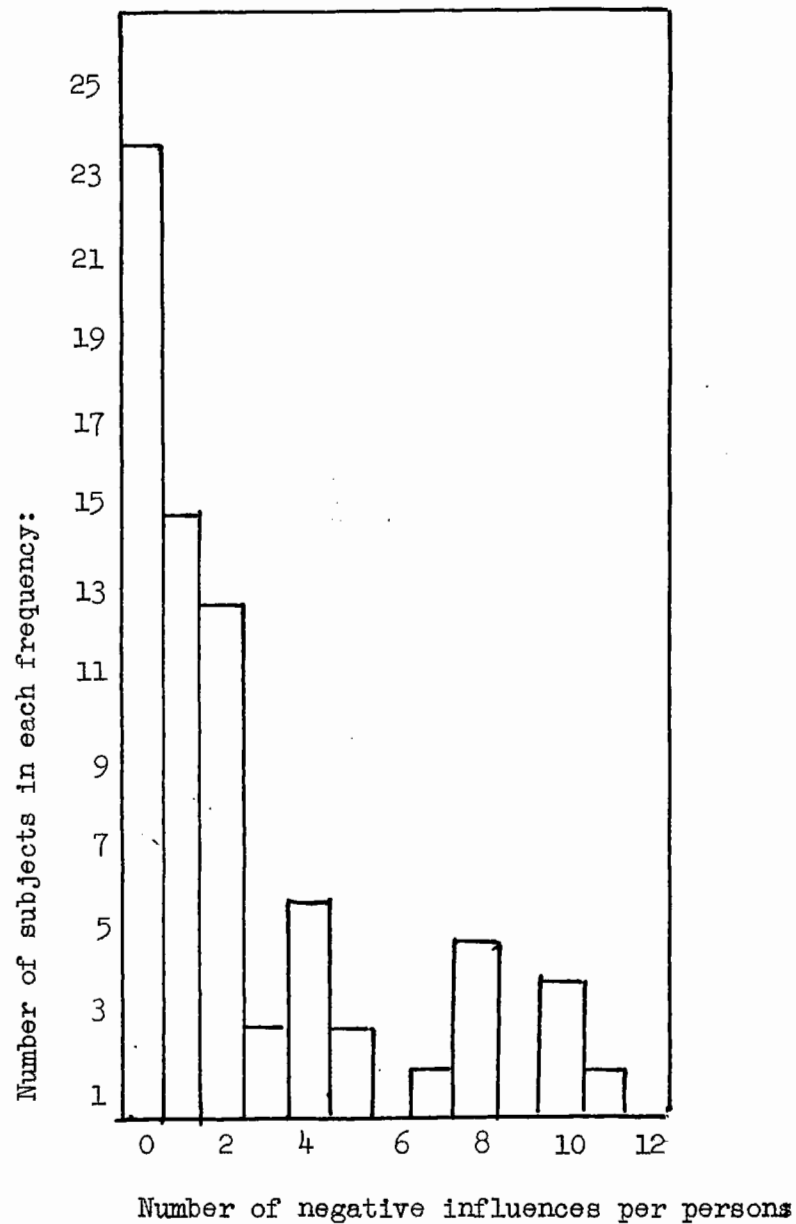


FIGURE IV  
FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF AMBIVALENT  
FAMILIAL INFLUENCES ON OCCUPATIONAL  
PLANNING, RECORDED PER SUBJECT:

Mode: 2  
Total Subjects: 71      Median: 6-1/2  
Ambivalent Influences: 254      Range: 0-13

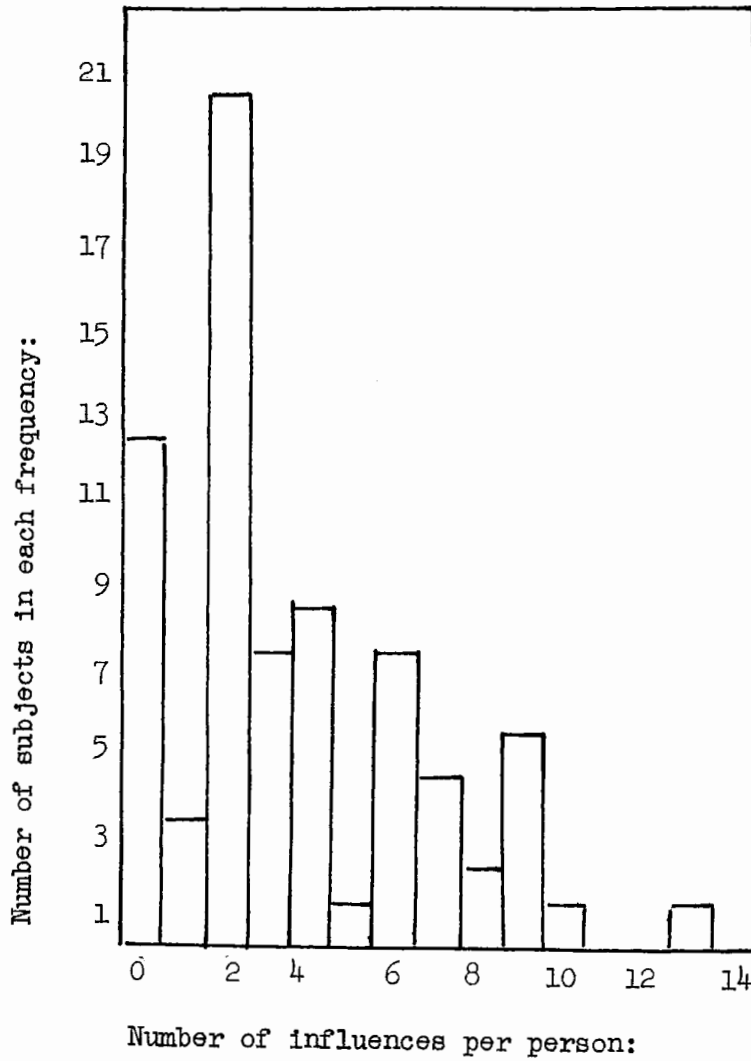




TABLE 30

NUMERICAL DISTRIBUTION OF POSITIVE, NEGATIVE AND AMBIVALENT FAMILIAL INFLUENCES OVER THE 56 THEORETICAL FACTORS, RANKED IN DECREASING ORDER ACCORDING TO THE TOTAL NUMBER OF UNDIFFERENTIATED INFLUENCES PER VECTOR:

| VECTORS                                |             | I             |       |       |       | II <sup>a</sup>                               |       | III        | IV  | V                  | VI   | VII   | VIII                               |     |     |           |            |              |                      |               | II <sup>b</sup>  |   | IX   | X                              | XI                           | XII  | XIII             | XIV                         | XV                  | XVI                           | XVII              | XVIII                 | XIX             | XX          | XXI                 | XXII           | XXIII                     | VECTORS |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |     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|  | ALL VECTORS | PARENTAL ROLE |       |       |       | Specific Parental Attitude towards University |       | Attendance | Parental Participation in Occupational Planning | Parental Education | Parental Influences as Perceived by Interviewees | Parental Attitude towards Occupational Planning | Parental Occupational Expectations | Age | Sex | Education | Occupation | Civil Status | Financial Assistance | Participation | Other Influences | General Parental Attitude towards University Attendance | Parental Identification as Perceived by Interviewers | Parental Role Concept of Women | Parental Economic Influences | Parental Identification as Perceived by Interviewees | Parental Culture | Former Parental Deprivation | Parental Occupation | Parental Social Relationships | Parental Religion | Parental Civil Status | Other Relatives | Family Size | Parental Ill-Health | Age of Parents | Other Parental Influences |         |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |    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|  |             |               |       |       |       |   |       |            |   |                    |  |   |                                    |     |     |           |            |              |                      |               |                  |   |  |                                |                              |  |                  |                             |                     |                               |                   |                       |                 |             |                     |                |                           |         |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       | 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| FACTORS - Paternal: P.<br>Maternal: M. | P. M.       | P. P.         | M. M. | P. M. | P. M. | P. M.   | P. M. | P. M.      | P. M.   | P. M.              | P. M.  | P. M.   | SIBLINGS                           |     |     |           |            |              |                      |               | P. P. M.         | P. M.   | P. M.  | P. M.                          | P. M.                        | P. M.  | P. M.            | P. M.                       | P. M.               | P. M.                         | P. M.             | P. M.                 | P. M.           | P. M.       | P. M.               | P. M.          | P. M.                     | P. M.   | P. M. | P. M. | P. M. | P. M. | P. M. | P. M. | P. M. | P. M. | P. M. | P. M. | P. M. | P. M. | P. M. | P. M. | P. M. | P. M. | P. M. | P. M. | P. M. | P. M. | P. M. | P. M. | P. M. | P. M. | P. M. | P. M. | P. M. | P. M. | P. M. | P. M. | P. M. | P. M. | P. M. | P. M. | P. M. | P. M. | P. M. | P. M. | P. M. | P. M. | P. 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It seems therefore that the negative influences have been viewed and/or interpreted as operating in a more isolated fashion than the positive influences. The average number of recorded negative familial influences is 2.5 per person (TABLE 28)<sup>1</sup>. The factors discussed earlier in this Chapter<sup>2</sup> as possibly contributing to a proportionally lower number of negative influences as compared to the positive influences, do also seem to explain why the negative influences seem to be perceived as operating in a more isolated manner.

As is indicated in FIGURE 4<sup>3</sup>, the ambivalent familial influences range from 0 to 13, with a very high frequency of two influences per person. As will be shown under the description of the vectors, this very high mode appears to be largely related to the fact that so many students do seem to be ambivalent in their appreciation of the role<sup>4</sup> which their parents have played in occupational planning and which has been largely non-directive. Moreover, in this vector the highest number of unitendent paired parental influences is reported, which results in a sharp increase in frequency of two ambivalent influences per student.<sup>4</sup> The average number of ambivalent influences per person is 3.6 (TABLE 28)<sup>5</sup>.

#### FAMILIAL INFLUENCES PER VECTOR AND THEIR CHARACTERISTICS

##### Introduction:

As already stated,<sup>6</sup> the researchers have developed 23 hypo-

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<sup>1</sup>Supra, p. 147.

<sup>2</sup>Supra, p. 147.

<sup>3</sup>Infra  
Supra, p. 154.

<sup>4</sup>Infra, p. 154.

<sup>5</sup>Supra, p. 147.

<sup>6</sup>Supra, p. 142.

thetically significant vectors of family influences for the sake of systematic content analysis. Twenty-two of these comprise various aspects of parental influences, and one covers sibling influences. The vectors are each subdivided into two factors in order to compare paternal and maternal differences. The sibling category is subdivided into 8 factors in order to cover various shades of sibling influences.

It is to be noted that the vectors of parental influences are very broadly defined in order to include as many qualitative aspects of influential factors as possible. To a certain extent areas may overlap, nevertheless each category has its specific differentiating quality which forms the main focus of classification.

The vectors will be defined in the process of discussing their incidence in the sample and their effect. In TABLE 30<sup>1</sup> the main vectors are arranged according to the frequency of recorded responses in each vector. For that purpose each category has been given a rank number in Roman numerals.

#### I. Parental Role:

For the purpose of this study, "role" is defined as the impact upon their daughter of the parents own occupational outlook and occupational expectations of her. This impact could be either strongly directive, leaving little or no choice; or it could be largely non-directive, leaving planning largely to the student's self-determination.

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<sup>1</sup>Supra, p.155.

TABLE 30<sup>1</sup> shows that the majority of the students (90 percent) reports that their parents have had an influence on their occupational planning by playing either a directive or a non-directive role. Those who perceive their parents as non-directive are by far in the majority over the students who describe their parents as directive or at times authoritative. About three quarters of the students who are able to evaluate their parents' role, remain ambivalent concerning the final direction. This means that more ambivalent parental influences are recorded in this than in any other vector.

This great ambivalence may be partly related to the fact that non-directive guidance is a process during which the person who receives guidance is constantly redirected to his own decision making. Hence it is a process which is often painful, especially to the passive-receptive personality make-up of many women, and therefore hard to evaluate by the students in question as to its educational value. It may also be partly related to the fact that non-directive counseling is a skill which is difficult to acquire and even more difficult to apply in the emotionally involved situation of the parent-child relationship. Many parents who have heard the word "non-directive" or "permissive" misinterpret the meaning of these terms. On this account some hesitate to become involved in any way with their daughter's planning. This too great remoteness from the student's occupational questions is apt to puzzle the student and may inhibit the planning process.

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<sup>1</sup>Supra, p. 155.



Another reason why the parents of the students in the sample group may have been induced to play a non-directive role rather than a directive, may be the fact that the majority of the parents in question completed either high school or college and that since then, as is indicated in Chapter IV, many of them (especially the fathers) have been performing unique functions at high occupational level (inventive, scientific and organisational careers). Through this high level of educational and occupational differentiation their own frame of occupational reference (for careers similar to their own as well as for other top level careers) is likely to be much narrower than that of the middle and lower class parent. The latter, when advising his child on his own occupational level, can refer to a much greater number of fellow workers and can more easily get to know the essentials of other jobs in his occupational area because these jobs contain more concrete, tangible material than the rather abstract high level careers. In this respect it may be significant that of the 8 parents with elementary school education, 4 are reported to have played a directive role. This is proportionally considerably more than the 21 directive parental influences recorded for the 134 parents who had either a high school or a college education. This difference may also be partly related to the fact that the parents with high level education are likely closer to an understanding of the non-directive approach than the parents of elementary school level. As is known from the principles of social case work, more than average intelligence is needed to be able to use the non-directive counselling method as a tool in guidance. Also the counselee has to be at least of average

intelligence in order to be able to make constructive use of this guidance approach.

A final reason why the parents' non-directive role is reported so frequently, could have been the high income level of the families in question. The well-to-do family surroundings of the student sample may have exercised little pressure to be self-supporting. In a sense the parents could afford to remain less directive than parents of a lower income group. Coupled to the high income level of the students' families is also the fact that for many of the girls in question there seems to be enough parental money available to allow them to undertake any kind of post-graduation training. For the more ambivalent students this could be an added inhibiting factor in planning.

There seems to be a tendency among the 21 students who reportedly have directive parents in matters of occupational selection, to perceive the parents' influence as negative (15 students) rather than positive (6 students).

In this vector the recorded paternal and maternal influences are practically equal in number.

If parental ambivalence creates problems for the student, parents and students would likely be helped if groups of more intelligent parents could be brought together in order to teach them the characteristics of non-directive guidance and to illustrate its principles by recorded interviews and intensive group participation. Such projects should be scheduled at high school and also at university.

IIa and IIb. Specific and General Parental Attitude toward University Attendance:

As indicated in TABLE 30, vector IIa,<sup>1</sup> the second highest ranking category in frequency of recorded family influences is the parents' specific attitude toward their own daughters' university attendance. About 90 percent of the students report this influence. As will be noted in TABLE 30, vector IIb,<sup>2</sup> This is in contrast with the parents' general attitude toward university attendance which is recorded as an influence by less than half of the student sample.

Both above-mentioned vectors show that positively perceived parental influences predominate strongly over the negative and ambivalent influences. The students all feel that their parents by encouraging college attendance have contributed positively to their level of occupational planning. The parents' influence is also positively appreciated by the students because the greater part of the student group is financially supported by their parents during the college years.

That the students are so unanimously appreciative of their parents' educational expectations is to be expected from a student group which by its admission into the fourth year B.A. Degree Course has proven to be of more than average intelligence and which may be expected to have educational aspirations in keeping with this talent.

The encouraging attitude toward university attendance by such a great majority of parents in <sup>the</sup> sample is all the more impressing when

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<sup>1</sup>Supra, p. 155.

<sup>2</sup>Supra, p. 155.

it is realized that half of the parents who are reported to have encouraged planning, have not themselves had a college level education as preparation for a career.

That this is appreciated by the students is suggested by the fact that more positively perceived parental influences are reported in this vector than in any other vector of family influences.

Parental motivation for encouraging their daughter's university attendance varies considerably. For some parents it is perceived as conducive to healthy personality development; for others it is a security measure to equip their daughter for high income employment; a third group of parents encourages college studies in order to make their daughter a more acceptable marital partner; a fourth group regards college as a much venerated family tradition, sometimes centering around well-recognised familial abilities (social work, medicine, organisational talent) either on the paternal or on the maternal side.

That so many parents encourage university attendance for their daughter specifically while at the same time not explicitly encouraging university attendance in general, may be partly related to the fact that half of the parents do not have a formal college education. Another reason may be that the parents' economic level facilitates college attendance. Several of the parents in question did not inherit wealth, but arrived at a high income by a laborious and prolonged effort. Most parents of this ~~group~~ like to see their children maintain the same level of material and cultural comfort as they themselves have built up. This logically invites the parents

to send their daughter to college where she can pursue a promising career, or where she can become more attractive to a husband with a promising career.

In this vector over 90 percent of the recorded parental influences are unitendent paired parental. This suggests a high degree of perceived alignment between the parental partners on this particular matter.

The present findings do seem to be in substantial agreement with the above-mentioned 1956 study in this field.<sup>1</sup> Cumas et al. report "parental expectation" (educational and occupational) as the most frequently reported category of familial influences.

### III. Parental Participation in Planning:

In TABLE 30<sup>2</sup> the third vector of recorded familial influences relates to parental participation in the students' occupational planning.

Parental participation is defined here as the opportunity provided by the parents to their daughter to discuss the topic of occupational planning whenever indicated, and to assist her during the various stages of planning.

In this vector an influence is reported by over three quarters of the sample. For one third of the respondents it is hard to determine whether the frequency of their parents' participation has produced any definite movements related to occupational planning.

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<sup>1</sup>Steve Cumas et al., "Planning for Post-Graduation Employment". Unpublished M.S.W. Thesis, McGill University, October 1956, Vol. II, p. 361.

<sup>2</sup>Supra, p. 155.

It is of interest especially, that the group of students with definite occupational plans reports a high number of negative and ambivalent influences in this vector, while the students without plans report proportionally fewer negative and ambivalent influences. This may be partly related to the fact that the students with positive plans are possibly of the type of personality make-up which renders them more capable of making their own decisions than the students of the "no-plans" group. They may be therefore less in need of parental participation and consequently less frequently disposed to accepting it when given. Another consideration is that once a person has decided definitely on a particular type of career, he is from that moment on a reenforcing influence and may forget the circumstances that precipitated his initial decision.

#### IV. Parental Education or Educational Aspiration:

As TABLE 30<sup>1</sup> indicates, this vector of familial influences ranks fourth in recorded frequency. About three quarters of the students reports this influence. The positive influences are in the majority here. There is furthermore a strong tendency toward unident paired parental influences.

Half of the 36 fathers and 35 mothers who both by educational outlook on life and by a positive attitude toward their daughters' university attendance have encouraged a college education do not have formal college education for themselves.

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<sup>1</sup>Supra, p. 155.

Whenever the vector of parental education reports a negative or ambivalent influence from the parents, a repetition of influences with similar direction is reported for the same students in other vectors, especially in parental participation; parental influences as perceived by the interviewees; and parental identification.

The present findings seem to be largely in agreement with the results of the 1956<sup>1</sup> study in which Paternal and Maternal Education obtained about the same rank as they do in the present study. Yet in the 1956 study this influence was only reported by half of the sample; whereas three fourths of the present sample perceived such an influence. This difference is probably related to the greater depth of this year's study which could concentrate on a few hypotheses whereas the 1956 project was exploratory only.

#### V. Parental Influences as Perceived by the Interviewees:

At the end of each interview the researchers asked the students whether they could give a global evaluation of their parents' total role in occupational planning expressed in terms of positive, negative or ambivalent effect.

TABLE 30<sup>2</sup> shows that parental influences as perceived by the students occupy the fifth place in the list of vectors. Almost two thirds

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<sup>1</sup>Cumas et al., op. cit., Vol. II, p. 361

<sup>2</sup>Supra, p. 155.

of the students have voiced an impression. About one third of this response group does perceive the parents as having been positively influential in occupational planning. An almost equally great number of this group remains ambivalent. This is a much higher proportion of ambivalent influences than has been found in most other vectors. This seems to indicate that it is difficult for many respondents to perceive the final direction of the sum total of parental influences. This may be related directly to the complexity of the problem. Also the subjective factor, that is, how the student has responded (positively or negatively) to a given parental influence, enters into the picture here more than in any other vector.

Paternal and maternal influences in this vector are reported in equal number and in equal proportions between positive, negative and ambivalent influences. There is a very high percentage (90 per cent) of unitendent paired parental influences here.

#### VI. Parental Attitude toward Occupational Planning:

For the purpose of this study, parental attitude towards planning is defined as the parents' belief in the usefulness of occupational planning in general, or for a specific student.

According to TABLE 30<sup>1</sup> almost two thirds of the students in question consider the parents' attitude towards occupational planning an influential factor. In this vector a proportionally much higher number

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<sup>1</sup>Supra, p. 155.



of negative familial influences is reported than the percentage of negative familial influences for the total sample. This is probably related to two factors: first there is the close relationship which one can expect theoretically between the attitude towards occupational planning for women and the role concept one has about women's function in family and community. This role concept among the parents of the student sample is frequently perceiving a woman's role as marital and maternal only, to the exclusion of any occupational participation during married life, and sometimes even before marriage. A second possible explanation may be the fact that the greater number of the students in the sample stem from high income families where the need to plan occupationally is felt less stringently. To test this hypothetical trend, the writer has compared the 12 students of lowest family income (all under \$6000 annually) with the rest of the sample. No increase in positive parental attitude towards planning could be demonstrated. This lack of confirmation from the low income data may be related to the small size of the low income sample and also to the fact that several of the low income families in question were originally high income families who subsequently suffered a financial reverse related to the death of the father. This introduces new influential aspects which make it impossible in the present study to isolate "low income" as an influential factor by itself.

#### VII. Parental Occupational Expectations for the Students:

Parental expectations concerning desirable careers, or career levels for their daughters constitute a matter of parental influence for almost half the student sample (TABLE 30).<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Supra, p. 155.

More than half of the reported influences in this vector are positive. These positive influences stem in greater number from the parents (24) who have had university education themselves than from the parents (17) who have had high school or elementary school education. It appears that 17 parents are perceived by the students as having stimulated them positively towards a career level which exceeded their own occupational level. This suggests that there is only a limited tendency towards vertical mobility in this group. This can be partly explained by the fact that we have to do with a group of parents of high educational level and that therefore there is neither the incentive among the parents to stimulate their daughters beyond their own occupational training level, nor the opportunity for the students to be trained at a higher level than that of their parents.

The negative parental influences related to expectations as to occupational level stem largely from parents with high school or elementary school education. This suggests that parents without college training are apt to be more often an inhibiting factor in the students' occupational planning at the college level.

The sample is too small to warrant the use of the term "correlation". There is however a tendency for the positive influences in this vector to be associated with an increased number of positive influences in the vectors of parental education and of parental attitude towards university attendance. Here the data do seem to confirm a relationship which is to be expected hypothetically.

Nearly half the student group reports concrete parental expectations as to the **type of** career which their daughter should choose or avoid. The majority of the parents in this group does however seem to have remained rather non-directive, notwithstanding the existence of some concrete wishes on their part. Sometimes the parents have not made any statements, but the student has assumed certain parental wishes through deduction from the frequency and the esteem with which parents have mentioned certain female careers. Others have recognised a need in the family setting: "I guess father could use me: he needs a good secretary and I have helped him out during summer holidays."

The plans of 14 students seem to be in alignment with the parental indicated or assumed expectations. This conformity is rarely reported as sole reason for the students' plans; it usually happens to coincide with the student's own interests.

The students who reportedly are planning toward a career which differs from the parental expectations, are 16 in number. The wishes of this parent group often relate to careers which involve greater safety (no travelling by air) or which promise a greater financial gain (business) and stability (Civil Service career).

From the data at the researchers' disposal, it was impossible to voice an opinion as to whether this conformity or discrepancy between the parental expectations and the students plans has induced planning towards careers for which the students are not suited. This remains a topic for multidiscipline long-term research.

#### VIII. The Sibling Influences:

The researchers assumed that the brothers and sisters of the students in question could be expected to exercise a certain influence on occupational planning because they belong to the family setting and form a unique relationship with the students by kinship and by day-to-day living in close contact with them. The researchers were anxious to know what rank the siblings would take in among the so-called "key persons" in occupational planning. If the siblings should indeed prove to be a very influential group, this would have to be taken into account in every guidance process, and means would have to be found to approach the siblings individually and as a group about this matter.

The researchers developed several hypothetical areas of sibling influence on planning such as: the closeness or remoteness in age between subject and sibling; the sameness or difference in sex between subject and sibling; the educational level and educational aspirations of the sibling; the occupation and occupational expectations of the sibling; the civil status of the sibling; financial assistance to or from the sibling; participation in planning by the sibling.

As is shown in TABLE 30,<sup>1</sup> reported or inferred influences in this category amount to only 6 percent of the total number of recorded familial influences. They appear to have been an influence factor for about one third of the student sample.

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<sup>1</sup>Supra, p.155.

That the sibling influences are so much fewer than the parental influences is open to many explanations. There is mainly the fact that the parent-child relationship is intrinsically apt to be closer and more influential than the sibling-sibling relationship. Moreover, in this particular sample the size of the families is small; 12 subjects are only children; the average number of siblings per student is 1.3. A possible third factor is the fact that the majority of the students in question are from high income families. Consequently, there is no financial priority problem and the sibling him/or herself may not be under any pressure toward early occupational planning.

The sibling influences are recorded with an average of 0.9 per student. It is to be noted however that the students who report a sibling influence do usually perceive a cluster of influences related to various aspects. The three most frequently reported aspects of sibling influence are the sibling's education, the sibling's participation in planning and the sibling's occupation or occupational aspiration.

The sibling influences are largely reported as positive (46), and only a few as negative (4) or ambivalent (11). The following examples from the interview content may be elucidating: Miss A.'s father has an income which does not allow him to support two of his children simultaneously at college. Miss A. had originally plans to proceed towards the M.A. level either in psychology or in social work. Now she has given up plans for post-graduate training in favor of a younger brother who has almost completed high school and for whom the parents find it more important that he prepares himself for a career

at college level than they do for their daughter. As Miss A. is not too strongly motivated toward psychology or social work and as she is largely marriage oriented, she does sooner consider giving up post-graduate training at this point than exploring the availability of bursaries or the possibility of a work-study arrangement.

Miss B. reports that three years ago when her father passed away, her older brother gave up his post-graduate studies in History in order to take his father's place in a local commercial enterprise. Miss B.'s plans to proceed towards the B.A. Degree as a preparation for a secretarial career of college level would have been seriously endangered if her brother had not taken over the paternal career.

As is mentioned later in this Chapter, the greatest number of sibling influences are reported by the students whose parents are advanced in years; the smallest number of sibling influences is reported by the students from young families. This is related to the fact that students from the more aged parents are likely to have more and older siblings.

#### IX. Parental Identification as Perceived by the Interviewers:

As indicated in TABLE 30<sup>1</sup> the interviewers report for half the student sample a familial influence related to identification with one or both parents.

Identification (Latin - "idem facere" - to make the same) is

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<sup>1</sup>Supra, p.155.

a process of psychological introjection by which a person attempts to take on so many values, characteristics, ideals of the person who is taken as a love object, that there is a trend to become what the other personifies, in other words: to identify with the other's role.<sup>1</sup>

This process can also turn into a negative one if a person attempts systematically to be the opposite of a given personality. It is further more to be noted that this process is largely an subconscious one, but that intelligent persons through systematic retro- and introspective analysis of their life experiences can arrive at a conscious preception of their identification process. As will be shown in the discussion of vector XIII<sup>2</sup> a certain amount of this subconscious material had indeed been brought to the conscious level by a number of the students in question.

The limited time of one interview was inadequate to bring out content indicative of identification. Therefore such material was obtained only from half of the students.

The following trends are characteristic of the students who according to the interviewers had a positive or a negative identification with one or both parents. It is a group with relatively few paired parental influences as could be expected by the fact that identification usually is related towards one parental figure. Positive identification is found in equal frequency with the father as with the mother. This

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<sup>1</sup>Cfr. S. Freud, "Neue Folge der Vorlesungen zur Einführung in die Psychoanalyse", Gesammelte Werke, XV, p. 69.

<sup>2</sup>Supra, p. 153.

does suggest the presence of a considerable proportion of girls with a masculine identification. Normally one would expect that girls of this age group have solved the Oedipal situation and have arrived at the final identification with the mother. The sample is too small to allow the writer any further hypothetical speculation in this matter.

The familial influences on students with a positive paternal identification exhibit the following characteristics. The average number of positive familial influences is much higher for this particular sub-group (12 influences per person) than the average of positive familial influences for the total sample (9.4 influences per person). The negative familial influences on this particular sub-group are proportionally fewer (average 1.9) as compared to the negative familial influences for the total sample (average 2.5). Furthermore there are trends which indicate that positive paternal identification is positively related to other aspects of paternal influence such as: paternal occupation, paternal culture, paternal attitude towards planning, perceived paternal influence, and paternal attitude towards university attendance of the student. It should also be noted that among the students who have a positive identification with their fathers, the Jewish element is considerably smaller than the Protestant element. This may be partly related to factors which will be discussed under parental age and parental occupation.

The same general trend of proportionally increased positive familial influences and proportionally decreased negative familial influences seems to hold for the student group with positive maternal identification. There are trends which indicate that positive maternal



identification of the students in question~~s~~ seems positively related to the mother's educational background and aspiration.

The negative parental identification recorded for 13 students seems to have had an inhibiting effect on familial influences in planning. For this particular sub-group positive familial influences average only 5.1 per student as compared to an average of 9.4 positive familial influences recorded in the total sample. The negative familial influences recorded for the same sub-group of students with negative parental identification average 9.3 per student, as compared to only 2.5 for the total sample.

These trends suggest that the formulation of occupational plans may be strongly influenced by parental identification. This observation seems substantiated by the fact that among the students with positive parental identification the percentage of definite planners is higher than it is for the total sample; also by the fact that among the students with recorded negative parental identification the percentage of non-planners is higher than it is for the total sample.

#### X. Parental Role Concept of Women:

The term "role concept of women" is here understood as the parents' perception of the role they expect women to play within the family and the community. By some parents this role is solely conceived in terms of marriage, procreation of children and volunteer part-time activities in a given community. Others consider it as meaningful that.

women render occupational services to a larger social group than her own family and that they try to work out a pattern of occupational participation which still permits them to perform their duties of home-management and child-care.

Reference to TABLE 30<sup>1</sup> indicates that this influence vector ranks tenth in the number of recorded familial influences on occupational planning.

For the majority of this particular response group the parental influences related to role concept of women could be perceived as operating against planning. It is a vector in which the researchers have inferred from the data more than in various others because the parental role concept of women often permeates the family setting subconsciously and cannot clearly be recognized by the family members.

That negative familial influences predominate in this category can be subject to various ways of interpretation: It may be partly related to the fact that the sample in question stems from high income families. The favorable economic climate exercises little pressure on the employment of its female members; they can easily be supported by the head of the family who is often proud of his earning capacity. Moreover, in such a socio-economic climate, especially when it is established by tradition, the physical accommodation, the preparation of food, social life and leisure are all so much more complicated and refined than in the lower income group, that they require full time

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<sup>1</sup>Supra, p. 155.

attention of a homemaker (either in the supervision of domestic help or in the performance of the task). This was undoubtedly what several of the students referred to when they stated: "Once I am married, my whole day will be filled, even if I should have no children. There are so many things a married woman has to do at home and in her community that marriage is important enough in itself." It is to be noted however that socio-economic level is not the only factor that influences the parents' occupational role concept of their daughter. Cultural tradition, at times intermixed with religious motivation, are important elements as well. For example, the Jewish group renders a proportionally higher number of negative familial influences related to parental role concept of women than the Protestant group.

Another inhibiting factor is the fact that many generations of a strongly marriage oriented role concept of women have limited the frame of occupational reference for women. This makes it all the more difficult for those who want to choose a career to arrive at a choice which is compatible with the unique female somatic and psychological characteristics and to be accepted when performing the chosen career in a given socio-cultural locale. With the world's increasing marginality of living (food, clothing, shelter, basic education) and with the increasing awareness that through international cooperation the world's unequally distributed resources have to be coordinated, woman's participation in community services (at least for some period in her life) will in the future be more necessary than ever. It will be important though that women become employed in occupations which are most suitable to woman's uniqueness in occupational partici-

pation, that is: a largely reproductive, serving, caring type of function, which involves a great deal of personal devotion, a feeling for refined interpersonal relationships, charm, eye for detail, and accuracy.

If so many of the parents in question have a role concept of women which is marriage oriented only, how will they be able to offer adequate guidance to a daughter who wants to choose a career? It would seem that the parents could benefit from guided group discussions concerning role concept of women and their typical occupational qualities.

Many laymen in the occupational field take the stand that a woman's place is in the home, and that allowing her to participate in any form of industry or other community services is basically against the nature of the family and against the nature of women. One should however not forget that so many tasks which formerly were performed by women in the family setting are now taken away from her due to the complexity of the modern machinal production method. In the basic family the women were occupied with duties such as: weaving, agriculture, pottery, care of cattle, baking of bread, preserving food, cosmetics, arts, fabrication of dairy products, teaching, care of the sick and neighbour services. At present the above named functions have all become highly specialised and for that purpose they had to be taken away from the family. Therefore, if women want to continue some of these formerly commonly accepted female occupations they will have to go out into the community and perform duties of the same or of a similar kind in the complex industrial world which has been

erected around these onetime domestic functions. To make ~~many~~ of these functions re-accessable for women while at the same time taking into account the technical development in these functions and the greater specialization and training to be met by women will be one of the major objectives of occupational guidance at various levels and in various forms.

#### XI. Parental Economic Influences:

As shown in TABLE 30<sup>1</sup> familial influences on occupational planning related to economic circumstances are reported by more than 40 percent of the students. It is the vector with greatest discrepancy between paternal and maternal influence categories. Because the majority of the fathers <sup>the</sup> in sample ~~are~~ the sole providers for their family, it is logical that more economic influences are specifically related to the father. In some cases the high paternal income level is perceived as a positive influence because it has liberally provided the student' with financial support of her plans. For other students the father's high income level seems to have contributed negatively towards occupational planning because the need to plan seems to be absent and the whole process of occupational crystallisation has remained rather amorphous and passive. Some fathers ~~a~~re regarded as negative influence on planning because they passed away prematurely, leaving the family no means for economic survival. Other fathers are perceived as having

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<sup>1</sup>Supra, p.155.

precipitated planning just through such circumstances.

As has been mentioned before in this Chapter, it has been impossible to separate "low income" as a familial influence factor from low level of parental education and from the negative influences related to a parent's death. This and the fact that the low income group comprises only 12 families of the total sample, makes a comparison between high- and low- income groups impossible.

### XII. Parental Identification as Perceived by the Students:

From the discussion of vector IX, named "Parental Identification as Perceived by the Interviewers", the reader is familiar with the definition of "identification"<sup>1</sup> and with the fact that the identification process is largely a subconscious one but that by intelligent persons a certain amount of this subconscious material can be brought to the conscious level.

As is shown in TABLE 30,<sup>2</sup> about 40 percent of the students in question has been able to verbalize the existence and the direction of their parental identification. The high educational level of the students and the favorable non-directive atmosphere created by the researchers can be regarded as contributing factors to the high percentage of verbalization related to parental identification in the time of one Interview.

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<sup>1</sup>Supra, p. 155.

<sup>2</sup>Supra, p. 155.

The following information is indicative of the extent of agreement between the identification reported by the student and that perceived by the interviewer. In 18 cases the identification reported by the students could be substantiated by the interviewers. In 27 cases the students reported identification as an influence which the researchers did not feel justified to enter as influence because of lack of evidence. In 16 cases the students did not perceive or not report an identification which for the researchers was clearly an influence factor. Only once were the views of interviewer and interviewee opposed (positive-negative) and once the views were in contrast (positive-ambivalent).

It is to be noted that the cases of negative identification were less frequently reported by the students than by the researchers. This seems to be related to the fact that it was most difficult for the girls in question to verbalize a negative parental identification because they were too much emotionally involved in such a negative relationship.

#### XIII. Parental Cultural Background:

As TABLE 30<sup>1</sup> indicates the cultural background of the parents is reported by about one fourth of the students as an influence on occupational planning. These influences are largely reported in unitendent

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<sup>1</sup>Supra, p.155

parental pairs, which suggests the strong cultural alignment of the parents. In some families it has been a cultural tradition that girls prepare themselves for a career which requires college training. In other families the parental role concept of women has been determined by cultural value that perceives women as only marriage oriented.

The paternal influence-factor in this vector has been found positively related to paternal identification.<sup>1</sup>

#### XIV. Former Parental Deprivation:

This influence vector is indicated as influential by one fourth of the students in question (TABLE 30)<sup>2</sup>. It is largely related to financial deprivation and in the majority of the cases the parents have dealt constructively with their past frustrating experiences by helping their daughter to safeguard herself against the re-occurrence of such misfortune. This help is offered in terms of encouragement and financial support towards occupational training at college level, thus providing the daughter with a great security investment throughout life.

#### XV. Parental Occupation:

As indicated in TABLE 30<sup>3</sup> parental occupation is reported by

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<sup>1</sup>Supra, p.155.

<sup>3</sup>Supra, p.155.

<sup>2</sup>Supra, p.155.



about one third of the students as an influence related to occupational planning. In this vector the paternal influence seems to predominate, especially as a positive influence. The parent by whose occupation the student feels influenced positively or negatively appears to be in several cases the parent with whom the student has a positive or negative identification.

It should also be mentioned that whenever a parental occupation is mentioned as a positive influence, the parent with the influencing career has had college education.

Many social scientists who have been concerned with the problem of occupational choice, have tried to study a possible relationship between a person's choice and the father's occupation. As early as 1921 Baumgarten,<sup>1</sup> Erich Stern<sup>2</sup> and Fontegne<sup>3</sup> arrived independently at rather contrasting conclusions to which mention will be made later. In 1927 Cunliffe<sup>4</sup> in his study of college freshmen reported a relatively high number of students patterning their father's career (39 percent for

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<sup>1</sup>Franziska Baumgarten, Berufswünsche und Lieblingsfächer begabter Berliner Gemeindeschüler, Langensalza: 1921.

<sup>2</sup>Erich Stern, "Die Feststellung der psychischen Berufseignung und die Schule", Zeitschrift für Angewandte Psychologie, Beiheft 26, Leipzig: 1921.

<sup>3</sup>J. Fontegne, L'orientation professionnelle et la détermination des aptitudes, Geneve: 1921.

<sup>4</sup>R.B. Cunliffe, "Whither away and why: trends in choice of vocation in Detroit", Personnel Journal, 1927, VI, p. 26

engineering: 68 percent for business). in 1931 Lazarsfeld<sup>1</sup> introduced a new term to indicate the percentage of persons who follow their father's career. He called it "Traditionskoeffizient" (T.K.).<sup>2</sup> The extensive study by Friedrich and Voigt<sup>3</sup> which comprehended 13,765 persons did unfortunately not relate the list of paternal occupations to the planned occupations of their respective sons. Therefore a valid T.K. could not be derived from this study. Kroger and Louttil<sup>4</sup> report in their study of 4543 high school boys that only a very small number of the boys wanted to follow the father's occupation. In 1933 Sparling<sup>5</sup> in a study of 1011 Long Island University students reported that 3.2 percent of the men students and 3.5 percent of the women students chose the same vocation as their father. In 1950 Bordewijk<sup>6</sup> published the results of a study of 1000 Technical School students in The Hague. He reported an occupational T.K. of 13.7 percent.

In the present study the researchers have attempted to establish the T.K. of the occupational choice of the students in question. A special difficulty is however the fact that the sample consists of women

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<sup>1</sup>Paul Lazarsfeld, Jugend und Beruf, Jena, 1931.

<sup>2</sup>For the remainder of this Chapter the term "Traditionskoeffizient" will be indicated in abbreviation by the capitalised initials T.K.

<sup>3</sup>Th. Friedrich und W. Voigt, Berufswünsche und Zukunftspläne der Jugend an höheren Schulen, Breslau: 1928.

<sup>4</sup>Kroger and Louttil, "The influence of father's occupation on the vocational choice of high school boys", Journal of Applied Psychology 19, p. 203 - 212.

<sup>5</sup>Ed. F. Sparling, Do College Students Choose Wisely?, New York, 1933.

<sup>6</sup>Dr. W. Bordewijk, De Ambachtsschool Jogen en zijn Beroep (transl. title: The Technical School Boy and his Career), Groningen, 1950.

only and that with so many of the girls' mothers having at one time received a specific occupational training, it may be justified to establish a separate T.K. related to the mother's career. In fact the researchers have found a T.K. of 7 percent for the paternal occupations and a T.K. of 13 percent for the maternal occupations. The following table may bring greater clarity to the various comparisons:

TABLE 31

LIST OF PREVIOUSLY ESTABLISHED TRADITIONSKOEFFIZIENTE  
COMPARED WITH THE FINDINGS OF THE PRESENT STUDY:

| Name of author:            | Paternal T.K. | Maternal T.K. |
|----------------------------|---------------|---------------|
| Sparling.....for boys -    | 3.2           |               |
| for girls -                | 3.5           |               |
| Present study.....         | 7             |               |
| Reininger,.....            | 8             |               |
| Baumgarten.....            | 11            |               |
| Present study.....         |               | 13            |
| Bordewijk.....             | 13            |               |
| Fontegne.....              | 21.1          |               |
| Cunliffe.....engineering - | 39.6          |               |
| Stern.....                 | 42.31         |               |
| Cunliffe.....business -    | 68.3          |               |

Why this discrepancy between the various researchers? Why a relatively low T.K. among the students of the sample in question? Sparling, Reininger, Baumgarten and Bordewijk all studied labouring class children. It appears that in the lower classes the majority of the children wants to select an occupation of higher level than that of their parents. This may be related to the fact that the lower class child sees many of the dark sides of the father's occupation, such as the limited wages, the monotony, fatigue, change of shifts, lack of social status, difficulties with bosses. For the higher classes the matter is often different. It is attractive for an adolescent to follow his father's footsteps if the latter has enjoyed prestige and if he has provided his family with the comforts of life. Moreover, in the higher socio-economic classes the father's career is often the result of prolonged arduous work and is flourishing by the established good-will of personally known clients. This causes often considerable social and parental pressure to take over the father's business or practice. This tendency seems to be substantiated by the studies of Fontegne, and of Cunliffe who studied upper class children.

That the T.K. found for the students in question ranks so low among the other findings (this against the expectation warranted from an upper social class group) seems to be largely related to the fact that the persons in question are all women and that it must be hard for them to pattern a paternal career on such high social, educational and competitive level. One girl of the sample who is

very fond of her father and proud of his medical career, said that she would like to imitate some aspects of his talents, but not his career because she does not think that it would permit her to maintain her typical female qualities. Another girl of the sample said she has inherited some qualities from her father and wants to pattern her father's interest in public relations. The father uses his special ability in his career (banking) where he promotes the public relations department. The daughter feels that banking is a typical male career. In order to have an opportunity to develop public relations as part of a career, she plans to take on employment in the public relations department of a religiously oriented publishing company.

It would seem therefore that sex differences limit the girls' drastically in the imitation of their fathers' career. A higher percentage of the students are reported to have entered their mothers' career. Of particular interest in this study is that the imitation of the maternal career took most frequently place in the field of teaching. This may be partly related to the fact that teaching as such has always provided a great many opportunities for women. Also teaching in time requirements is compatible with homemaking and the skill which one acquires in handling children while teaching is often believed to be an ideal preparation for motherhood. A third factor at work here is undoubtedly the identification with the mother's personality. It is interesting to note that van Calcar<sup>1</sup> in his study

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<sup>1</sup>R. van Calcar, De Psychologie der Beroepskeuze Arts en Onderwijzer (transl. "The Psychology of the Occupational Choice of Physician and Teacher), Leiden: 1929.

of the psychological choice aspects of medicine and teaching as careers, contributes a great deal of this particular choice to identification. He goes so far as to state that physicians and teachers who choose their career with identification as the basic motivation are among the best in their field.

#### XVI. Social Influences Via the Parents:

TABLE 30<sup>1</sup> indicates that 11 students report familial influences on occupational planning as stemming from friends of the parents. All except one are viewed as positive influences and they are reported with equal frequency from the paternal and the maternal side. Several friends in this category were themselves representatives of the career which they encouraged for the student. (Social worker, teacher).

#### XVII. Parental Religion:

As is shown in TABLE 30<sup>2</sup>, parental religious influences are reported by only 8 students as a motivating force in occupational planning. This influence is reported with equal frequency for both parents, and it is distributed equally over the various religious denominations.

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<sup>1</sup>Supra, p. 155.

<sup>2</sup>Supra, p. 155.

Proportionally more negative than positive influences are recorded in this vector, and these negative influences are all unidentical paired parental. They are perceived by the students in question as related to an orthodox-religious outlook of parents who belong to the Jewish and Roman Catholic denomination and who on religious grounds are reported to view a woman's role largely as marriage oriented.

A concrete example of how parental religion has been viewed as an influence on the student's occupational planning is a student who sees her interests in social work related to a maternal trend toward charitable work with a strong religious motivation. Another example is the girl who under influence of her father's religious outlook is seeking employment with an editing bureau which publishes religious books and pamphlets.

Because the vector on parental religion yielded few reported influences, the writer compared the total number of familial influences reported by the Protestant students with the familial influences reported by the students of Jewish parentage as to its quantity and direction. As TABLE 32<sup>1</sup> indicates, there is a difference in percentage between the positive, negative and ambivalent influences when compared with the total sample. It is to be noted that the Roman Catholic element was too inadequately represented in this sample to warrant a comparison.

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<sup>1</sup>Infra, p. 190.

TABLE 32

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF DIFFERENCES IN FAMILIAL INFLUENCES  
ON OCCUPATIONAL PLANNING BETWEEN THE STUDENT GROUPS OF PRO-  
TESTANT AND OF JEWISH PARENTAGE:

| Familial influences   | Total Sample |             | Protestant  |             | Jewish      |             |
|-----------------------|--------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
|                       | Num-<br>ber  | Per<br>Cent | Num-<br>ber | Per<br>Cent | Num-<br>ber | Per<br>Cent |
| Total influences      | 1096         | 100         | 516         | 100         | 397         | 100         |
| Positive influences   | 664          | 61          | 337         | 65          | 191         | 48          |
| Negative influences   | 178          | 16          | 69          | 14          | 97          | 24          |
| Ambivalent influences | 254          | 23          | 110         | 21          | 209         | 28          |

The group of Jewish parentage reports a decrease in positive familial influences and a corresponding increase in negative and ambivalent influences when compared with the influences recorded for the total sample. This difference does seem to be less related to the religious outlook in itself than to other factors such as the Jewish paternal career which seems to be a less positively stimulating one for the Jewish girls than for the Protestant students; also a lesser degree of parental participation in planning reported by the Jewish students; further more a lower positive attitude towards planning among the Jewish parents than among the Protestant parents; finally a lower paternal identification among the Jewish students than among the Protestant girls.



It appears that the majority of the Jewish fathers in sample are manufacturers and merchants. They are engaged in a kind of enterprise that leaves little time for regular family life. Moreover, their type of career and career-status seems to offer less ground for idealization and identification than many of the careers in the Protestant father group. It is also to be noted that only 25 percent of the Jewish fathers in sample had college education, as compared to 50 percent college education among the Protestant fathers. For the Occupational training or experience of the mothers in question, the following could be reported: almost 60 percent of the Jewish mothers in sample have no other experience than domestic activities, whereas only 40 percent of the Protestant mothers reported such a limited occupational experience.

All these factors together have probably induced a less participating and less stimulating influence on occupational planning by the Jewish parents, than by the Protestant parents in question, but they do not seem to be mainly related to religion in the strict sense of the word.

#### XVIII. Civil Status of the Parents:

According to TABLE 30<sup>1</sup> this vector of familial influences is reported as an influence by only 9 students. The negative influences are in the majority and they appear to be largely related to the father's

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<sup>1</sup>Supra, p. 155.

absence due to death, divorce or separation. The loss of the father is mostly felt as a debilitating or postponing factor in occupational planning. This debilitation is not so much viewed as financial in nature, but as the loss of a cherished person who had stimulated planning toward a given career or career level.

In order to obtain a fuller picture of the possible effects of the father's prolonged absence, also in instances where this effect was not perceived by the student nor by the interviewer in question, a comparison was made between the familial influences reported by the 12 students whose true father had passed away and those reported by the total sample. The deceased father families exhibit a decreased proportion of positive and negative influences on planning and a considerable increase in ambivalent influences (TABLE 33)<sup>1</sup>. This would be in keeping with statements of some of the students that the father's absence has not caused any great influence against planning, but that it has created an atmosphere of personal uncertainty and of decreased perception of what actually the final direction of the father's influence has been. This uncertainty is also reflected in the fact that the students whose true father is deceased are nearly all in the tentative plans or in the "no-plans" group.

It is to be noted that the proportion of paired parental influences recorded for the families with deceased fathers is hardly

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<sup>1</sup>  
Infra, p. 193.

TABLE 33

FAMILY INFLUENCES ON THE OCCUPATIONAL PLANNING OF 12 STUDENTS WHOSE TRUE FATHER IS ABSENT DUE TO DEATH, AS COMPARED WITH THE TOTAL NUMBER OF FAMILY INFLUENCES:

| F A M I L Y                  |             |              | I N F L U E N C E S    |             |              |
|------------------------------|-------------|--------------|------------------------|-------------|--------------|
| Students missing true father |             |              | Total student group    |             |              |
| Influences:                  | Num-<br>ber | Per<br>Cent  | Influences:            | Num-<br>ber | Per<br>Cent  |
| Total                        | 186         | 100          | Total                  | 1096        | 100          |
| Positive                     | 104         | 56           | Positive               | 664         | 61           |
| Negative                     | 23          | 12           | Negative               | 178         | 16           |
| Ambivalent                   | 59          | 32           | Ambivalent             | 254         | 23           |
| Influences per person:       |             | Aver-<br>age | Influences per person: |             | Aver-<br>age |
| Total Average                |             | 15.5         | Total Average          |             | 15.5         |
| Positive                     |             | 8.7          | Positive               |             | 9.4          |
| Negative                     |             | 1.9          | Negative               |             | 2.5          |
| Ambivalent                   |             | 4.9          | Ambivalent             |             | 3.6          |

different from the paired parental influences recorded for the total sample. This is probably related to the fact that the deceased fathers of the students in question had passed away in recent years (the majority of the fathers were over 45 when they died). This means that they must have had already a definite influence on the girl's occupational planning, or at least on the development of interests. Thus it could easily happen that a student still did view the parental influences as paired.

XIX. Other Relatives: XX. Family Size: XXI. Parental Ill Health:

Other relatives are reported as influential by 5 students; family size is mentioned by 2 students as a familial factor related to planning; parental ill health is perceived by 3 students as a familial influence. Because the number of respondents in these three vectors is extremely low, the writer feels justified in omitting interpretation of the data. The distribution of positive, negative and ambivalent influences for these particular vectors can be found in TABLE 30.<sup>1</sup>

XII. The Parental Age:

As is evident from TABLE 30<sup>2</sup> the age of the parents is the only influence vector in which no influences are reported by the

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<sup>1</sup>Supra, p. 155.

<sup>2</sup>Supra, p. 155.

students, nor referred ~~from~~ from the interview content by the interviewers. This suggests that by none of the students in question the distance in age between them and their parents and/or the discrepancy in age between the pairs of parents has been perceived as an influential factor in occupational planning. Yet the writer has felt it worthwhile to study this question by perusing other data at hand. For each student the distance in age between herself and her father and mother has been determined and also the discrepancy in age between the parents. For the sake of homogeneity, pairs of parents with one step-parent were left out of this comparison.

The fathers of the sample differ between 22 and 44 years with the students and their average distance in age from the students can be established at 33.5 years. The mothers of the sample differ between 21 and 42 years with the students, and their average age difference is 29.5 years. The discrepancy in age between the pairs of living parents ranges from zero to 14 years, with an average difference of 3.6 years.

When the student group with the greatest age distance between students and parents is compared with the total sample as to quantity and quality of recorded familial influences, qualitatively the following differences exist between the two samples: the student group with the more aged fathers reports an increased proportion of positive familial influences and a decreased proportion of negative familial influences. The students with the more aged fathers report also

a proportionally increased number of sibling influences on planning when compared with the total sample. This is related to the fact that this older parent group is apt to have more children and that the siblings are more likely to be older than the students in question.

The tendencies just mentioned become even more pronounced when the familial influences of the students with closest distance in age to the parents are analysed. The familial influences recorded for this group are considerably below the percentage of hypothetical maximum recorded for the total sample. Proportionally fewer positive and ambivalent influences were perceived by the students with young fathers and markedly more negative influences than the percentage recorded for the total sample. There are trends in the data which suggest that the more aged the parents are, the more the father's influence is felt as a positive factor in planning. This is in accordance with the fact that in the student sample with older parents the reported and perceived positive identification with the father tends to increase, while in the student sample with younger parents the mother figure seems to be more frequently found to be the person with whom the student is identifying. This trend however may be partly related to religion, education and career type of the fathers in the two age groups compared: the writer finds only one Jewish father and one Jewish mother among the parents of the older age group, whereas almost half of the younger parent group in question is Jewish. This introduces factors in the younger age group which have

been mentioned before when Protestant and Jewish families were compared, namely that there is less college level education among the Jewish fathers and that also their kind of career seems to offer lesser attraction for identification than that of the Protestant parent group.

These findings would seem to indicate that the younger parents are likely to be more in need of expert assistance in occupational guidance than the older parent group. It would also seem that especially the Jewish parents would benefit from individual and group guidance in matters relating to their daughter's occupational planning.

#### PATERNAL VERSUS THE MATERNAL INFLUENCES

##### General Characteristics:

The researchers felt that it was important to study the paternal and maternal influences on the students planning separately, because differences in kind and degree of influences may have direct consequences for those who work regularly with parents in the field of occupational guidance, education, social work and the ministry.

The sum-total of recorded paternal and maternal differences does however hardly show any discrepancy. Of the totally recorded 1096 familial influences, only 42 paternal influences are in excess of the maternal ones (TABLE 30).<sup>1</sup> What discrepancy there is, relates largely

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<sup>1</sup>Supra, p. 155.

to the economic status and the civil status of the father. For these two vectors the negative paternal influences are in excess of the maternal ones. Such influence could be expected to originate from fathers who passed away prematurely (civil status) and whose death had a drastic effect upon the family income (economic status).

#### The Paired Parental Influences:

As has been stated earlier in this chapter where the writer defined "paired parental influences", it has been expected by the researchers that the parents as a pair would exercise a unique kind of influence, and that their symbiotic relationship would result in a considerable degree of alignment between paternal and maternal influences related to their daughter's occupational planning. Therefore it has been expected that a considerable number of unitendent<sup>1</sup> paired parental influences would be found among the recorded familial influences on planning.

It is furthermore the writer's opinion that these unitendent paired parental influences are considerably stronger in impact than if they had operated in an isolated fashion. The parents have a constant opportunity for mutual discussion and re-alignment of their influential attitudes and activities relevant to the childrens' future. This dual influence is imposed on the student every day due to the presence of the child in or near the parental home and it gains even more in impact

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<sup>1</sup>Supra, p.144.



due to the fact that in many cases the students are in a dependent situation because they are financially supported by the parents both in every day living and in the expenses of their college training.

The high incidence of unitendent paired parental influences on occupational planning of the students in question could be substantiated in this study.

As to the reenforcing effect of such alignment of parental influences, little is demonstrable quantitatively because this study is not geared to deal with this dimension of influence and there is too small a control group of students who grew up with only one parent.

#### The Unitendent Paired Parental Influences:<sup>1</sup>

Almost three quarters of the totally recorded familial influences on occupational planning are paired parental influences (TABLE 34).<sup>2</sup> Of these paired parental influences \$ 450 (56 percent) are unitendent positive in direction (positive-positive); 196 (24 percent) are unitendent ambivalent (ambivalent-ambivalent); 124 (15 percent) are unitendent negative (negative-negative); and 36 (5 percent) are either opposed (positive-negative; negative-positive) or contrasting (positive-ambivalent; negative-ambivalent; ambivalent-positive; ambivalent-negative).

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<sup>1</sup>Supra, p. 144.

<sup>2</sup>Infra, p. 200.

TABLE 34

PAIRED PARENTAL INFLUENCES ON OCCUPATIONAL PLANNING  
GROUPED ACCORDING TO THEIR PERCENTAGE OF THE TOTAL  
PARENTAL INFLUENCES IN EACH VECTOR:

| Vector:  | Pairs of Parental Influences | Percentage of Unitendent-Paired Influences |
|--|------------------------------|--|
| All Vectors:   | 402                          | 73   |
| General parental attitude towards university attendance  | 26                           | 93   |
| Specific parental attitude towards university attendance | 55                           | 91   |
| Perceived parental influence                             | 40                           | 90   |
| Parental role  | 58                           | 88   |
| Participation of parents                                 | 45                           | 88   |
| Education of Parents                                     | 35                           | 78   |
| Parental role concept of women                           | 32                           | 77   |
| Parental attitude toward planning                        | 32                           | 74   |
| Parental cultural background                             | 10                           | 74   |
| Parental occupational expectations                       | 26                           | 73   |
| Family size  | 1                            | 67   |
| Other relatives  | 1                            | 67   |
| Parental deprivation                                     | 8                            | 62   |
| Parental religion  | 3                            | 54   |
| Parental social relations                                | 3                            | 50   |
| Parental economic influences                             | 8                            | 41   |
| Inferred parental identification                         | 9                            | 37   |
| Reported parental identification                         | 7                            | 37   |
| Parental occupation                                      | 3                            | 24   |
| Age and civil status                                     | 0                            | 0  |

Of the total recorded paired parental influences 95 percent are unitendent, which would seem to indicate a high degree of inter-parent alignment of attitudes and activities related to the student's occupational planning. The researchers are aware of some possible distortion of data here due to ~~the~~ fact that the parental alignment may have been an external conformity only in one of the parental partners. There is also the possibility that some students were consciously or subconsciously reluctant to report the influence perceived from their parents as opposing or contrasting. Yet these two sources of possible distortion do not seem to be potent enough to explain the 95 percent recorded unitendency of the paired parental influences on planning.

Closer examination of the unitendent paired parental influences reveals that the proportions of positive, negative and ambivalent pairs do follow closely the proportions between positive, negative and ambivalent influences recorded for the total sample (TABLE 35)<sup>1</sup>.

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<sup>1</sup>Infra, p. 202.

TABLE 35

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE UNITENDENT POSITIVE  
NEGATIVE AND AMBIVALENT PAIRED-PARENTAL INFLUENCES AND THE POSITIVE,  
NEGATIVE AND AMBIVALENT FAMILIAL INFLUENCES IN THE TOTAL SAMPLE:

| FAMILIAL INFLUENCES        |             |             |                           |             |             |
|----------------------------|-------------|-------------|---------------------------|-------------|-------------|
| Unitendent paired parental |             |             | Total familial influences |             |             |
| Influences:                | Num-<br>ber | Per<br>Cent |                           | Num-<br>ber | Per<br>Cent |
| Total                      | 770         | 100         | Total                     | 1096        | 100         |
| Positive                   | 450         | 58          | Positive                  | 664         | 61          |
| Negative                   | 124         | 16          | Negative                  | 178         | 16          |
| Ambivalent                 | 196         | 25          | Ambivalent                | 254         | 23          |

The greatest percentage of unitendent paired parental influences is found in the following vectors: general parental attitude towards university attendance; specific parental attitude towards university attendance of their own daughter; parental influence as perceived by the students; parental role in planning and parental participation in planning.

The highest percentage of positively directed unitendent paired influences is reported for the vector of the parents' specific attitude towards university attendance of their own daughter. The highest percentage of negative unitendent paired parental influences is recorded for the vector of the parents' role concept of women. The vector with the greatest percentage of unitendent ambivalent paired parental

influences is the students' appreciation of the non-directive parental role in occupational planning.

The Pairs of Opposed Parental Influences:<sup>1</sup>

Only ten pairs of parental influences have a diagonally opposed direction of influences. They consist largely of pairs in which the father plays a negative role and the mother a positive role. They are found in the following vectors: parental role concept of women; parental expectations; parental attitude towards planning; parental identification.

The Pairs of Contrasting Parental Influences:<sup>2</sup>

Only eight pairs of parental influences are reported to be contrasting. The majority of these pairs are of the combination positive-ambivalent and seem to be related largely to the same categories as mentioned above under opposed parental influences.

It does seem that the opposed and contrasting pairs of parental influences are seldom found isolated among the familial influences recorded per student. They appear to have the tendency to form clusters of two and three pairs per person. In these clusters the paternal and maternal direction of influence usually remains the same. The sample is too small to exhibit a consistent chain-reaction among the pairs just mentioned. There are nevertheless some indications that parental

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<sup>1</sup>Supra, p. 144.

<sup>2</sup>Supra, p. 144.

attitude towards planning, parental influences as perceived by the students, parental participation and parental identification are likely to be mutually related.

#### FAMILIAL INFLUENCES AND PLANNING LEVEL

##### The Definite Plans Group Versus the "No-Plans" Group:

For the students falling in the category of definite planners towards a career, 206 familial influences are recorded. This is 28 percent of its hypothetical maximum, hence in consistency with the frequency of familial influences recorded for the total sample.

There is however a difference in proportions between the positive, negative and ambivalent influences as compared to the proportions in the total sample. While positive and negative familial influences are reported in decreased frequency by the definite planners, the ambivalent influences are reported with markedly increased frequency. This seems to suggest that the students who have already arrived at definite arrangements for post-graduation employment are more uncertain as to what actually the direction of their parents' influence has been than the students of the "no-plans" and tentative plans group.

The positive influences reported by the definite planners show a high proportion of paternal influences related to the father's education or educational aspirations. About 75 percent of the fathers in this group are of college aspiration and about 60 percent of them are graduates of a recognised university. This is in sharp contrast with the

"no-plans" group of students which reports only 30 percent of positive paternal influences related to the father's educational aspirations. Less than half of the fathers in the "no-plans" group had university education (44 percent).

On the whole the "no-plans" group of students reports a number of familial influences on planning which is proportionally lower than the percentage of hypothetical maximum reported for the total sample. In the "no-plans" group there is also a marked increase of negative familial influences at the expense of positive and ambivalent influences. These negative influences are largely related to economic problems of the father, the parental role concept of women, the parental attitude towards planning and parental identification.

It is also of interest to note that in the "no-plans" group more mothers of the students in question have a university degree than the fathers and that almost 70 percent of the "no-plans" group consists of students whose family income exceeds the \$10,000 level. It must be said though that the group of positive planners and non-planners is so small that is only justified to speak of certain trends which warrant further statistical investigation.

What is said about the higher educational level of the mothers in the "no-plans" group seems to be substantiated by the fact that whereas in the positive plans group the paternal exceed the maternal ones, there is no such difference in the "no-plans" group. There seems to be a stronger maternal influence on the no-planners especially in the vectors of maternal education, maternal occupation, maternal role concept of women and maternal identification.

There is no indication that the distance in age between the "no-plans" students and their parents was any different from those in the definite plans group. There seems however to be a trend among the parents of the "no-plans" group to be of greater discrepancy in age (average discrepancy 5.1 as compared to an average age discrepancy of 3.5) for the total sample of parents.

#### The Tentative Plans Group:

This group shows in every aspect the same general and proportional tendencies as those reported for the total student sample. For this group goes largely what has been described under the successive vectors.

#### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

##### Summary:

This Chapter has been a first step in the process of testing the second working hypothesis that familial influences are predominant in the period of occupational planning of the student group in question.

All the students in the sample reported familial influences on planning with an average of 15 influences per subject and a range from 2 to 32.

Qualitatively the familial influences are perceived for 61 percent of the sample as positive, for 23 percent as ambivalent and for 16 percent as negative in direction. The greatest number of positive influences relates to the parents' specific attitude towards university attendance



and to the parents' education. The greatest number of negative influences relates to parental role concept of women and to the father's economic influence. The greatest number of ambivalent influences relates to the students' evaluation of the parents' non-directive role in planning and to the total parental influence as perceived by the students.

The most frequently reported influence vectors are: parental role (directive or non-directive); specific parental attitude towards their daughter's university attendance; parental participation in planning; parental education or educational aspiration; parental attitude towards planning; parental occupational expectations and parental identification.

The most insignificant vectors are: parental civil status; relatives; family size; and parental ill health.

Familial influences are for the majority perceived as induced by the parents and for only 7 percent by siblings, relatives and parental friends. Of all the parental influences, 74 percent are paired parental, and the greater majority of these paired influences are unidentical in direction.

There are quantitative and qualitative differences between the definite plan and the "no-plans" groups; also between the high and the low income group; between the older and younger parent group; and between the groups of Protestant and Jewish parentage. However these differences in familial influences on planning are not solely related to the main differentiating aspect under which they were compared, but are induced by a complex set of factors which due to the limitations of this study could not be completely isolated.

In general, it can be said that familial influences have been perceived by the students in great number and in many different ways. Their influence on the students in question can at least be called strong. Whether or not they have been the predominant factor in occupational planning will be discussed in Chapter VIII where familial influences are compared with non-familial influences on occupational planning. They are also unique through their great mutual alignment of paternal and maternal influences.

From this Chapter on familial influences on occupational planning of the students in question some specific conclusions can be drawn:

1. Family influences are recognised by all the students as having been influential on occupational planning with an average of 15 influences per subject.
2. For 61 percent of the sample, the familial influences are perceived as positive, for 23 percent as ambivalent and for 16 percent as negative in their effect on planning.
3. The greatest number of positive influences relates to the parents' specific attitude toward university attendance of their daughter, and also to the parents' own education or their educational aspiration. The greatest number of negative influences relates to parental role concept of women and to the father's economic influence. The greatest number of ambivalent influences relates to the students' evaluation of the parents' non-directive role in planning, and to the total parental influence as perceived by the students.

4. The role which the parents played in the students' occupational planning is largely reported as non-directive and seldom as directive. There are indications that parents of low educational level are more apt to be directive than the parents with higher education. Whenever parents play a directive role in planning, the students tend to rate it as a negative or ambivalent influence. The non-directive parental role is difficult to evaluate by the students in sample and therefore largely viewed as ambivalent.

5. Half of the parents stimulates positively a higher level of education for their daughter than they themselves had.

6. The total parental influences per student are so complex that the subjects remain largely ambivalent as to the final direction of the parents' influence in planning.

7. The high percentage of negative familial influences related to the parents' role concept of women seems to be partly associated with socio-economic, education, cultural and religious values. Particularly among the Jewish group this influence factor operated frequently against planning.

8. Twelve percent of the parents in <sup>the</sup> sample reports occupational expectations for their daughter which surpass their own occupational level. About one third of the parents express their expectations of their daughters through concrete occupational suggestions. It does seem however that by the majority of the parents these expectations are not imposed on the student and that many students use interest and talent as a basis for choice. Thirteen percent of the students plan to choose their mothers' occupation and 7 percent plan to imitate their fathers' career.

9. Economic familial influences seem to be largely related to the father. There are some indications that the low-income group has induced proportionally more negative influences than the higher income group. Here however it was impossible to isolate completely other factors such as the father's premature death and parental low education.

10. Absence of the father due to death, separation or divorce seems to have a debilitating effect on occupational planning of the students in sample, especially in terms of the loss of an identification object' and related uncertainty.

11. Familial influences are for the majority perceived as stemming from the parents; only 7 percent of the influences originated from the siblings, relatives and parental friends.

12. Parental and maternal influences show great alignment; 74 percent are paired parental influences, and these pairs are predominantly unitendent in direction.

13. The definite plans group of students reports proportionally fewer negative influences than the "no-plans" group. It seems that the father's education, parental identification and paternal culture have been strongly influential factors for the definite plans group.

14. Parents of students in the "no-plans" group were characterised by a lower level paternal education than students in the other planning groups, by a more negative role concept of women, by a more negative attitude towards occupational planning and by less frequent positive identification on the part of the student. These circumstances induced a higher proportion of negative familial influences for this group than

for the definite or tentative plans group. Moreover the "no-plans" group is largely from families with an annual income which exceed \$10,000.

15. Parental identification has been found to be a strong influential factor on occupational planning, both on the paternal and the maternal side and also affects many other aspects of parental influences as well. For the father it seems positively related to culture, occupation, attitude towards planning and attitude towards college attendance. For the mother it seems to be positively related to education.

16. There are indications that the younger the parents are, the stronger the influence of the mother seems to be, and the older the parents are, the more influential the father becomes on occupational planning. It was however not possible to isolate religion, education and occupation as co-influential factors.

A practical conclusion from the findings in this Chapter is that parents would probably benefit from an organized counselling service either within the school setting or within the community. In personal interviews as well as in group contacts they probably require help to gain insight into the various aspects of their influential role in occupational planning. Through a better understanding than hitherto of the scope and technique of the non-directive approach, they would be better equipped than hitherto to counsel their adolescent children. They would also benefit by more factual information about various groups

of occupations, their personal, social and educational prerequisites. They might be helped to broaden their role concept of women in present day society.

Questions To Be Further Evaluated:

The writer has formulated the following questions as possible areas for further research:

1. Is it difficult for the parents to approach their daughters about occupational planning in a non-directive way? If so, do they indicate the need for better knowledge of the non-directive approach?
2. Is it possible to evaluate further the probability that parents with low education are apt to be more directive in their role of assisting their daughter's occupational planning? Can low education and low income be isolated as two separate values in planning?
3. What are the consequences in terms of occupational adjustment of following up or disregarding the parents' occupational expectations?
4. Can the trend be substantiated that among young parents the mother is more apt to be influential in the occupational planning of her daughter, and that among the older parents the father is the more influential person in this respect?
5. The low income group merits a similar study in order to bring out more comparative material.

CHAPTER VII

NON-FAMILIAL INFLUENCES ON OCCUPATIONAL PLANNING OF 71 FOURTH  
YEAR WOMEN STUDENTS IN THE B. A. DEGREE COURSE AT  
McGILL UNIVERSITY, 1956 - 1957

by

MARY LILLIAN SEELY

## CHAPTER VII

### NON-FAMILIAL INFLUENCES ON OCCUPATIONAL PLANNING OF 71 FOURTH YEAR WOMEN STUDENTS IN THE B. A. DEGREE COURSE AT McGILL UNIVERSITY, 1956 - 1957

#### Introduction

In order to test the hypothesis: "Familial influences predominate in the process of occupational choice", it is necessary to assess the role played by both familial and non-familial influences in the process. The present chapter attempts to answer the question: "What non-familial influences are operative in the process of occupational choice and what effects do they have on occupational planning?" The preceding chapter describes the way in which the family affects this process. In the chapter which follows, some comparisons of familial and non-familial influences will be made in order to assess the validity of the hypothesis insofar as the research sample is concerned.

In Chapter II a number of theories relating to occupational choice are described. Some of these theories emphasize the role of the family in the determination of occupational choice. Others propose that the major determinant in selection is personality structure. The effects of stimuli from the social and cultural environment are also considered of great importance in this process. One may assume that all the above mentioned factors operate in the choice process and that they are not necessarily contradictory.



Therefore, it is necessary to examine each type of influence in order to gain some understanding of the relative importance of the different factors and the dynamics of their interaction.

On the basis of the above mentioned theories, three broad classifications can be made of the types of factors that influence occupational choice: familial influences, personal influences, and environmental or external influences.

For purposes of this section, personal influences comprise influences that are related to the biological, intellectual, emotional and social needs of the individual. For example, ability, role concept and expectations for marriage are classified as personal influences.

External influences include those influences which have their origin outside the individual personality and outside the family group. Obviously, there is a personal component in these influences inasmuch as they are experienced by individuals as part of the environment that is meaningful to them. Examples of external influences are: education, travel and work experience. The term external is used herein to denote that which originates outside the individual personality and outside the family group.

The purpose of this chapter as previously mentioned is to answer the question, "What non-familial influences are operative in the process of occupational choice and what effects do they have on occupational planning?" To answer this major question, it is necessary to raise and answer three sub-questions in relation to the sample group:

1. What personal and external influences have been operative in the occupational selection process of these students?
2. How frequently did these influences occur?
3. What effects did they have on planning?

In answering these questions, the findings will be related to the planning and income levels of the students. Whenever possible, comparisons will be made with the findings of related studies, and the implications for vocational counseling will be pointed out.

The material in this section will be presented under three main headings:

1. Personal Influences
2. External Influences
3. Summary and Conclusions

The first section contains data related to the three sub-questions on personal influences. The findings related to these questions on external influences are given in the second section. The summary consists of a review of the major findings of the two previous sections and their implications for further research.

## Personal Influences

Introduction. - One would expect personal influences to be important in the process of occupational selection for two reasons:

1. North American society permits an individual choice of occupation.

2. Individual choices are usually made on the basis of a person's needs, interests, goals, values, experience and abilities.

There have been, and still are, societies in which the individual is not allowed to make his own choice of occupation.

Ginzberg refers to the ways in which societies may regulate occupational choice in the following summary:

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

One of the outstanding characteristics of our culture, since the beginning of modern capitalism, is the right of the individual to choose his work. This is in direct contrast to totalitarian societies where the state either tells the individual what to do or manipulates the economic system so that in effect he has no freedom of choice.<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> Eli Ginzberg et al, Occupational Choice, op. cit., p.3.

Therefore, it is worthy of note that personal influences may be expected to affect occupational choice in North America because society permits and encourages individual choice.

Most individuals are aware that they tend to make decisions on the basis of their own wants, abilities and experience. Most theories of personality development emphasize this commonly accepted idea.<sup>1</sup> Montagu, in his book, The Direction of Human Development,<sup>2</sup> discusses basic and derived needs. In his definition of basic needs he includes emotional needs, such as, the need to be loved and the need to communicate, which must be satisfied in order to develop and maintain mental health. Derived needs arise from the social milieu. Examples of derived needs are the need to develop skills, to acquire knowledge or to do creative work. A woman's need to love and be loved is usually satisfied in marriage and family life. A woman student is therefore likely to be influenced in her choice of occupation by her plans or hopes for marriage. This topic is discussed in detail in Chapter IX. One may assume that students at the university level are influenced to some extent by such

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<sup>1</sup>Ruth L. Munroe, Schools of Psychoanalytic Thought, (New York: The Dryden Press, Inc., 1955).

<sup>2</sup>M.F. Ashley Montagu, The Direction of Human Development, (New York: Harper Brothers, 1955), pp. 105-161.

acquired needs as the need for knowledge or the need for social prestige. One can readily surmise, therefore, that both basic and derived needs influenced the occupational planning of the students in the sample.

In discussion of theories of occupational choice, Ginzberg refers to the impulse theory which postulates that impulse or unconscious motivation is the main determinant of occupational choice. Ginzberg considers this theory inadequate because it makes no allowance for differential abilities or opportunities.<sup>1</sup> However, it may be assumed that unconscious motivation plays some part in the choice of an occupation.

In discussing vocational adjustment, Super states that:

In the fullest sense of the term, vocational adjustment implies that the individual has opportunity to express his interests, use his abilities, achieve his values, and meet his emotional needs.<sup>2</sup>

The forementioned theories suggest that influences arising from biological, intellectual, emotional and social needs could be operative in the process of occupational selection. However, there is a need for objective evidence systematically obtained concerning the importance of these influences in occupational planning. For this reason, an analysis of the personal influences that affected the occupational choice of the 71 students in the sample is warranted.

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<sup>1</sup>Eli Ginzberg et al, Occupational Choice, op. cit., 22.

<sup>2</sup>Donald E. Super, "The Criteria of Vocational Success", Occupations, XXX (October, 1951), 8.

Types of personal influences.- As will be indicated later in TABLE 36, at least 11 different types of personal influence were found to have been operative in the planning process of students in the sample. These influences are:

Ability  
Aspiration  
Economic Independence  
Experience  
Health  
Interest  
Marriage  
Expectations for Marriage  
Personality  
Religion  
Role Concept

For purposes of the present chapter, these terms are used with the following meanings:

Ability:- capacity or demonstrated aptitude.

Aspiration:- desire to achieve a certain goal regardless of whether or not a student is directing her efforts toward this goal.

Economic independence:- (1) the desire or necessity to be financially independent of parents, or (2) financial security which makes it unnecessary for the student to earn her own living.

Experience:- refers to an event which has been consciously experienced. In this chapter, work experience is the most frequently mentioned form of experience.

Health:- physical and mental well-being.

Interest:- "a propensity to attend to, and be stirred by, a certain class of objects".<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> Edward K. Strong, Jr., "The Role of Interests in Guidance", Occupations, XVII (May 1949), 517.

Marriage:- refers to the fact that a student is married.

Marriage expectations:- general expectations for marriage, definite or tentative marriage plans.<sup>1</sup>

Personality:- a student's reference to the suitability of her own personality for participation in a particular occupation.

Religion:- refers only to religious beliefs and experiences that have influenced occupational planning.

Role concept:- a student's conception of the role she wants to play in society.

No analysis is made of the effects of personal needs and values per se on the process of occupational selection because the data are insufficient to warrant such an analysis. However, several influences such as interest, personality, role concept and marriage expectations embody elements of personal needs and values. Although age was considered by the research team as a form of personal influence that probably had an effect on occupational choice, it was not mentioned by any of the students in the sample. This may be due to the fact that all the students are less than thirty years of age.

Types of personal influence and their incidence.- The findings of this chapter are based on data collected during interviews with 71 fourth year B. A. degree women students at McGill University.<sup>2</sup> Each type of personal influence could occur an indeterminate number of times in each student's planning, but in fact none of the influen-

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<sup>1</sup>Definite and tentative marriage plans are defined in Chapter IX.

<sup>2</sup>The sample group is described in detail in Chapter IV, and the interview procedure is described in Chapter III.

ces were listed more than 3 times for any one student. For example, if a student stated that her job as a camp counselor caused her to consider social work as an occupation, and she also stated that a job in Eaton's made her decide to enter the merchandizing field, experience was checked twice as an influence in planning.

TABLE 36, which follows, indicates the incidence of personal influences in the sample.

TABLE 36

TYPES AND INCIDENCE OF PERSONAL INFLUENCES IN OCCUPATIONAL PLANNING

| Type of Influence         | Frequency of Response | Percentage of Total Responses |
|---------------------------|-----------------------|-------------------------------|
| Total                     | 298                   | 100                           |
| Interest                  | 59                    | 20                            |
| Ability                   | 47                    | 16                            |
| Role Concept              | 45                    | 15                            |
| Experience                | 40                    | 13                            |
| Aspiration                | 31                    | 11                            |
| Expectations for Marriage | 23                    | 8                             |
| Economic Independence     | 17                    | 6                             |
| Personality               | 13                    | 4                             |
| Marriage                  | 11                    | 3                             |
| Health                    | 8                     | 3                             |
| Religion                  | 4                     | 1                             |



According to TABLE 36, a total of 298 personal influences were reported by the students studied. Interest is the factor most commonly mentioned and it accounts for 1/5 of all the responses. Ability and role concept constitute approximately 1/3 of the total influences. Experience and aspiration rank next in frequency and together account for 1/4 of the responses. The other six personal influences, marriage expectations, economic independence, personality, marriage, health and religion, are mentioned less frequently as factors in occupational choice and together they comprise only 1/4 of the total responses.

The high incidence of interest responses in the sample is consistent with the results of other studies. Ginzberg believes that interest provides the first basis for occupational choice.<sup>1</sup> In the 1956 study, interest was found to be the most common factor influencing planning.<sup>2</sup>

In the sample group there were few economic and educational limitations on the choice of occupation. In other words, the students were free to select a career on the basis of interest. The fact that all of the students did not mention interest as a factor in their choice is surprising. Possibly, the main reason for this is that several of the students are interested only in marriage.

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<sup>1</sup> Eli Ginzberg et al, Occupational Choice, op. cit., 218.

<sup>2</sup> Cumas et al, Planning For Post Graduation Employment, op. cit., 157.

Others want to travel before they work. Some students desire to work but have not yet found an occupation in which they are really interested. All but 2 of the 13 students with definite occupational plans mentioned interest as a factor in their choice. In the tentative plans group the choice of 37 of the 42 students was influenced by their occupational interests. Only 9 of the 16 students with no plans had ever been interested in a specific occupation. It would seem therefore, that interest in an occupation leads to more definite planning. Conversely, lack of interest is a deterrent to planning.

As shown in TABLE 36, ability was the second most frequent form of personal influence reported by the sample. One might expect all students in the sample to have considerable intellectual ability since they were in their final undergraduate year. However, at the university level, ability does not appear to be as important an element in planning as interest. This conclusion has been reached by Ralph Berdie after a detailed study of University of Minnesota students.

For those training programs which are at the college levels, differential abilities do not appear to be very important when compared to differential interests. The evidence suggests that abilities cannot be disregarded, and that both tests of abilities and achievement can make real contributions to the college counseling program, but these results even more emphatically delineate the need for interest measurement in counseling. Differential educational and vocational distribution at the college level,

as shown by attainment of college degrees, is much more dependent upon motivations and interest than upon special abilities.<sup>1</sup>

It is nonetheless important to note, that nearly 30 students in the sample had reached the final year of their B. A. degree course without being aware that they have a special ability which they could utilize in an occupation. Does this suggest that more emphasis should be placed on exploration of students' abilities in order to help them plan for an occupation where they can make a contribution to society? Does it suggest that some counseling should be given to all students to help them relate their interests and abilities in the selection of an occupation?

Effects of personal influences on planning.- It is important to know not only which influences are most common, but also whether these influences have encouraged or hindered planning. As in the preceding chapter, influences are classified in three ways according to effects which they had on planning.<sup>2</sup> Positive influences are those which encouraged planning, negative influences are those which deterred planning, and ambivalent influences are those which had both positive and negative effects. In TABLE 37, the distribution of positive, negative and ambivalent effects for each type of personal influence is shown.

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<sup>1</sup>Ralph F. Berdie, "Aptitude, Achievement, Interest and Personality Tests: a Longitudinal Comparison", Journal of Applied Psychology, XXXIX (1955), 114.

<sup>2</sup>Supra, p.141.

TABLE 37

INCIDENCE AND EFFECT OF PERSONAL INFLUENCES ON OCCUPATIONAL PLANNING

| Type of Influence         | Frequency of Response | Effect of Influence on Planning |          |            |
|---------------------------|-----------------------|---------------------------------|----------|------------|
|                           |                       | Positive                        | Negative | Ambivalent |
| Total                     | 298                   | 204                             | 81       | 13         |
| Interest                  | 59                    | 54                              | 4        | 1          |
| Ability                   | 47                    | 37                              | 6        | 4          |
| Role Concept              | 45                    | 25                              | 16       | 4          |
| Experience                | 40                    | 32                              | 7        | 1          |
| Aspiration                | 31                    | 24                              | 7        | 0          |
| Expectations for Marriage | 23                    | 8                               | 15       | 0          |
| Economic Independence     | 17                    | 8                               | 8        | 1          |
| Personality               | 13                    | 7                               | 6        | 0          |
| Marriage                  | 11                    | 2                               | 8        | 1          |
| Health                    | 8                     | 3                               | 4        | 1          |
| Religion                  | 4                     | 4                               | 0        | 0          |

According to TABLE 37, nearly 70 per cent of all personal influences facilitated planning. This high incidence of positive influences may be partially the result of the type of interview used in the collection of data. As described in Chapter III,<sup>1</sup> a non-directive inter-

<sup>1</sup> Supra, P.33.

view was used. In this type of interview, respondents tend to talk more about positive factors than about negative ones. Also, the students were required to recall material from a number of years past, and individuals tend to forget the less pleasant experiences in recalling old memories. These limitations should be kept in mind when considering the validity of the figures presented in TABLE 37.

In examining the figures in TABLE 37, it is to be noted that certain influences operate much more frequently than others to encourage planning. Although religion is mentioned as an influence in planning only 4 times it always has positive effects. Interest and ability are almost always positive factors. Experience and aspiration encourage planning more frequently than do personality and role concept. Economic independence has an equal number of positive and negative effects on planning for this group. Marriage expectations, marriage and health are the only personal influences which discourage planning more frequently than they encourage it. In the following paragraphs, a more detailed analysis of the effects on planning will be given for those influences which have the most dramatic effects.

Interest seems to have been a deterrent to planning for only 4 of the 71 students in the sample. In 3 instances, the students had no real interest in occupations and rejected suggestions made to them by other people on the grounds that they were not interested in the sug-

gested occupations. One student's father encouraged her to go into engineering or business administration, but she protested that she lacked the scientific ability for engineering and had no interest in business administration. This student was very interested in sociology and now plans a career in this field. These facts suggest that interest cannot be created by pressure from other people. Super also believes that an interest cannot be created unless the individual concerned has a potentiality for developing the interest.

It (interest) cannot be created if the ability to participate with understanding is lacking, if objectively judged success is not success in the eyes of the person in question, and if some active need of the participant is not being met.<sup>1</sup>

Of the 11 married students, 8 had changed their occupational plans because of marriage. In most cases, the students had originally planned on postgraduate study for a profession but changed these plans after marriage. One student who had been married for two years had hoped to take an M. A. in English. She has dropped these plans because, as she says, "I'm tired of being a part-time everything".

Expectations for marriage affected planning in much the same way as marriage itself. Some students dropped plans for further study when they became engaged. Others decided against jobs which they thought would interfere with marriage. The relationship between marriage plans and work plans is discussed in detail in Chapter IX.

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Donald E. Super, "Experience, Emotion, and Vocational Choice", Occupations, XXVII (October 1948), 267.

In the sample, role concept was an influence in planning for 45 students. In 16 cases the student's conception of the role she wants to play in life was classified as a deterrent to occupational planning. In these cases the students are of the opinion that they want to be wives and mothers more than anything else, and that this role will always come first with them. Most of these students do not feel it is too important to plan for an occupation because they have plans to marry or because they want a job merely to put in time until they are married. In 25 cases, the student's concept of the role she wants to play in society helped her to select an occupation. A few of these students want full-time careers, but many want a career only for a few years before they are married. This latter group have chosen occupations such as teaching which they perceive as being a good preparation for marriage. Four students could not decide whether they aspired to marriage or to a career. In these cases role concept was classified as having an ambivalent effect on planning. It seems evident therefore, that most students hope to be married and believe that the role of wife and mother will be their main role in life. Thus it is interesting to note that in some cases students do not feel a need to plan for an occupation because they hope to be married, whereas other students still feel that they want to select an occupation that will be satisfying to them.

In those cases where economic independence refers to a desire to be financially independent of the parents it operates to encourage

planning. When the term signifies that the student has financial security which makes it unnecessary for her to earn her own living, the effects appear as deterrents to planning.

Ability usually operated to facilitate planning. For example, one student worked in Eatons' shopping service for a summer and found that she had ability in the merchandizing field. Other students found that they had ability in a particular course and therefore decided to follow a career in a related field. Several students who did well in sociology and psychology decided to go into personnel work. However, 6 students perceived that they lacked ability to participate in a particular occupation. In 5 cases this was the result of the student failing the course in which she had planned to continue study. Some of these students were able to make tentative plans to follow an occupation related to their original choice. For example, one student wanted to become a psychologist but failed her psychology courses. She now has tentative plans to go into social work. This change in plans is an illustration of Ginzberg's theory that in the process of occupational choice, "compromise is an essential".<sup>1</sup>

Personality undoubtedly played a role in each student's planning, but personality is classified as an influence only in those cases where the student specifically referred to her personality in relation to a

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<sup>1</sup>  
Eli Ginzberg et al, op. cit., 186



particular occupation. For example, one student said she had a good personality for working with children and therefore decided to be a teacher. In cases where personality is considered a negative influence, the student doubted that her personality was suited for a particular job. One student had taken an aptitude test which indicated that she had ability for social work. This student worked as a volunteer in a hospital one summer and found that she was easily upset when she worked with people who had problems. This made her wonder if she would be able to take the emotional stress inherent in social work, i.e., if her personality was suited to the profession.

Constellations of influences.- As already stated earlier in this chapter, the mean number of personal influences for the group is 4.2. It is to be expected, therefore, that certain constellations of influences would operate in the planning of a number of students. An analysis of the data reveals that several constellations of influences occur in the planning of more than 1/3 of the sample. These groupings are outlined in TABLE 38. If the influences all have the same effect on planning, i.e., positive or negative, they are classified as similar. If one influence is positive and the other is negative or ambivalent the effects are classified as dissimilar.

TABLE 38  
CONSTELLATIONS OF PERSONAL INFLUENCES

| Constellation of Influences        | Frequency of Constellation |                 |                    |
|------------------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------|--------------------|
|                                    | Total                      | Similar Effects | Dissimilar Effects |
| Interest and Ability               | 42                         | 36              | 6                  |
| Interest and Role Concept          | 35                         | 25              | 10                 |
| Interest and Experience            | 32                         | 28              | 4                  |
| Ability and Role Concept           | 27                         | 17              | 10                 |
| Ability and Experience             | 26                         | 23              | 3                  |
| Interest, Ability and Experience   | 25                         | 19              | 6                  |
| Interest, Ability and Role Concept | 24                         | 14              | 10                 |

According to TABLE 38, interest, ability, role concept and experience are the factors which are found to occur together most frequently. This is to be expected because these influences occur most frequently in the sample and also these influences could be expected to coexist. It is to be noted that interest and experience seem to be more similar in direction of effect than interest and role concept. Ability and experience also seem to be more similar in direction of effect than ability and role concept. Does this suggest that interest and ability tend to arise in part from experience but that they are not necessarily incorporated

in the student's role concept? The present sample is too small to provide a basis for generalization. In order to determine whether relationships exist between certain types of personal influences, future studies might well be concerned with the delineation of constellations of personal influences and their effects upon planning.

Relationship of personal influences to planning level.-

Preceding sections of this chapter indicate the types and incidence of personal influences and their apparent effects on planning for the research sample. The question can now be asked, "Is there any significant difference between the planning groups in frequency and/or effects of personal influences on occupational planning?"

An analysis of the data reveals that personal influences occur with the same frequency in all three planning groups. The definite plans group is 18 percent of the sample and has 19 percent of the personal influences. The tentative planners form 59 percent of the sample and have 60 percent of the influences. Students with no plans comprise 23 percent of the sample and have 21 percent of the responses.

Although the planning groups do not differ significantly in incidence of personal influences, TABLE 39 shows that the groups differ greatly in the direction of the effects of these influences on planning.

TABLE 39

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF POSITIVE, NEGATIVE AND AMBIVALENT EFFECTS OF PERSONAL  
INFLUENCES CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO PLANNING LEVEL

|                |                 |         | Effect of Influences on Planning |         |          |         |            |         |  |
|----------------|-----------------|---------|----------------------------------|---------|----------|---------|------------|---------|--|
| Planning Level | Total Responses |         | Positive                         |         | Negative |         | Ambivalent |         |  |
|                | Number          | Percent | Number                           | Percent | Number   | Percent | Number     | Percent |  |
| Total          | 298             | 100     | 204                              | 69      | 81       | 27      | 13         | 4       |  |
| Definite       | 56              | 100     | 43                               | 77      | 10       | 18      | 3          | 5       |  |
| Tentative      | 178             | 100     | 130                              | 73      | 39       | 22      | 9          | 5       |  |
| No Plans       | 64              | 100     | 31                               | 48      | 32       | 50      | 1          | 2       |  |

According to TABLE 39, more than 70 percent of the personal influences experienced by students at the definite and tentative planning levels facilitated planning. Only 48 percent of the personal influences operative in the "no plans" group encouraged planning. More influences had negative effects than positive effects for the group with no plans and this may partially account for the fact that these students have no occupational plans. The definite planning group has the highest proportion of influences which encouraged planning and the "no plans" group, the smallest proportion. These facts lead to the assumption that: The higher the proportion of personal influences with positive effects on planning, the more definite is the planning level.

To illustrate the effects of the different types of personal influence for each planning group, TABLE 40 is presented.

TABLE 40

DISTRIBUTION OF POSITIVE, NEGATIVE AND AMBIVALENT EFFECTS  
OF 11 TYPES OF PERSONAL INFLUENCE, CLASSIFIED ACCORDING  
TO LEVEL OF PLANNING

|                              | Definite Plans<br>(13 Students) |      |      |      | Tentative Plans<br>(42 Students) |      |      |      | No Plans<br>(16 Students) |      |      |      |
|------------------------------|---------------------------------|------|------|------|----------------------------------|------|------|------|---------------------------|------|------|------|
|                              | Total<br>Response               | Pos. | Neg. | Amb. | Total<br>Response                | Pos. | Neg. | Amb. | Total<br>Response         | Pos. | Neg. | Amb. |
| Total                        | 56                              | 43   | 10   | 3    | 178                              | 130  | 39   | 9    | 64                        | 31   | 32   | 1    |
| Interest                     | 12                              | 11   | 1    | 0    | 38                               | 34   | 3    | 1    | 9                         | 9    | 0    | 0    |
| Ability                      | 10                              | 8    | 2    | 0    | 29                               | 23   | 2    | 4    | 8                         | 6    | 2    | 0    |
| Role Concept                 | 6                               | 3    | 1    | 2    | 26                               | 16   | 9    | 1    | 13                        | 6    | 6    | 1    |
| Experience                   | 7                               | 7    | 0    | 0    | 27                               | 21   | 5    | 1    | 6                         | 4    | 2    | 0    |
| Aspiration                   | 6                               | 5    | 1    | 0    | 21                               | 17   | 4    | 0    | 4                         | 2    | 2    | 0    |
| Expectations for<br>Marriage | 6                               | 2    | 4    | 0    | 10                               | 5    | 5    | 0    | 7                         | 1    | 6    | 0    |
| Economic Independ-<br>ence   | 3                               | 2    | 0    | 1    | 7                                | 5    | 2    | 0    | 7                         | 1    | 6    | 0    |
| Personality                  | 4                               | 3    | 1    | 0    | 4                                | 3    | 1    | 0    | 5                         | 1    | 4    | 0    |
| Marriage                     | 1                               | 1    | 0    | 0    | 7                                | 1    | 5    | 1    | 3                         | 0    | 3    | 0    |
| Health                       | 1                               | 1    | 0    | 0    | 5                                | 1    | 3    | 1    | 2                         | 1    | 1    | 0    |
| Religion                     | 0                               | 0    | 0    | 0    | 4                                | 4    | 0    | 0    | 0                         | 0    | 0    | 0    |

From this table, it is to be noted that in the definite and tentative planning groups, marriage and marriage expectations are the only two influences that have negative effects as frequently or more frequently than they have positive effects. In the "no plans" group, however, this is true not only for marriage and expectations for marriage, but also for role concept, aspiration, economic independence and personality. The following negative effects (as operationally defined for purposes of this thesis<sup>1</sup>) appear to have operated against planning in the case of the 16 students in the "no plans" group. These negative effects are inherent in that:

1. These students are chiefly marriage-oriented and do not have any real interest in an occupation.
2. They have financial security which makes it unnecessary for them to plan for an occupation.
3. They doubt that their personalities are suited for occupations which they have considered.

These findings give a good indication of why these students have no definite occupational plans. The findings also suggest that vocational counseling would have limited value for these students because their main goal is marriage and they perceive no need to

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<sup>1</sup>  
Supra, p. 224.

plan for an occupation. Counseling might have real value for those students who feel that their personalities are unsuited to certain occupations. An assessment of aptitudes, abilities and interests might suggest that these students could succeed in an occupation in which they are interested. Or a counselor might suggest that the student enter a related field.

Relationship of personal influences to income level.- From the theory related to personal influences in planning which was discussed at the beginning of this chapter, one could expect that the types of personal influences would be somewhat the same in all income groups. TABLE 41 shows the distribution of personal influences by income level.

TABLE 41  
DISTRIBUTION OF PERSONAL INFLUENCES ACCORDING TO  
INCOME LEVEL

| Income Level       | Students in Group |         | Personal Influences |         |
|--------------------|-------------------|---------|---------------------|---------|
|                    | Number            | Percent | Number              | Percent |
| Total              | 71                | 100     | 298                 | 100     |
| \$10,000 and over  | 42                | 59      | 171                 | 58      |
| \$5,000 to \$9,999 | 16                | 23      | 72                  | 24      |
| Less than \$5,000  | 8                 | 11      | 33                  | 11      |
| Income Unknown     | 5                 | 7       | 22                  | 7       |



According to TABLE 41 personal influences occur with equal frequency in each income group.

TABLE 42 shows the number of positive, negative and ambivalent effects of personal influences for each income group.

TABLE 42

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF POSITIVE, NEGATIVE AND AMBIVALENT EFFECTS OF PERSONAL INFLUENCES, CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO INCOME LEVEL

| Income Level       | Total Personal Influences |         | Effect of Influences on Planning |          |          |          |            |          |
|--------------------|---------------------------|---------|----------------------------------|----------|----------|----------|------------|----------|
|                    |                           |         | Positive                         |          | Negative |          | Ambivalent |          |
|                    | Number                    | Percent | Num-ber                          | Per-cent | Num-ber  | Per-cent | Num-ber    | Per-cent |
| Total              | 298                       | 100     | 204                              | 69       | 81       | 27       | 13         | 4        |
| \$10,000 and over  | 171                       | 100     | 109                              | 64       | 54       | 31       | 8          | 5        |
| \$5,000 to \$9,999 | 72                        | 100     | 52                               | 72       | 19       | 27       | 1          | 1        |
| Less than \$5,000  | 33                        | 100     | 25                               | 76       | 5        | 15       | 3          | 9        |
| Income Unknown     | 22                        | 100     | 18                               | 82       | 3        | 14       | 1          | 4        |

From TABLE 42 it can be seen that the lowest income group has the highest proportion of influences with positive effects. Students in the highest income group have the lowest proportion of influences which encourage planning and the highest proportion of influences which discourage planning. These findings indicate,

for the present sample, that the higher the familial income level, the less frequently do personal influences have positive effects and the more frequently do they have negative effects on planning.

In order to show which of the personal influences have the most frequent negative effects in the highest income group, TABLE 43 is presented.

TABLE 43

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF PERSONAL INFLUENCES WITH NEGATIVE EFFECTS ON PLANNING IN INCOME GROUP "\$10,000 AND OVER"

| Type of Influence         | Influences With Negative Effects on Planning |                                  |                  |
|---------------------------|--|----------------------------------|------------------|
|                           | All Income Groups                            | Income Group "\$10,000 And Over" |                  |
|                           |  | Number                           | Percent of Total |
| Total                     | 81   | 54                               | 67               |
| Interest                  | 4  | 4                                | 100              |
| Ability                   | 6  | 5                                | 83               |
| Economic Independence     | 8  | 6                                | 75               |
| Marriage                  | 8  | 6                                | 75               |
| Experience                | 7  | 5                                | 71               |
| Role Concept              | 16   | 10                               | 62               |
| Expectations for Marriage | 15   | 9                                | 60               |
| Aspiration                | 7  | 4                                | 57               |
| Personality               | 6  | 3                                | 50               |
| Health                    | 4  | 2                                | 50               |

According to TABLE 43, 7 of the 10 types of influences have more negative effects in the highest income group than would be expected from its size, 59 percent of the sample. All four negative interest influences relate to students in the highest income group. Five of the six students who found that they lacked ability for a particular occupation are from the highest income group. As was mentioned before,<sup>1</sup> most of these students had failed a course in which they had planned to continue study. Does this suggest that more students of lesser ability come to university from the highest income families than from families with lower incomes, or does this suggest that these students do not apply themselves to their studies?

Six of the 8 students for whom economic independence has negative effects on occupational planning are in the highest income group and in each case the negative effects are due to the fact that there is no financial necessity for them to plan for postgraduation employment.

Six of the 8 students who mention marriage as a negative influence in planning are in the highest income group. The fact that these students were able to marry and to continue their university education at the same time possibly may be attributed to receipt of at least some financial assistance from their parents.

These findings indicate that in the sample group, students from the highest income group, as compared with students in the other income groups, appear to be;

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<sup>1</sup>  
Supra, p.229.

1. less interested in a specific occupation
2. less capable in academic work and/or do not apply themselves as much to their studies
3. under less pressure to plan for an occupation
4. more able to continue their university studies after marriage

All four of the above factors operated with negative effects on planning.

Summary of findings on personal influences.- The findings of this section can be summarized briefly as follows:

1. In the sample group of 71 students, 298 personal influence responses are given for 11 different kinds of personal influence, with an average of 4.2 influences per student.

2. Types of personal influence which occur most frequently in decreasing order of frequency are: Interest 20 percent of the responses, Ability 16 percent, Role Concept 15 percent and Experience 13 percent.

3. Seven constellations of influences also occur in over 1/3 of the sample group. These constellations include as factors: Interest, Ability, Experience and Role Concept.

4. Personal influences operate to facilitate planning almost 3 times as frequently as they constitute deterrents to planning. Two influences, expectations for marriage and marriage, occur more frequently with negative effects than with positive effects. Positive and negative effects of economic independence occur with equal frequency. All other types of personal influence have positive effects on occupational planning more frequently than negative effects.

5. Personal influences occur with equal frequency at all three planning levels and in all income groups.

6. The higher the proportion of personal influences with positive effects on planning, the more definite is the planning level.

7. The higher the incidence of interest influences in a planning group, the more definite is the planning level of the group.

8. In the definite and tentative planning groups, expectations for marriage and marriage are the only types of influence which have negative effects on planning as frequently or more frequently than they have positive effects. In the "no plans" group, however, marriage, marriage expectations, role concept, aspiration, economic independence and personality have as many or more negative effects on planning than positive effects. This partially explains why these students have no plans.

9. The lower the income level of a group, the higher is the frequency of positive effects of personal influences and the lower is the frequency of negative influences.

#### External Influences

Importance of external influences in occupational choice.- As previously defined<sup>1</sup>, "external influences" is the term used to denote non-personal and non-familial influences in occupational planning. These influences, as perceived by the writer, originate beyond the individual person and his family group but within his behavioural field. One might expect that such external factors as education and work ex-

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<sup>1</sup>

Supra, p. 214.

perience would have some effect on occupational choice. Theorists who believe in the accident theory of occupational choice are of the opinion that external stimuli are the main determinants of occupational choice. Ginzberg points out that accidental exposure to a strong external stimulus by itself is not sufficient to lead to a choice. The individual must also be ready to respond to this stimulus if a choice is to result.<sup>1</sup> Nonetheless, Ginzberg and others recognize that external factors play a role in influencing occupational planning. The purpose of the present section is to determine the role which external influences played in the occupational planning of students in the sample.

Types and incidence of external influences.- The types of external influences and their incidence in the sample are shown in TABLE 44. Each of these influences will be defined operationally as they are discussed.

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<sup>1</sup>Eli Ginzberg et al, Occupational Choice, op.cit., 19.

TABLE 44

TYPES AND INCIDENCE OF EXTERNAL INFLUENCES IN PLANNING

| Type of Influence             | Number of Responses | Per Cent of Total Responses |
|-------------------------------|---------------------|-----------------------------|
| Total                         | 240                 | 100                         |
| Education                     | 93                  | 39                          |
| Social Influences             | 46                  | 20                          |
| Occupational<br>Contacts      | 35                  | 15                          |
| Work Experience               | 22                  | 9                           |
| Communication Media           | 15                  | 6                           |
| Formal Personal<br>Counseling | 13                  | 5                           |
| Travel                        | 13                  | 5                           |
| Other                         | 3                   | 1                           |

TABLE 44 indicates that in the sample, education is the most frequently cited external influence. Social influences rank second in frequency, while occupational contacts and work experience rank fourth and fifth, respectively. Communication media, formal personal counseling, travel and other external influences are mentioned only infrequently as influences in planning; therefore, they appear to be of less importance in planning than the previously mentioned influences.

In the following sections, each external influence will be analyzed.

Education.- Course content and course instructor, two influences from within the formal educational system, are classified as educational influences. It is to be noted that in this section only educational influences which were operative in high school or university are considered.

TABLE 36<sup>1</sup> indicates that of all the external influences reported, education is the most frequently mentioned as having an effect on occupational selection and planning.

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<sup>1</sup>Supra, p. 221.



The relatively high incidence of educational influences may be partially attributed to the way in which the data were analyzed. If a student mentioned course content as an influence that was operative both in high school and also in university, this was recorded as two responses. Reference by a student to both course content and course instructor was considered as two responses even when the particular instructor mentioned was the person who gave the particular course. For example, if a student was influenced in occupational planning both by a psychology course and by the psychology professor, this was counted as two influences.

TABLE 45 indicates the incidence of educational influences according to type and point in the educational period when they were reported to be operative.

TABLE 45

EDUCATIONAL INFLUENCES CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO TYPE AND  
POINT IN THE EDUCATIONAL PERIOD WHEN THEY OCCURRED

| Point in<br>Educational<br>Period | Type of Educational Influence |                               |                                |
|-----------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|--------------------------------|
|                                   | Total<br>Responses            | Course Con-<br>tent Responses | Course Instructor<br>Responses |
| Total                             | 93                            | 58                            | 35                             |
| High School                       | 48                            | 24                            | 24                             |
| University                        | 45                            | 34                            | 11                             |

TABLE 45 indicates that course content is more frequently re-

ported as an influence in occupational planning than course instructor. These two influences operate with equal frequency in the high school period, but during the university period course content is perceived as an influence three times more frequently than course instructor. This raises the question, "Why are course instructors more influential during high school than during university?" An analysis of the data collected for this study provides no answer to this question. It could be that students are more easily influenced by the personalities of their instructors in high school than in university, or perhaps there is more intimate contact between instructor and student at the high school level. University students are encouraged to be more self-sufficient and less dependent on their instructors than high school students, and this possibly suggest one reason why university instructors appear to have less influence on occupational planning than high school teachers.

The question might be asked, "Have students in the sample been more influenced by their educational experience as a whole or by specific factors within their educational training?" TABLE 46 illustrates the relative importance of general and specific educational influences. The influence of a particular course or of a particular instructor is classified as a specific influence. The influence of a group of instructors or of the curriculum as a whole is classified as a general influence.

TABLE 46

GENERAL AND SPECIFIC EDUCATIONAL INFLUENCES CLASSIFIED  
ACCORDING TO TYPE AND POINT  
IN THE EDUCATIONAL PERIOD WHEN THEY OCCURRED

| Type of Educational Influence | Number of Responses |         |          |
|-------------------------------|---------------------|---------|----------|
|                               | Total               | General | Specific |
| Total                         | 93                  | 23      | 70       |
| Course Content                |                     |         |          |
| Total                         | 58                  | 12      | 46       |
| High School                   | 24                  | 7       | 17       |
| University                    | 34                  | 5       | 29       |
| Course Instructor             |                     |         |          |
| Total                         | 35                  | 11      | 24       |
| High School                   | 24                  | 8       | 16       |
| University                    | 11                  | 3       | 8        |

According to TABLE 46, educational influences are specific 3 times more frequently than they are general. Because the students in the sample are all in fourth year university, one would expect that they have been influenced by their education in general more frequently than they reported. This may be explained partially by the fact that in a one hour interview, a student is more likely to mention specific influences than general influences. It is also to be noted from TABLE 46 that course content occurs as a specific influence twice as often as course instructor. Also, specific course content at university is the most common form of educational influence reported by students in the sample.

Relationship of educational influences to planning level.- Because of the relatively high incidence of educational influences in the sample, one may question whether or not the planning groups differ in the frequency with which these influences are experienced. TABLE 47 is designed to indicate the distribution of educational influences according to planning level.

TABLE 47<sup>1</sup> shows that both the definite and tentative planning groups have proportionately more educational influences than would be expected for their size. Conversely, the "no plans" group has significantly fewer educational influences than would be expected for its size. Therefore, it appears that the students with no plans have been less influenced in their planning by educational factors than the students in the other two planning groups.

According to TABLE 47, no clear cut relationship is apparent between planning level and the point in the educational period when educational influences originate.

Relationship of educational influences to income level.- An analysis of the data reveals that students in the "\$10,000 and over" income group report 63 percent of all educational influences although these students form only 59 percent of the sample. The "\$5,000-\$9,999" income group comprises 23 percent of the sample but reports only 20 percent of the educational influences. The lowest income group forms 11 percent of the sample and reports 9 percent of the educational influences.<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>N.B. The "unknown" income group is 7 percent of the sample and has 8 percent of the responses.

<sup>2</sup>Infra, p. 250.

TABLE 47

DISTRIBUTION OF EDUCATIONAL INFLUENCES ACCORDING TO PLANNING LEVEL AND POINT IN  
THE EDUCATIONAL PERIOD WHEN INFLUENCE OCCURRED

| Type of Educational Influence | Students in Group |         | Point in Educational Period |         |             |         |            |         |
|-------------------------------|-------------------|---------|-----------------------------|---------|-------------|---------|------------|---------|
|                               |                   |         | High School plus University |         | High School |         | University |         |
|                               | Number            | Percent | Number                      | Percent | Number      | Percent | Number     | Percent |
| Total                         | 71                | 100     | 93                          | 100     | 48          | 100     | 45         | 100     |
| Definite Plans                | 13                | 18      | 20                          | 22      | 13          | 27      | 7          | 15      |
| Tentative Plans               | 42                | 59      | 63                          | 68      | 28          | 58      | 35         | 78      |
| No Plans                      | 16                | 23      | 10                          | 10      | 7           | 15      | 3          | 7       |
| Course Content                |                   |         |                             |         |             |         |            |         |
| Total                         | 71                | 100     | 58                          | 100     | 24          | 100     | 34         | 100     |
| Definite Plans                | 13                | 18      | 14                          | 24      | 9           | 38      | 5          | 14      |
| Tentative Plans               | 42                | 59      | 39                          | 67      | 12          | 50      | 27         | 79      |
| No Plans                      | 16                | 23      | 5                           | 9       | 3           | 12      | 2          | 1       |
| Course Instructor             |                   |         |                             |         |             |         |            |         |
| Total                         | 71                | 100     | 35                          | 100     | 24          | 100     | 11         | 100     |
| Definite Plans                | 13                | 18      | 6                           | 17      | 4           | 17      | 2          | 18      |
| Tentative Plans               | 42                | 59      | 24                          | 69      | 16          | 66      | 8          | 72      |
| No Plans                      | 16                | 23      | 5                           | 14      | 4           | 17      | 1          | 9       |

These findings are not highly significant because of the small size of the sample and the small differences in proportions of educational responses given by each income group. However the data suggest that: The higher the income level, the more frequently are educational influences operative in planning.

The slightly higher incidence of educational influences in the higher income groups may possibly be explained by the fact that many of these students have attended private schools where instruction is probably more individualized and of better quality than in public schools. Also, several students had studied in European schools.<sup>1</sup>

Summary of findings on educational influences:-

The main findings of this section can be summarized as follows:

1. Of the educational influences, course content occurs more frequently as a factor in planning than course instructor.
2. Educational influences are specific 3 times more frequently than they are general.
3. The most common form of educational influence is a specific course content at university.
4. Students in the "no plans" group are significantly less influenced in their planning by educational factors than students in the definite and tentative planning groups.

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<sup>1</sup>Unfortunately the interviewers did not collect data on attendance at private and European schools, therefore, no statistical comparisons can be made.

5. There is no relationship between planning level and point in the educational period when educational influence occurs.

6. There is a tendency for educational influences to occur more frequently the higher the income level of the students' families.

Social influences.- Influences of personal friends and of friends of the family are referred to as social influences in this section. Social influences are the second most numerous group of external factors operative in the planning of the sample as was shown in TABLE 36.<sup>1</sup>

The incidence of social influences reported in the sample is:

Personal friends--37

Family friends---- 9

Approximately half the students in the sample mentioned that a friend had some influence on their occupational planning. This influence was usually in the form of a suggestion about courses to take at university. Although the students discuss their occupational plans with their friends, few students expect advice from them.

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<sup>1</sup>Supra, p.22.

Family friends most commonly influenced occupational planning by making a student aware of a particular occupation. For example, one student's initial occupational interest was in law because she greatly admired some lawyers who were friends of the family.

An examination of the data reveals no significant relationship between social influences and planning level.

The highest income group, 59 percent of the sample, reports 70 percent of the social influences. The middle income group forms 23 percent of the sample and has 20 percent of the social responses. Only 6 percent of the social influences reported were from the lowest income group which is 11 percent of the sample. (Note, the remaining 4 percent of social influences were reported from students whose family incomes were unknown.) These figures suggest that there is a tendency for social influences to be more frequent the higher the income level of the students' families. This may suggest that students in higher income groups have more social contacts than students in lower income groups, or that these students are more readily influenced by the contacts which they do have.

Occupational contact.- This influence refers to influences from contacts with employers and employees but not to work experience itself. For example, if a student was encouraged by an employer to continue in office work, the influence is classified in the occupational contact category. If however, a student said that



she worked in an office and decided she wanted to take an office job after graduation because she enjoyed the work, the influence is classified under work experience. The occupational contact classification also includes contacts with professional persons, deans of faculties and prospective employers. Contact by prearranged appointment implies a planned contact. Informal social contacts are classified as unplanned contacts.

TABLE 48 indicates the incidence of planned and unplanned occupational contacts in each of the planning groups.

TABLE 48

DISTRIBUTION OF PLANNED AND UNPLANNED OCCUPATIONAL CONTACTS  
ACCORDING TO PLANNING LEVEL

| Planning Level  | Number of<br>Students in<br>Planning Group | Occupational Contacts |         |           |
|-----------------|--|-----------------------|---------|-----------|
|                 |  | Total                 | Planned | Unplanned |
| Total           | 71   | 35                    | 11      | 24        |
| Definite Plans  | 13   | 18                    | 9       | 9         |
| Tentative Plans | 42   | 15                    | 2       | 13        |
| No Plans        | 16   | 2                     | 0       | 2         |

According to TABLE 48, only 35 occupational contacts are reported by the 71 students in the sample. Only 11 were planned occupational contacts and 9 of these were by the 13 students who have definite plans. This table indicates that there is a definite relationship between frequency of occupational contacts and level of planning. The more frequently occupational

contacts occur, the more definite is the planning level. Also, the greater the proportion of planned occupational contacts, the more definite is the planning level. This suggests that those students who plan occupational contacts are usually able to formulate definite plans, at least partially, on the basis of these contacts. It also suggests that even unplanned occupational contacts help students to clarify their plans.

An examination of the data indicates that there is no consistent relationship between income level and frequency of occupational contacts. In the sample, however, students whose families' incomes ranged from \$5,000 to \$9,999 have proportionately more occupational contacts than students from families with higher or lower incomes.

Work experience.- This category includes influences derived from full-time, sessional or summer employment on a paid or voluntary basis. As already mentioned, student contacts with employers and employees while on a job are classified in this study as occupational contacts rather than as work experience.

Although 70 of the 71 students in the sample had work experience,<sup>1</sup> it was mentioned as an influence in occupational planning only 22 times by 21 students. An analysis of work experience of students in the sample according to types of jobs, number of jobs, and periods when students were employed, reveals

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<sup>1</sup>Supra. p. 51.

no significant differences between the students who mention work experience as an influence in planning and those who do not. It would seem, then, that the type, number, and duration of jobs does not determine whether or not the work experience is significant. Therefore, the significance of this factor as an influence in occupational planning seems to be related more to the student's reaction to work experience than to the nature of the work experience itself. This finding supports Ginzberg's criticism of the accident theory of occupational choice. He points out that:

A distinction must be made between the accidental occurrence which provides a new experience and stimulus and the result which follows.....For the exposure to be effective, the individual must react to it actively. He must do something about the opportunities which come his way. And more than that, he must possess the potential in talent, knowledge, or leadership which will give meaning to his effort. But if he fails to respond, the result is much the same as if he had never been exposed at all.<sup>1</sup>

An outline of the jobs which were mentioned as influences in occupational planning is given below, along with the number of students involved and the effect that the experience had on occupational planning.

| Type of Job       | Number<br>of<br>Students | Effect of Experience on Planning               |
|-------------------|--------------------------|--|
| Summer<br>Theatre | 1                        | / Increased interest in becoming<br>an actress |

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<sup>1</sup>Eli Ginzberg et al, op. cit.,20.

| Type of Job              | Number<br>of<br>Students |   | Effect of Experience on Planning   |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|---|--|
| Teaching                 | 1                        | / | Decided to become a teacher  |
| Hospital<br>Laboratory   | 1                        | / | Developed interest in becoming<br>a doctor   |
| Volunteer<br>Social Work | 1                        | - | Made a student doubt her ability<br>to be a social worker  |
| Library<br>Work          | 2                        | / | <u>Decided to become a librarian</u><br><u>Created interest in taking a</u><br><u>masters degree</u> |
| Office and<br>Selling    | 5                        | / | <u>Developed interest in business</u><br><u>and retailing careers</u>                                |
|                          | 1                        | ✓ | <u>Indifferent to job, but will</u><br><u>continue because she is married</u>                        |
|                          | 1                        | - | Lost all interest in clerical<br>work  |
| Camp jobs                | 9                        | / | Created interest in social<br>work, physiotherapy and other<br>occupations dealing with<br>children  |

Relationship of work experience to planning level.-

An examination of the data reveals that approximately 1/3 of the students with definite and tentative occupational plans have had significant work experience as compared with only 1/5 of the students in the "no plans" group. Thus, it seems that the "no plans" group is less influenced by work experience than the groups with definite and tentative plans.

Relationship of work experience to income level.-

From an analysis of the data, there appears to be no consistent relationship between income level and work experience as an influence in planning. However, the middle income group is slightly more influenced by work experience than the highest and lowest income groups. Approximately 1/4 of the students in the highest and lowest income groups mention work experience as an influence in planning as compared with 3/8 of the students in the middle income group.

Communication media.- Communication media influences comprise influences from radio, television, printed material, films and public meetings. As shown in TABLE <sup>44</sup>~~36~~ above<sup>1</sup>, communication media were reported as influences in planning only 15 times. Printed material (books, pamphlets and magazines) was cited as an influence 12 times, public meetings were mentioned twice and films were mentioned once. Radio and television were never mentioned as influences. In the 1956 study<sup>2</sup>, also, printed material was found to be the most common communication medium which had an effect on occupational planning. This may suggest that professional associations which want to recruit personnel for their professions would be well advised to concentrate their efforts on publishing pamphlets, magazine articles and, if possible, books on the profession. It may also suggest that there is a lack of films

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<sup>1</sup>Supra, p. ~~221~~.

<sup>2</sup>Cumas et al, Planning for Post Graduation Employment, op. cit., p.157.

depicting the type of work involved in occupations. At McGill University there have been a series of Career Nights for women undergraduates which outlined the nature and requirements of various occupations, but these have been poorly attended. The fact that television programs have had no effect on the occupational choice of the sample group is interesting because television has become common in Canada since 1953 and one could assume that most of the students have access to television sets.

An analysis of the data shows that although there were only 15 communication media responses, the "no plans" group appears to be less influenced by these factors than the other two planning groups. The data suggests that there is no relationship between frequency of communication media influences and income level, but the middle income group (\$5,000-\$9,999) is proportionately more influenced by these factors than the higher and lower income groups.

Formal personal counseling.- Formal personal counseling influences comprise influences from vocational testing and/or counseling by psychologists, vocational guidance officers in high schools, and deans of university faculties. Suggestions or advice from employers, employees and other business and professional people are classified under occupational contacts as was previously mentioned. Advice from school teachers and college professors is classed as educational influence. Suggestions from parents and siblings are considered as familial influences and suggestions and advice from friends are classified under social influences.

Counseling was mentioned as an influence on occupational planning 13 times by 11 of the 71 students in the sample. Six students had counseling while they were in high school and 7 used counseling services while at university. Two students had counseling both in high school and at university.

Eight of the 11 students used counseling to obtain suggestions concerning occupations for which they were suited. Two students obtained formal counseling because of physical limitations which narrowed their range of occupational choice. One student took a group of vocational tests when she entered university. This made her aware of a need to plan for employment in a particular field and she chose her occupation on the basis of the test results.

Five students were of the opinion that counseling was helpful in planning because it indicated their abilities. Three students felt counseling was a negative experience for them. One student disagreed with the suggestions given. In another case, the tests indicated that the student had no ability for the occupation she wished to enter. In a third instance, the student was dissatisfied because the counselor did not suggest any specific occupation for her. For 5 students the counseling experience had ambivalent effects on planning either because no definite suggestions were given, or because the suggestions given did not work out. For example, it was suggested that one student enter the field of psychology. She then began to study

psychology but failed her course and decided not to continue in that field.

Relationship of formal personal counseling to planning level.-

It is interesting that none of the 13 students in the definite plans group have had formal personal counseling. In the tentative plans group, 7 of the 42 students have had counseling. Four of the 16 students with no plans have had counseling. These facts suggest that there is an inverse relationship between formal personal counseling and more definite planning level. This probably suggests that the students who go for counseling are less able to make their own decisions about an occupation than the students who do not seek counseling. Ginzberg, also, has arrived at this conclusion from his study of occupational choice.

Since there are relatively few vocational counselors in comparison with the very large numbers seeking their aid, a process of natural selection takes place. Some individuals take the initiative and seek out the experts; others are so patently floundering that they are recommended for guidance. Both groups are likely to receive attention and help.-----It has been inevitable that experts have been concerned primarily with helping those most in need of help;-----<sup>1</sup>

Relationship of formal personal counseling to income level.- An analysis of the data relevant to formal personal counseling reveals a rather surprising trend: the lowest income group has the highest proportion of students who have had formal personal counseling and

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<sup>1</sup>Eli Ginzberg et al., op.cit., 7.



the highest income group has the lowest proportion. Four of the 8 students in the income group "less than \$5,000" have had counseling as compared with only 5 out of the 42 students in the highest income group. The number of students who had counseling is too small to provide a basis for generalization, but one wonders why this difference between the income levels occurs. Vocational guidance is equally available to all income groups because most high schools in Montreal have some form of guidance service and several agencies, such as the Jewish Vocational Service, National Employment Service and the Mental Hygiene Institute, also offer vocational guidance services without charging fees.

Travel.- Influences classified under travel comprise influences from travel experience and also from the desire to travel. Travel was an influence in the occupational planning of 13 of the 71 students in the sample, and as shown in TABLE 36<sup>144</sup>, was one of the least frequent forms of external influence reported.

Travel had a positive effect on planning for 10 of these 13 students. In one case travel led to a decision to attend university. In 9 instances travel made students aware of certain occupations which they hope to enter at some point after graduation. For 3 students, travel had a negative effect on occupational planning. One student no longer wants to travel and so will not accept an overseas job with the Department of External Affairs. Another student lost her interest in studying languages after a trip to Europe. One student's desire to

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<sup>1</sup>  
Supra, p. 221.

travel delays any occupational planning.

Relationship of travel to planning level and familial income level.- None of the students with definite plans mentioned travel as an influence in planning. Approximately 1/5 of the group with tentative plans and 1/4 of the students with no plans referred to travel influences. The total number of travel responses is only 13 and there are only slight differences between the planning groups in incidence of travel influences. However, the findings suggest that there may be an inverse relationship between incidence of travel influences on occupational planning and more definite planning level. Travel is mentioned as a factor in planning only by students in the two highest income groups. There seems to be a slight tendency for travel influences to be more frequent the higher the income group. This is to be expected because of the high cost of travelling especially to overseas countries.

Other external influences.- There were three quite important influences which did not fit into any of the classifications of external influence. One student was greatly influenced by a violin teacher who encouraged her to become a professional violinist. One student took a night course at business college during her third year university to explore her ability for a business career. Experience in the McGill Red and White Revue caused one student to contemplate a career

in television.

Effects of external influences on planning.- TABLE 36 at the beginning of this section indicates the types and incidence of external influences. Each of these types of influence has been analyzed individually in preceding sections. Some comparisons can now be made of the effects of these influences on occupational planning and the relationship of these influences to planning and familial income level. The distribution of positive, negative and ambivalent effects which each type of external influence has on planning is shown in TABLE 49.

(see next page)

TABLE 49

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF POSITIVE, NEGATIVE AND AMBIVALENT EFFECTS OF EXTERNAL INFLUENCES  
IN PLANNING

| Type of Influence             | Total  |         | Positive |         | Negative |         | Ambivalent |         |
|-------------------------------|--------|---------|----------|---------|----------|---------|------------|---------|
|                               | Number | Percent | Number   | Percent | Number   | Percent | Number     | Percent |
| Total                         | 240    | 100     | 191      | 80      | 26       | 11      | 23         | 9       |
| Education                     | 93     | 100     | 77       | 83      | 10       | 11      | 6          | 6       |
| Social Influences             | 46     | 100     | 36       | 78      | 4        | 9       | 6          | 13      |
| Occupational Contacts         | 35     | 100     | 29       | 83      | 4        | 11      | 2          | 6       |
| Work Experience               | 22     | 100     | 19       | 86      | 2        | 9       | 1          | 5       |
| Communication Media           | 15     | 100     | 13       | 87      | 0        | -       | 2          | 13      |
| Formal Personal<br>Counseling | 13     | 100     | 5        | 38.5    | 3        | 23      | 5          | 38.5    |
| Travel                        | 13     | 100     | 10       | 77      | 3        | 23      | 0          | -       |
| Other                         | 3      | 100     | 2        | 67      | 0        | -       | 1          | 33      |

According to TABLE 49, 80 per cent of the total external influences have a positive effect on planning. Each type of influence has more positive effects than negative. Because of the low frequency of responses in some categories, comparisons between the categories are not highly significant. However, it is to be noted that for 4 forms of influence: communication media, work experience, occupational contacts, and education there are more than 80 per cent of influences with positive effects on planning. Conversely, there are less than 80 per cent of the influences with positive effects on planning in the categories: social influences, travel and formal personal counseling. The reader may notice the high proportion of negative effects shown for travel and formal personal counseling, but it is to be remembered in both instances that these proportions represent only 3 responses.

Relationship of external influences to planning level.- The distribution of external influences among the three planning groups is shown in TABLE 50.

TABLE 50  
DISTRIBUTION OF EXTERNAL INFLUENCES ON PLANNING ACCORDING TO PLANNING LEVEL

| Planning Level  | Students in Group |         | External Influences |         |
|-----------------|-------------------|---------|---------------------|---------|
|                 | Number            | Percent | Number              | Percent |
| Total           | 71                | 100     | 240                 | 100     |
| Definite Plans  | 13                | 18      | 57                  | 24      |
| Tentative Plans | 42                | 59      | 146                 | 61      |
| No Plans        | 16                | 23      | 37                  | 15      |

According to TABLE 50, the definite plans group which is only 18 percent of the sample has 24 percent of the external influences. However, the "no plans" group which is 23 percent of the sample has only 15 percent of the external influences. This suggests that the higher the incidence of external influences in a planning group, the more definite is the planning level of the group. Although the size of the sample is small and the differences in proportions of external influences between the planning groups is not too significant, this finding does suggest that the more frequently a student experiences external influences the more likely she is to have occupational plans. This tendency has more meaning when one considers that in the same sample, personal influences occurred with equal frequency in all three planning groups.

TABLE 51 is designed to show the distribution by planning groups of the effects of external influences on planning.

TABLE 51

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF POSITIVE, NEGATIVE AND AMBIVALENT EFFECTS OF  
EXTERNAL INFLUENCES, CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO PLANNING LEVEL

| Planning Level  | Total Influences |         | Effect of Influence |         |          |         |            |         |
|-----------------|------------------|---------|---------------------|---------|----------|---------|------------|---------|
|                 | Number           | Percent | Positive            |         | Negative |         | Ambivalent |         |
|                 |                  |         | Number              | Percent | Number   | Percent | Number     | Percent |
| Total           | 240              | 100     | 191                 | 80      | 26       | 11      | 23         | 9       |
| Definite Plans  | 57               | 100     | 47                  | 82      | 1        | 2       | 9          | 16      |
| Tentative Plans | 146              | 100     | 116                 | 79      | 19       | 13      | 11         | 8       |
| No Plans        | 37               | 100     | 28                  | 76      | 6        | 16      | 3          | 8       |

According to TABLE 51, the definite plans group has the highest percentage of external influences with positive effects and the lowest percentage, only 2%, with negative effects. Conversely the "no plans" group has the highest percentage of negative effects and the lowest percentage of positive responses. This leads to the assumption that the higher the proportion of positive effects and the lower the proportion of negative effects of external influences, the more definite is the planning level. One might have anticipated this, especially in view of the fact that the same is true of the effects of personal influences. The fact that most external influences operated to encourage planning for the students with definite plans probably partially explains why these students have plans. Several influences operated to discourage planning in the "no plans" group and this probably explains to some extent why these students have no plans.

For readers who are interested in the exact details, TABLE 52 shows the incidence of each external influence and its effects according to planning level. It is interesting to note in examining the figures in this table that all types of external influences have positive effects more frequently than negative effects even in the "no plans" group. It is to be remembered that two types of personal influences operated to discourage planning more frequently than to encourage planning, and in the "no plans" group, 6 types of personal influence had negative effects as frequently or more frequently than they had positive effects on planning.



TABLE 52

EXTERNAL INFLUENCES CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO TYPE, EFFECT  
AND PLANNING LEVEL

| Type of Influence          | Total | Definite Plans |     |     |     | Tentative Plans |     |     |     | No Plans |     |     |     |
|----------------------------|-------|----------------|-----|-----|-----|-----------------|-----|-----|-----|----------|-----|-----|-----|
|                            |       | Total          | Pos | Neg | Amb | Total           | Pos | Neg | Amb | Total    | Pos | Neg | Amb |
| Total                      | 240   | 57             | 47  | 1   | 9   | 146             | 116 | 19  | 11  | 37       | 28  | 6   | 3   |
| Education                  | 93    | 20             | 17  | 0   | 3   | 63              | 52  | 8   | 3   | 10       | 8   | 2   | 0   |
| Social Influences          | 46    | 9              | 7   | 0   | 2   | 25              | 19  | 3   | 3   | 12       | 10  | 1   | 1   |
| Occupational Contacts      | 35    | 18             | 15  | 1   | 2   | 15              | 12  | 3   | 0   | 2        | 2   | 0   | 0   |
| Work Experience            | 22    | 5              | 4   | 0   | 1   | 14              | 13  | 1   | 0   | 3        | 2   | 1   | 0   |
| Communication Media        | 15    | 4              | 4   | 0   | 0   | 9               | 8   | 0   | 1   | 2        | 1   | 0   | 1   |
| Formal Personal Counseling | 13    | 0              | 0   | 0   | 0   | 9               | 3   | 2   | 4   | 4        | 2   | 1   | 1   |
| Travel                     | 13    | 0              | 0   | 0   | 0   | 9               | 7   | 2   | 0   | 4        | 3   | 1   | 0   |
| Other                      | 3     | 1              | 0   | 0   | 1   | 2               | 2   | 0   | 0   | 0        | 0   | 0   | 0   |

Relation of external influences to income level.-- The distribution of external influences according to income level of the students' families is shown in TABLE 53.

TABLE 53

DISTRIBUTION OF EXTERNAL INFLUENCES ON PLANNING ACCORDING TO INCOME LEVEL

| Income Level       | Students in Group |         | External Influences |         |
|--------------------|-------------------|---------|---------------------|---------|
|                    | Number            | Percent | Number              | Percent |
| Total              | 71                | 100     | 240                 | 100     |
| \$10,000 and over  | 42                | 59      | 149                 | 62      |
| \$5,000 to \$9,999 | 16                | 23      | 55                  | 23      |
| Less than \$5,000  | 8                 | 11      | 19                  | 8       |
| Unknown            | 5                 | 7       | 17                  | 7       |

According to TABLE 53 the highest income group has slightly more external influences than would be expected for its size and the lowest income group has slightly fewer influences than would be expected. This suggests that external influences occur with slightly greater frequency the higher the income level. This may be due to the fact that travel influences are operative only in the two highest income groups, and education influences and social influences are more common the higher the income group. The \$5,000-\$9,999 income group has the highest proportion of responses for three external influences, occupational contact, work experience and communication media. Formal personal

counseling is the only external influence which occurs most frequently in the lowest income group.

The distribution of positive, negative and ambivalent effects of external influences by income level of students' families is shown in TABLE 54.

(see next page)

TABLE 54

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF POSITIVE, NEGATIVE AND AMBIVALENT EFFECTS OF EXTERNAL  
INFLUENCES ON PLANNING, CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO INCOME LEVEL

| Income Level       | Total Influences |         | Effect of Influence |         |          |         |            |         |
|--------------------|------------------|---------|---------------------|---------|----------|---------|------------|---------|
|                    | Number           | Percent | Positive            |         | Negative |         | Ambivalent |         |
|                    |                  |         | Number              | Percent | Number   | Percent | Number     | Percent |
| Total              | 240              | 100     | 191                 | 80      | 26       | 11      | 23         | 9       |
| \$10,000 and over  | 149              | 100     | 118                 | 79      | 19       | 13      | 12         | 8       |
| \$5,000 to \$9,999 | 55               | 100     | 47                  | 85      | 2        | 4       | 6          | 11      |
| Less than \$5,000  | 19               | 100     | 13                  | 68      | 4        | 21      | 2          | 11      |
| Unknown            | 17               | 100     | 13                  | 76      | 1        | 6       | 3          | 18      |

According to TABLE 54 the middle income group has the highest percentage of influences with positive effects and the lowest percentage with negative effects. The lowest income group has the lowest percentage of influences with positive effects and the highest percentage with negative effects. There is, therefore, no clear cut relationship between income level and direction of effect of external influences on planning.

Summary of findings on external influences.- The findings of this section may be summarized as follows:

1. In the sample of 71 students, 240 external influences on occupational planning were reported. This is an average of 3.4 external influences per student.
2. The most common forms of external influences reported by the group are: Education, 39 percent of the responses and Social Influences, 20 percent of the responses.
3. Of the educational influences, course content occurred more frequently as an influence on planning than course instructor. Specific educational influences, such as a particular course, were 3 times more frequent than general educational influences. The "no plans" group was significantly less influenced by educational factors than the definite and tentative planning groups.
4. Of the total external influences, 80 percent operated to encourage planning, 11 percent discouraged planning and 9 percent had ambivalent effects on planning.

5. External influences occurred somewhat more frequently the more definite the planning level.

6. External influences were somewhat more frequent the higher the income level of the students' families.

7. The higher the proportion of external influences which encouraged planning, the more definite was the planning level.

8. Students in the "\$5,000-\$9,999" income group have the highest proportion of external influences with positive effects on occupational planning.

9. There is, for the sample group, a definite relationship between more frequent occupational contacts, especially planned occupational contacts, and more definite planning level. Students with no plans are less influenced by work experience, education influences and occupational contacts than students in the definite and tentative planning groups. The more frequently formal personal counseling and travel are reported as influences, the less definite is the occupational planning level. There is no relationship between incidence of social influences and planning level.

10. In the sample, education, travel and social influences occur more frequently the higher the income level of students' families. Formal personal counseling occurs as an influence in planning with increasing frequency the lower the income group. There is no relationship between income level and occupational contact, work experience and communication media influences.

### Summary and Conclusions

The purpose of this chapter, as stated in the introduction, was to answer the question, "What non-familial influences are operative in the process of occupational choice and what effects do they have on occupational planning?" In preceding sections, the personal and external influences which were found to operate in the planning of the sample group have been analyzed. These findings will now be summarized briefly.

Both personal and external influences had important effects on planning for the students in the sample. There was an average of 4.2 personal influences per student and an average of 3.4 external influences per student. The most common forms of personal influences were found to be: Interest, Ability, Role Concept and Experience. The most frequent forms of external influence were Education and Social Influences. Personal influences occurred with the same frequency in all planning and income groups, but external influences occurred slightly more frequently in the more definite planning groups and in the higher income groups.

Both personal and external influences operated to encourage planning more frequently than they discouraged planning. However, personal influences did not have positive effects on planning as frequently as external influences. Moreover, two personal influence, marriage and expectations for marriage operated with negative effects on planning more frequently than with positive effects.

For both personal and external influences, the higher the proportion of influences with positive effects on planning in a group, the more definite was the planning level.

The definite plans group has about the same mean number of personal and external influences, but the tentative and "no plans" groups have fewer external influences per student than personal influences. The figures are shown below.

| <u>Average Number of Responses Per Student</u> |                 |                 |
|--|-----------------|-----------------|
| <u>Planning Level</u>                          | <u>Personal</u> | <u>External</u> |
| Total  | 4.2             | 3.4             |
| Definite Plans                                 | 4.3             | 4.4             |
| Tentative Plans                                | 4.2             | 3.5             |
| No Plans                                       | 4.0             | 2.3             |

These figures suggest that there is a balance between personal and external influences for students with definite plans. The students with tentative and no plans have reported less external influences than personal influences. One may speculate therefore, that external influences make a real contribution to planning. It could be that there were fewer factors which stimulated planning in the environment of the students with less definite plans. Or it could be that these students were so concerned with their own development that they were less perceptive of the stimuli which did exist in their environments.



Personal influences were more common than external influences in all income groups, as the figures below indicate.

Average Number of Responses Per Student

| <u>Income Group</u> | <u>Personal</u> | <u>External</u> |
|---------------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| Total               | 4.2             | 3.4             |
| \$10,000 and over   | 4.1             | 3.5             |
| \$5,000-\$9,999     | 4.5             | 3.4             |
| Less than \$5,000   | 4.1             | 2.4             |
| Unknown             | 4.4             | 3.4             |

These figures suggest that external influences are increasingly less common than personal influences the lower the income group.

There are no significant findings on the relation of non-familial influences to income level apart from the fact that education, social, and travel influences are slightly more frequent the higher the income level of students' families, and formal personal counseling is more frequent the lower the income level.

The findings on personal and external influences suggest some factors which contribute to occupational planning. In the sample, the definite planning group is characterized by a high proportion of influences which operate to encourage planning and few influences which discourage planning. This group has a high proportion of occupational contacts, and occupational interests. There is about an equal number of personal and external influences in this group.

The "no plans" group has far fewer external influences than would be expected for its size. 50 percent of the personal influences which this group experienced had negative effects on planning. The "no plans" group also has the highest proportion of external influences with negative effects on planning. This group is less influenced than the other planning groups by factors which facilitate planning, such as: interest, education, occupational contacts, and work experience. Students without plans have been more influenced by factors which discourage planning, such as: expectations for marriage and travel. Students in this group have used counseling proportionately more than students with more definite plans. These facts suggest that vocational counseling is not too helpful to these students. They seem to lack interest in specific occupations and in occupations in general. Their main interest is marriage, some of them want to travel, and many of them do not feel any economic necessity to plan. The "no plans" group is notably lacking in motivation to plan for<sup>an</sup> occupation and it is unlikely that vocational counseling could create such motivation.

The findings of this section are in general agreement with the findings of the 1956 study.<sup>1</sup> They also support those

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<sup>1</sup>Cumas et. al., Planning for Post Graduation Employment, op. cit. 129-164.

theories which stress the importance of occupational interest as a basis for occupational choice. The findings on work experience<sup>1</sup> support Ginzberg's criticism of the accident theory of occupational choice. The findings related to formal personal counseling give support to Ginzberg's view that vocational counseling is most used by those students who have difficulty in planning for an occupation.<sup>2</sup>

In conclusion, the present writer has two suggestions for further research concerning the factors that influence occupational choice.

An intensive study, using depth interviews, should be made of a large group of fourth year university students to determine what values affect occupational planning, how personal needs influence occupational choice, and if there is any relationship between values and needs, which affects planning. During the interviews on which this study is based, several students referred to values which had influenced their choice. Several students said they wanted to be of service to humanity; some said they wanted occupations which would prepare them for marriage; and others said that they wanted to be able to work with stimulating people. The value placed on being of service to humanity is somewhat related to a need to be of service, and the value placed on stimulating work is somewhat related to the

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<sup>1</sup>Supra, p.256.

<sup>2</sup>Supra, p.261.

need for new experience. Although this study did not assess the role of values and needs in occupational planning, it is the opinion of this writer that these two factors may be two of the most important determinants of occupational choice and that they merit further study.

A long-term study could be done of a group of students, commencing in their freshman year at university and ending with a follow up study two years after their graduation. These students should be interviewed two or three times during each college session and detailed records kept. This would provide better information on the process of choice at the university level. It would eliminate some of the recall factor. It might show that there are factors that have not yet been recognized which stimulate planning. This method of study might make the students so conscious of occupational planning that they might plan quite differently than they would under normal circumstances. In spite of this limitation, the long term study would provide more information and more detailed information than could probably be gained in any other way. The findings of such a study when compared with other studies, might provide a valuable contribution to knowledge of the process of occupational choice.

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CHAPTER VIII  
FAMILIAL AND NON-FAMILIAL INFLUENCES ON OCCUPATIONAL  
PLANNING OF 71 FOURTH YEAR WOMEN STUDENTS IN  
THE B. A. DEGREE COURSE AT MCGILL  
UNIVERSITY, 1956-1957

by  
JOHN EYMBERTS and MARY SEELY

## CHAPTER VIII

### FAMILIAL AND NON-FAMILIAL INFLUENCES ON OCCUPATIONAL PLANNING OF 71 FOURTH YEAR WOMEN STUDENTS IN THE B. A. DEGREE COURSE AT MCGILL UNIVERSITY, 1956-1957

In Chapters VI and VII, the effects of familial and non-familial influences on occupational planning have been discussed. The purpose of this chapter, as originally conceived, was to compare the findings of these two chapters in order to assess the validity of the second hypothesis: "Familial influences predominate in the process of occupational choice". The researchers have concluded that such a comparison would not be valid because more familial than non-familial influences<sup>1</sup> were reported by the sample group and yet many students had planned for an occupation on the basis of their interests and other personal and external influences.

In order, therefore, to test the hypothesis that: "Familial influences predominate in the process of occupational choice", the researchers analyzed each of the recorded interviews to assess whether a familial, personal or ~~external~~<sup>external</sup> influence had been the main determinant in the

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<sup>1</sup> 1096 familial influences and 538 non-familial influences were reported by the 71 students in the sample.

occupational planning of each student. This analysis resulted in the following findings:

| <u>Type of Influence Which Was The Main Determinant in Occupational Planning</u> | <u>Number of Students</u> |
|--|---------------------------|
| Total. . . . .   | 71                        |
| Personal . . . . .   | 38                        |
| Personal and Familial. . . . .   | 14                        |
| Familial . . . . .   | 16                        |
| External . . . . .   | 3                         |

Although all 3 types of influences were operative in the planning of each student, it was possible, in most cases, to determine which type of influence had been most important in the final occupational planning of the student. Three examples will illustrate how the researchers assessed the interviews, and how the three types of influence operated in occupational planning.

**EXAMPLE ONE: Personal Influence Predominant in Occupational Planning**

Alice wanted to be a nurse when she was 7 years old and when she was 9 she wanted to be a actress. When she came to university she had no definite occupational interests. After her first year university she spent the summer in theatre work and almost decided to leave university to pursue an acting career. In third year, she became aware of a need to plan for an occupation. She considered going into teaching because it is a secure profession and her parents wanted her to go into teaching. In fourth year, Alice had a lead role in a university revue and professional actors encouraged her to continue her acting career. Alice's parents were very much against this plan and her mother suggested she should go into social work, her father suggested medicine.

Both parents suggested teaching. Despite her parents disapproval, Alice has enrolled in a drama school in England and plans to follow an acting career. Encouragement from people in the theatre obviously helped Alice to make her decision, but basically she chose an acting career because she is intensely interested in acting and had demonstrated her acting ability very successfully. Therefore, personal influences are considered the main determinant of occupational choice in this case. Alice's parents have now accepted her plans and this has made her much happier.

**EXAMPLE TWO:** Main Determinant in Occupational Choice, Personal and Familial Influences - This case illustrates how difficult it is to determine which type of influence is predominant.

Jane and her family both wanted her to attend university. As a child, Jane had wanted to be a lawyer and when she entered university she was still interested in a career in law or diplomatic service or merchandizing. Jane's father is a sales engineer and her two brothers and one sister-in-law are also in sales careers. Her sister-in-law suggested that Jane work for a summer in Eaton's Shopping Service. Jane did this for two summers and found she was fascinated with the work and did it very well. Eatons offered to give Jane merchandizing training when she finished her B. A., and Jane plans to accept their offer. Because Jane's family are engaged in sales professions and Jane is very fond of her family, there is evidence of strong familial influence on her planning. However, her family have never expressed any preferences about occupation for Jane and were quite willing for her to go into law or diplomatic service. Jane herself finds sales work interesting and is pleased with her ability and the encouragement which her employer has given her. The researchers are of the opinion that in a case such as this it would not be valid to state that either familial or personal influence was predominant.

**EXAMPLE THREE:** Main Determinant in Occupational Planning, Familial Influence.

As a little girl, Nancy was interested in several occupations. Her mother suggested she should be a teacher and Nancy considered this and also taking home economics because that is what her mother had studied.



In grade seven, her father suggested she could become a chartered accountant which is his profession. Nancy considered this because she is good in mathematics. In grade eight she decided she wanted to be an airline stewardess because she likes to travel. Nancy still wants to be a stewardess more than anything else but her family disapprove of this occupation because they consider it is a waste of her university training. When Nancy was in third year at university, her father suggested that she study business administration, so she took a clerical job for the summer to see if she would like a business profession. She now plans to take a secretarial course and would like to work in an embassy. Although Nancy is not entering one of the professions which her father suggested, she is taking a job in a related field despite her continued preference for being an airline stewardess.

The analysis of individual case records shows that in the sample, the main determinant in occupational planning was usually some form of personal influence such as interest in a specific occupation. However there were 1096 familial influences reported and only 538 non-familial influences. Thus it is difficult to state whether the hypothesis: "Familial influences predominate in the process of occupational choice", has been substantiated or disproven as far as the sample is concerned. The findings suggest that familial influences are more numerous than non-familial influences but that they may be less crucial than personal influences. Therefore, the writers are of the opinion that the hypothesis has been disproven in relation to the sample. The data for testing the hypothesis are limited because only 71 students were interviewed only once for approximately one hour.

The fact that personal influences appear to be more crucial in planning than the more frequent family influences suggests that intensity of influences is more important than frequency of influences. This finding also suggests that the individual, with his own interests, needs and abilities is the most important factor in occupational planning. This is not surprising in view of the fact that North American society encourages individual choice of occupation. Also it is commonly realized today that a person's satisfaction in his work is essential to a happy and healthy life.

The present writers have concluded that many students plan for an occupation on the basis of their own interests and abilities although they are influenced in many ways by their parents. Some students, however, have found that their parents opposed their occupational plans. Because of the role which the family plays in determining occupational choice, it seems of value to point out, by example, how a family may help or hinder their children in occupational planning.

As a young girl, Mary was interested in being a ballet dancer, an actress or an interior decorator. When she came to university her main occupational interest was interior decorating. However, her professors did not believe she had the artistic ability for this field. At the end of her third year university, Mary decided she would like to go into personnel work because she wanted to work with people but not in a depressing occupation such as social work.

When Mary told her parents she wanted to go into personnel work, her father suggested that she apply to X company because he had some contacts there. She applied and was accepted. Mary's parents have never expressed any preference about an occupation for her, they only want her to be happy with her job. She says that she feels her family have been very helpful to her in trying to help her find something in which she is interested and for which she has ability. They encouraged her and gave her self-confidence and she always knew they were behind her.

This case illustrates a harmonious and sound planning process. The parents gave Mary a lot of support and realized that her own interests and abilities should be considered in her planning. Mary felt free to talk to her parents and at the same time she was free to make her own decisions. When Mary decided on the kind of job she wanted, her father was helpful by suggesting she contact a company with which he was familiar. In contrast is the case of Nancy<sup>1</sup>. Nancy wants to be an airline stewardess but she plans to become a secretary because her family disapprove of her being a stewardess.

The writers are of the opinion that parents can be helpful in the occupational planning of their children by giving support and encouragement. When it is possible, parents can also help by giving information on entrance requirements and opportunities in various professions, or by suggesting places which the student may contact for such

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<sup>1</sup>Supra, p. 284.

information. Students expect advice and suggestions from their parents, but find it difficult to accept pressure from them to enter a particular occupation. It is important for parents to remember that a student's interests and abilities should be considered in the choice of an occupation.

There is a need for more vocational information to be provided to students through the schooling system. Perhaps, also, parents could benefit from Home and School Association discussion groups on the problems involved in occupational planning and ways in which the family could be most helpful in this process.

However helpful parents may be in occupational planning, there are some students who lack ability or motivation to plan for themselves. In Chapter VII, it was shown that the group with no plans appears to lack occupational interests and benefits only slightly from vocational counseling. In these cases the parents may have to play a more directive role in planning if they want the student to take a job.

In conclusion, it appears that although there are numerous familial influences that affect the planning process, personal influences, particularly interest in a specific occupation, are the main determinant in occupational planning. Where a student shows interest in occupations and ability to plan, the family

can be most helpful by giving the student encouragement, support, and information in a non-directive manner, If the student lacks interest in occupations and shows little ability to plan, the family needs to be more directive to assist in occupational planning.

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CHAPTER IX

EMPLOYMENT PLANS AND OCCUPATIONAL PARTICIPATION

OF

71 FOURTH YEAR WOMEN STUDENTS

IN THE B.A. DEGREE COURSE

AT

MCGILL UNIVERSITY, 1956-1957

BY

MARGUERITE BLANCHARD

## CHAPTER IX

### THE OCCUPATIONAL PARTICIPATION OF WOMEN STUDENTS

#### Introduction

The recent literature in social sciences and also current magazines and newspapers reveals that from general and vague considerations of women and femininity, surveys are being made on the value of college education for women<sup>1</sup>; on her participation in the labor force<sup>2</sup>; and some attempt is being made to define her role<sup>3</sup> in this "changing world".

Actually, one of the most controversial and surprising facts about women is her increasing participation in the labor force and her role in the employment market. It means that "women go to work at any age"<sup>4</sup> and there are "more working wives than ever"<sup>5</sup>.

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<sup>1</sup>Sanford, Nevitt, "Is College Education Wasted on Women?", Ladies Home Journal, (May, 1957), pp. 78-79, 198.

<sup>2</sup>"Occupations of University Women", Labor Gazette, LVI, (December, 1956), and LVII, (January, February, March, 1957).

<sup>3</sup>Thomas, J.L., "Role of Woman", Commonweal, LXIV, (March, 1956), pp. 171-74.

<sup>4</sup>"Women Go to Work at Any Age", Labor Gazette, LVI, (July, 1956), pp. 806-14.

<sup>5</sup>"More Working Wives than Ever", Marriage and Family Living, XVIII, (February, 1956), p. 29.

The results of a recent survey on "Occupational Planning by Young Women" indicates that

by 1954, the percentage employed reached 34 percent. A typical contemporary pattern seems to involve a combination of marriage and work. Collective data were obtained from 190 undergraduates girls of the State College of Washington. The great majority of girls preferred occupations which have been traditionally regarded as women's work. More indicated preferences for professional types of jobs. Most college girls believed that they could successfully combine marriage and an outside occupational career.<sup>1</sup>

A similar statement is made by Sanford:

The expectation today is that almost all college girls will, at one time or another, be wives and mothers and work at something outside the home. The hope is that as wives and mothers they will maintain a high level of culture and have a keen sense of being alive and worthy; and that when they work, they will do something important and interesting.<sup>2</sup>

Thus, it is socially accepted that:

Today woman has a choice between "career and marriage" or she can work out some combination of them herself, since, she has a choice she may later question whether the goals she chose are the one she really wants.<sup>3</sup>

However, a difference of opinion seems to exist among the observers as to whether employment outside the home is a matter of major importance to women. Ginzberg states when speaking of girls:

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<sup>1</sup>Slocum, Walter L., and T. LaMar Empey, "Occupational Planning by Young Women", (Pullman, Washington, ~~AESB~~, No. 568, 1956), 33p., quoted from: Sociological Abstracts, V, (April, 1957), p. 82

<sup>2</sup>Sanford, op. cit., p. 198

<sup>3</sup>Rose, A.M., "The Adequacy of Women's ~~E~~xpectations for Adult Roles", Social Forces, XXX, (1951), p. 170.



Their primary focus is on marriage and on the type of life that they want to lead as wife and mother. They, too, have an interest in work, but for most of them planning for marriage and a family is central and the work problem is peripheral.<sup>1</sup>

Although this conclusion emerges from his research, Ginzberg points out that "since the future of women is to a considerable degree beyond their own control"<sup>2</sup>, certain conditions may arise that would force them to earn a living. In any case whatever the reason may be for working outside the home, the participation of women in the labor force becomes a matter of considerable importance as it calls "for a major investment of life, effort, emotion involving so many facets of the personality"<sup>3</sup>.

Within this frame of reference and in relation to the material already discussed in the previous chapters of the present study, a discussion of the work plans of the research sample is relevant.

The findings of the 1956 study suggest that women students tend to think of occupational participation as an experience that is likely to occur at various points during their lifetime and that they are influenced by this expectation during the process of selecting an occupation. The third working hypotheses of this study is formulated from these findings. This hypothesis states that:

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<sup>1</sup>Ginzberg, Eli, and Associates, "Occupational Choice, An Approach to a General Theory", (New York: Columbia University Press, 1951), p. 163.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 165

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 22

(a) OCCUPATIONAL PARTICIPATION IS PERCEIVED BY WOMEN STUDENT AS AN EXPERIENCE LIKELY TO OCCUR AT VARIOUS POINTS DURING THE PERIOD BETWEEN GRADUATION AND OLD AGE

(b) THIS THOUGHT IS INFLUENTIAL DURING THE PROCESS OF OCCUPATIONAL SELECTION.

In terms of this hypothesis, the following questions may be raised and the answers sought from the interview content. Do the students in the sample plan to work on a remunerative basis? If so, at what, and at what point in the period between graduation and old age? When planning for their future employment, are they influenced by their mother's employment history, by their parents' attitude towards their employment plans, expectations of marriage and the possibility of combining marriage and career?

Occupational Participation as an Experience  
Likely to Occur at Various Points During a Lifetime

Students' Work Cycle Patterns

The first section of the third working hypothesis of the present study states: "Occupational participation is perceived by women students as an experience likely to occur at various points during the period between graduation and old age". In order to test the validity of this hypothesis, the 71 women students in the research sample were asked the question: "Do you intend to work after graduation?" The answers to this question produced far greater content than was anticipated.

Marriage appears to be a matter of concern for all students in the sample. Of the 71 students, 11 are already married, 17 have definite marriage plans, while 9 have tentative plans. In this study, "definite marriage plan" refers to a decision that the wedding will take place in a stated and limited length of time. A marriage plan is "tentative" when the student is unofficially engaged: e.g. the student goes steady with a boy and hopes to eventually become "a fiancée". The 34 students who have "no marriage plans" have dates and expect to get married not too long after graduation. But "the right man has not yet come along" and they live on hope. It is of interest to note that among this large proportion of students with general expectations for marriage, only three of them expressed more interest in post-graduate studies than in marriage.

As perceived by the students, occupational participation is, therefore, closely related to marriage. Thus, some students plan to work after graduation and when they marry they expect to remain employed until the birth of their first child. However, the picture of motherhood tends to limit work drives since, after the birth of the first child, the general wish is to leave the labor force permanently or to return when the children are grown up. For other students, work is perceived as a permanent experience throughout their life; these students anticipate employment even at the period when they have young children.

From these statements, four stages at which women students intend to work on a remunerative basis are deduced:

- (a) after graduation,
- (b) after marriage before the birth of the first child,

(c) after the birth of a child,

(d) after the children are grown up.

For purpose of the study, these four stages will be referred to as work points in the students' work patterns.

According to a hypothetical model which involves all the possible combinations of the above work points and which includes 16 work patterns, relevant interview content was classified in order to show: (1) at what points in their life students plan to work; (2) how many points are included in each work pattern and; (3) how many students have the same work patterns. Since these work patterns comprise varying periods of time, one or more work points may be involved. These work points from here on in this Chapter will be referred to as "work cycle patterns". The work cycle patterns of the 71 students in the sample are shown in Table 55. It is to be noted that each category is mutually exclusive.

TABLE 55

WORK CYCLE PATTERNS AND THEIR INCIDENCE FOR 71 STUDENTS  
IN THE RESEARCH SAMPLE

| Work Cycle Patterns   | No. of Work<br>Points in<br>Pattern | No. of Stu-<br>dents with<br>Work Pat-<br>terns |
|---|-------------------------------------|---|
|   | Total                               | 71  |
| After graduation  | 1                                   | 22  |
| After marriage before birth of child  | 1                                   | 1   |
| After birth of child  | 1                                   | 0   |
| After children are grown up   | 1                                   | 1   |
| After graduation; after marriage before birth of<br>child   | 2                                   | 20  |
| After graduation; after marriage before birth of<br>child; after birth of child                                 | 3                                   | 0   |
| After graduation; after marriage before birth of<br>child; after birth of child; after children are<br>grown up | 4                                   | 10  |
| After graduation; after marriage before birth of<br>child; after children are grown up                          | 3                                   | 11  |
| After graduation; after birth of child; after<br>children are grown up  | 3                                   | 0   |
| After graduation; after birth of child  | 2                                   | 0   |
| After graduation; after children are grown up   | 2                                   | 1   |
| After marriage before birth of child; after<br>birth of child; after children are grown up                      | 3                                   | 1   |
| After marriage before birth of child; after<br>birth of child   | 2                                   | 0   |
| After marriage before birth of child; after<br>children are grown up  | 2                                   | 3   |
| After birth of child; after children are<br>grown up  | 2                                   | 0   |
| No work cycle pattern   | 0                                   | 1   |

Of the total research sample of 71 students, the largest proportion of students anticipate that they will participate in the labor force at only one point during their life. Thus, 22 students plan to work for remunerative employment after their graduation, but want to retire from the labor market as soon as they are married. The second largest proportion of students comprises 20 students who anticipate occupational participation at two points: (a) after graduation and (b) after marriage before the birth of the first child. Three work points form the work cycle pattern of 11 students: (a) after graduation; (b) after marriage before the birth of the first child; and (c) after the children are grown up. According to their present frame of reference, 10 students aspire to work continuously throughout their lifetime. Their work cycle pattern includes the four work points already referred, namely: (a) after graduation; (b) after marriage before the birth of the first child; (c) after the birth of the first child; and (d) after the children are grown up. The remaining four students have work patterns which appear to be less usual since they are those of a few students. Of the 16 work patterns deduced from the hypothetical model as indicated in Table 55, 6 are not applicable to the present research sample.

It is of interest to note that one student has no work pattern. This case is unique since 70 of the 71 students intend to join the labor force at least at one work point during the period between

graduation and old age. This student anticipates never having to work for gainful employment. She expects to live on an inheritance till marriage which will hopefully bring both a husband financial security.

#### Categories of Work Cycle Patterns

The work cycle patterns shown in Table 55 can be grouped into three major categories. These categories are indicated in Table 56 and are described as follows:

(a) Occupational participation perceived at only one point in a student's lifetime. This implies occupational participation after graduation OR after marriage before the birth of the first child OR after the children are grown up.

(b) Occupational participation perceived as a recurrent experience implies that a student's employment is interrupted at some point and then resumed at some later point in life. For example, a student might work after graduation AND after marriage before the birth of the first child AND after her children are grown up.

(c) Occupational participation perceived as a continuous experience. In this type of work cycle pattern, occupational participation is perceived as a continuous experience during the student's life. The term "continuous experience" involves the idea of continuity and not necessarily the idea of permanence. Therefore, a distinction must be made between students who anticipate continuous work experience and those who intend to work on a permanent basis throughout life. For example, students in the former case, anticipate employment without

any interruption for a certain length of time and then retire permanently from the labor force. In the latter case, students intend to work without any interruption from graduation until old age. That, they expect to be employed after they graduate, and if they marry before and after the birth of children and after their children are grown up.

Table 56 is now presented to indicate the number of students whose work cycle patterns fall into each of the forementioned categories.



TABLE 56

CATEGORIES OF WORK CYCLE PATTERNS AND THEIR INCIDENCE FOR  
STUDENTS IN RESEARCH SAMPLE

| Categories of Work<br>Cycle Patterns  | Number<br>of<br>Students<br>in<br>Catego-<br>ries | Work Points in Pattern   |                             |                            |                                      |
|---|---|--------------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------------|--------------------------------------|
|   |   | After<br>Gra-<br>duation | After Marriage              |                            |                                      |
|   |   |                          | Before<br>Birth<br>of Child | After<br>Birth of<br>Child | After<br>Children<br>are<br>Grown Up |
| Total   | 70 (a)  |                          |                             |                            |                                      |
| Occupational participation<br>perceived at one point in<br>the students' life                     | 22  | x                        |                             |                            |                                      |
|   | 1   |                          | x                           |                            |                                      |
|   | 1   |                          |                             |                            | x                                    |
| Occupational participa-<br>tion perceived as a re-<br>current experience in<br>the students' life | 11  | x                        | x                           |                            | x                                    |
|   | 1   | x                        |                             |                            | x                                    |
|   | 3   |                          | x                           |                            | x                                    |
| Occupational participa-<br>tion perceived as a<br>continuous experience<br>in the students' life  | 20  | x                        | x                           |                            |                                      |
|   | 10  | x                        | x                           | x                          | x                                    |
|   | 1   |                          | x                           | x                          | x                                    |

(a) As indicated on page 296, 1 of the 71 students has no work cycle pattern

Points at Which the 70 Students Anticipate Being Employed and Reasons Warranted for Employment

A further inspection of the work cycle patterns reveals that the work point which occurs the most frequently in these patterns is: "after marriage before the birth of the first child". Of interest is the fact, that this work point occurs for only 46 of the students in the sample. According to Table 57, the point at which the largest proportion of students (64) who will apparently be employed on a remunerative basis is "after graduation". The remaining 6 students who will not work at this can be explained by the fact that these 6 students are getting married soon after graduation and plan to be employed after their marriage. The fact that these 6 students plan to be married explains why the work point "after marriage before the birth of the first child" is cited the most frequently in the students' work cycle patterns.

TABLE 57

NUMBER OF STUDENTS IN THE SAMPLE WHO ANTICIPATE EMPLOYMENT  
AT EACH OF THE STATED WORK POINTS

| Work Cycle Patterns  | No. of<br>Students<br>with<br>Work<br>Patterns | No. of Students Who Anticipate Being<br>Employed at Work Points |                             |                            |                                   |
|--|--|---|-----------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------------|
|  |  | After<br>Grada-<br>tion   | Before<br>Birth of<br>Child | After<br>Birth of<br>Child | After<br>Children are<br>Grown Up |
| Total  | 70   | 64  | 46                          | 11                         | 27                                |
| After graduation   | 22   | 22  |                             |                            |                                   |
| After marriage before birth of<br>child  | 1  |   | 1                           |                            |                                   |
| After children are grown up  | 1  |   |                             |                            | 1                                 |
| After graduation; after mar-<br>riage before birth of child  | 20   | 20  | 20                          |                            |                                   |
| After graduation; after mar-<br>riage before birth of child;<br>after birth of child; after<br>children are grown up | 10   | 10  | 10                          | 10                         | 10                                |
| After graduation; after mar-<br>riage before birth of child;<br>after children are grown up                          | 11   | 11  | 11                          |                            | 11                                |
| After graduation; after child-<br>ren are grown up   | 1  | 1   |                             |                            | 1                                 |
| After marriage before birth of<br>child; after birth of child;<br>after children are grown up                        | 1  |   | 1                           | 1                          | 1                                 |
| After marriage before birth of<br>child; after children are grown<br>up  | 3  |   | 3                           |                            | 3                                 |

Reasons for Employment after Graduation

The reasons stated for employment after graduation by these 64 students are indicated in Table 58.

TABLE 58

FREQUENCY OF REASONS GIVEN BY 64 STUDENTS WHO ANTICIPATE  
EMPLOYMENT AFTER GRADUATION

| Reasons Warranted for Employment after Graduation | Number of Students in Each Category |
|---|-------------------------------------|
| Total   | 64                                  |
| To support oneself                                | 22                                  |
| General wish for work                             | 24                                  |
| Occupational interest                             | 8                                   |
| Others  | 10                                  |

Students were in agreement concerning the value of a liberal education obtained through college attendance. The majority of the students stated that "they have now something to go on by themselves", which statement includes also the wish to be financially independent from their parents. The reason for seeking employment appears to be one of personal motivation. However, it may be deduced that the parents' expectations concerning the employment of their daughters after graduation have apparently highly conditioned their attitude. Forty-five of the 64 students who intend to participate in the labor force after graduation

referred to the parental attitude in these terms: (1) "My parents want me to earn some money to support myself;" (2) "My parents encourage me to work;" and (3) "My parents approve of my working".

As indicated in Table 58, a general wish for work was expressed in terms of "I want to work" or "I like to work". The interview content does not permit adequate interpretation of these two expressions.

It appears to the writer that a difference of wording corresponds to a similarity of meaning: the students wish to work. The 8 students who spoke of their occupational participation in terms of "interest" have a specific occupational interest they want to exercise in gainful employment and they appear to be more strongly motivated to work than the 24 students who expressed a general wish for work.

We have used the term "interests" to mean an awareness on the part of the individual that through directed effort and activity in one direction he can gain more satisfaction than in another. The essential component in this definition is the factor of investment - the individual gains the satisfaction only as a result of effort and output.<sup>1</sup>

Ginzberg's definition of "interest" is apparently applicable to these 8 students.

Under the category "others" are listed such reasons as: "implications of work for mental health; money required for marriage; religious and social motivations; dislike of housework; and self fulfillment."

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<sup>1</sup>Ginzberg, op. cit., p. 254

The attitude of the students towards employment after graduation, as discussed thus far in this Chapter, tends to conform to some opinions already expressed concerning occupational trends among women. In the "International Labour Review", Muntz states:

A young woman who has completed her formal schooling is today virtually forced to take up employment. Even though her parents or family might willingly provide for her, she feels that society expects her to support herself. From all angles - sociologically, psychologically and economically, this is a good preparation for later life and help to inculcate that spirit of independence for which American girls are noted.<sup>1</sup>

On the other hand, Caplow in his book "The Sociology of Work", states:

It is the normal expectation that a man will be at work or seeking work from the termination of his schooling until his death or retirement. This is not the expectation for women, and in fact only a small minority of those employed remain in the labor force through their mature years...women are expected to work in the interval - if there is one between the termination of their schooling and marriage.<sup>2</sup>

According to these views, the attitude of the students in the research sample towards occupational participation does not appear to differ in any way from the average girl who is socially expected to support herself after the completion of her formal schooling. These

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<sup>1</sup>Muntz, Earl E., "Women's Changing Role in the United States Employment Market", International Labour Review, LXXIV, (November, 1956), 423.

<sup>2</sup>Caplow, Theodore, The Sociology of Work, (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1954), p. 234.

students seem to be conscious of this fact regardless of the economic level of their parents.<sup>1</sup> On the other hand, the parental attitude towards the daughter's employment plans after graduation suggest that they have adopted the prevalent cultural values.

#### Employment after Marriage Before the Birth of the First Child and Reasons For Employment

According to Table 57, 46 of 70 students anticipate employment after marriage till the birth of their first child. It is of interest to note the reasons given by the 22 students who intend to leave the employment market after their marriage. Some state that "marriage is a full-time job", while others affirm that "woman's place is in the home". These girls "who believe that almost all their future satisfactions will derive from marriage" are referred by Ginzberg to the "marriage-oriented" girls in opposition to the "work-oriented" girls.

"Between these two extremes are those who look forward to finding their major satisfactions in marriage but who expect to work".<sup>3</sup> To this category would belong the above mentioned 46 students who intend to work after their marriage till the birth of the first child. The reasons stated for employment as compiled in Table 59 do not reveal a real desire for achievement through work on the part of all the students. However, work for them appears to be a valuable source of personal satisfaction.

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<sup>1</sup>Supra, p. 60

<sup>2</sup>Ginzberg, op. cit., p. 170

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 171

TABLE 59

FREQUENCY OF REASONS GIVEN BY 64 STUDENTS WHO ANTICIPATE  
EMPLOYMENT AFTER MARRIAGE BEFORE THE BIRTH OF THE FIRST  
CHILD

| Reasons Warranted for Employment After Marriage<br>Before the Birth of the First Child | Number of<br>Students in<br>Each Category |
|--|---|
| Total  | 46  |
| Financial needs  | 15  |
| Occupational interest  | 8   |
| To keep busy   | 7   |
| Not being bored  | 6   |
| Others   | 10  |

According to this Table, 1/3 of the students who plan to work for financial reasons state the necessity of being the financial provider until the husband "settles down", while the remaining 2/3 express their desire for financial security before "they start a family".

Today, every college girl I know is firmly determined both to get married and to work. But the girls are now hoping to work less as an end in itself than as a means of expanding the family income, enabling them to have more children (the passion for large families is new in college women, and still not adequately explained) and to bring them up better. They are thinking of jobs not despite marriage but because of marriage.<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>White, Lynn Jr., "The Changing Context of Women's Education", Marriage and Family Living, XVII, (November, 1955), 293.



Margaret Mead is also conscious of this evolving cultural pattern when she says:

"A woman with a job who worked just to help her husband - to buy another car or a refrigerator or a TV set, to pay off doctor's bills or to send Billy to college - was violating no value; she was working for the home".<sup>1</sup>

To be noted is the fact that the 8 students for whom occupational interest is reported as a reason for employment in Table 58 are still found in Table 59. Although a difference of wording, the expressions: "to keep busy" and not "being bored" appear to have a similar meaning in terms of occupational participation. These 13 students associate housework with boredom because of dislike of the domestic chores or a feeling of too much leisure-time in marriage possibly due to the growing simplicity of housekeeping. The reasons listed under the category "others" are similar to those indicated in Table 58.

It must be said, that marriage brings changes in women's plans for participation in the labor force. While the 64 students who intend to work after graduation perceive their employment as a "full-time job", more than 1/2 of the students in sample anticipate that they will only work part time after marriage. A full-time remunerated occupation means the "nine to five job" or the "forty hours work a week". As defined by some students, a part-time job

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<sup>1</sup>Mead, Margaret, "American Man in a Woman's World", The New York Times Magazine, February 10, 1957, p. 20.

would be equivalent to three to four hours work a day outside the home. For the majority of the students it necessarily means a job limited in time, and according to the work motivations of some students it would also correspond to Florence Kluckhohn's definition: "a fill-in job with few responsibilities and incentive".<sup>1</sup> The part-time job is generally perceived by women students as a flexible combination with the requirements of house-work and thus, more likely to be adopted by married women who want to work outside the home.

As discussed, the proportion of students who intend to remain in the labor force after their marriage till the birth of a child is substantial. This phenomenon appears to be in conformity with the recent occupational trends among women:

"About two out of every three American women have been employed at sometime before marriage. Many continue to work after marriage in order to supplement the husband's wages until the first baby comes, a practice now quite generally accepted by society. It is estimated that one-half of all wives are in the labour force before the first wedding anniversary".<sup>2</sup>

Speaking of the intermittent occupational career of women, Caplow states "they (women) may continue to work until the birth of their first child".<sup>3</sup>

Thus, it may be deduced that the students of the research sample do not differ in their work aspiration from the majority of the young girls of today.

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<sup>1</sup>Kluckhohn, Florence R., "American Women and American Values", Facing the Future's Risks, ed. by Lyman Bryson, (New York: Harper and Brothers Publishers, 1953), p. 197.

<sup>2</sup>Muntz, op. cit., p. 430

<sup>3</sup>Caplow, op. cit., p. 234

### Employment After the Birth of a Child and Reasons for Employment

According to Table 58, p.303 a small proportion of students intend to undertake remunerative employment after the birth of their first child. In conformity with the interview material, this significant decrease of female participation in the labor force is due to the fact that the students express the wish "to raise their children themselves". Thus, during the child rearing period only 11 students expect to remain in the labor force. Ten of these 11 students intend to work on a permanent basis throughout their lifetime. The remaining student has apparently the same work ambition, but will start to work only after her marriage which is to take place soon after her graduation. Within this frame of reference and for purpose of the study this student will be considered as working on a permanent basis. Six of these 11 students appear to be strongly motivated to work outside the home since the reasons given for employment are expressed in terms of occupational interest. The "reality problem" of 3 students appears to be one of personal development since their central focus is neither upon the employment itself nor on the working world but on self-fulfillment through an occupation. The other 2 students express their motivation to work in such terms: "to keep busy" or "to keep from being bored".

According to Ginzberg's classification, none of these 11 students are "work-oriented";<sup>1</sup> 4 are married and the remaining students plan

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<sup>1</sup>Supra, p. 306

definitely to combine marriage and a career with the major emphasis on marriage. The occupations selected by these students will be further discussed. May it only be said now that their selection of an occupation appears to be done in terms of what will best contribute to the further development of their personality rather than in terms of how to earn a living.

Even those who look forward to deriving considerable satisfaction from work cannot concentrate on their "career problems", because they anticipate that their principal satisfactions will be derived largely through marriage.<sup>1</sup>

Of interest is the fact that these students intend to work only on a part-time basis. This is because the rearing of young children is in itself practically a full-time job. However, most of them plan to return to a full-time employment when their children are grown up.

The small proportion of women who anticipate employment outside the home at this stage of their life, as discussed thus far in this Chapter, tends to conform to the reality situation:

"Less than one fifth of them (married women), are still in the employment market after five years of marriage."<sup>2</sup> "If family income permits, such women are virtually removed from the employment market until the children leave elementary school".<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> Ginzberg, op. cit., p. 175

<sup>2</sup> Statistical Bulletin, Vol. XXXII, No. 4, (April, 1951), p. 1

<sup>3</sup> Muntz, op. cit., p. 430

Beginning at the age of 20, presence or absence of young children also increasingly affects the overall worker rates. The worker rates for married women with or without young children illustrate the influence of this factor in keeping women out of the labour force; at age 20, the rate for married reach an initial peak of about 30 percent at age 22, when about 1/3 of the married women have no children, but drop to 22 percent between the ages of 25 and 30 when the proportion of married women with no children declines to about 20 percent.

Changes in female worker rates which occur between age 30 and 40 provide additional evidence that age is less important than the presence of children in determining the worker rates for all women. Worker rates for all women rise from about 31 percent at age 30 to 36 percent at age 40, because about 60 percent of the married women at age 30 have children under 5. Worker rates for married women with children under 5, which range narrowly between 10 and 15 percent indicate that the presence of preschool age is the predominant factor in keeping women, regardless of their age, out of the labour force.<sup>1</sup>

#### Employment after Children are Grown Up and Reasons for Employment

As indicated in Table 56, p. 300, students anticipate resumption of employment when their children are grown up. Eleven of these students expect employment (a) after graduation; (b) after marriage before the birth of the first child; and (c) after children are grown up. One student in this group plans to work after graduation and again after her children are grown up. Three plan to work prior to the birth of children and after they are grown up. From the interview material, it has not been possible to deduce the stage at which children are said to

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<sup>1</sup>Garfinkle, Stuart, "Tables of Working Life for Women, 1950", Monthly Labor Review, LXXIX, (June, 1956), 657-58.

be grown up in the students' frame of reference. For some students, it seems to mean (1) when the last child starts elementary school or (2) when children graduate from elementary to high school. For others, it is likely at the point at which children have completed their formal schooling. Whatever the precise stage at which children are perceived as grown up, some students expect that they will experience a psychological need to justify themselves. Thus the reasons underlying employment are expressed in such terms as: "to keep busy" "to be useful" or "to feel useful".

This is a healthy reaction if one considers, for instance, the spare time provided to house-wives by mechanised household methods.

One may also agree with Muntz that:

Fewer pregnancies and births are needed to provide parents with the number of children they want than was the case in earlier generations when infant and child mortality rates were high. Consequently, the family may be completed in a shorter period of the wife's fertility span; the children are all closer together in age and the maturity spread of all the children is completed in a shorter period of time. The net result is that women are often able to return to continuous employment at an earlier age than hitherto and, in fact, as their children grow up many mothers do return to gainful employment.<sup>1</sup>

The term "employment" as thus far discussed in this Chapter has always been referred to as remunerative employment. Therefore, women students who intend to work in the community on a volunteer basis were not involved in any way in the discussion. However, it is of interest to

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<sup>1</sup> Muntz, op. cit., p. 430

note that 7 of the 22 "marriage-oriented"<sup>1</sup> students plan to join welfare and community services on a volunteer basis while 9 others expect to make a similar contribution to the community when their children are grown up. These students seem to have adopted a prevalent cultural pattern which requires the contribution of the non-working housewife in community organization or services. It must also be noted that these marriage-oriented students stated that they would seek employment at any stage of their life under strenuous financial circumstances. This statement also applies to the remaining students.

#### Work Cycle Patterns of the Married Students

Because "marriage and having children are the major determinants of labor force activity"<sup>2</sup>, the work cycle patterns of the married students will be examined in order to find if they differ in any way from those of the single students. Four of the 11 married students who are already married anticipate employment on a permanent basis throughout their lifetime while 5 will engage in remunerative employment until the birth of their first child. One student will retire from the labor market after the birth of her first child and intends to return when her family is raised. The remaining student in this group was pregnant, at the time of the research interview. She plans to work only when her children are grown up. Apparently this small proportion of married students follows

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<sup>1</sup>Supra, p. 306

<sup>2</sup>Garfinkle, op. cit., p. 655.

the general occupational trend perceived in the sample in that their marital status does not appear to restrict or influence occupational participation.

#### Summary

According to the present findings, it may be deduced that the interview material tends to support the first section of the third working hypothesis, which states that "Occupational participation is perceived by women students as an experience likely to occur at various points during the period between graduation and old age."

Seventy of the 71 students in the research sample anticipate that they will be employed at one or various stages after university graduation. Of these 70 students, 1/3 plan to work only during the period between graduation from university and their marriage. According to the interview content, these students look forward to finding their major satisfactions in marriage. In conformity with Ginzberg they are the "marriage-oriented" students in the sample. The remaining 2/3 of the sample comprise students who regard marriage as their primary goal but who also expect to work. Among these students, 1/3 intend to remain in the labor force until the birth of their first child. During the child-rearing period, the number of students who anticipate occupational participation decreases significantly. At this stage, only a small proportion of students intend to remain employed. They are the 11 students who plan to work on a permanent basis throughout their lifetime. The work cycle pattern of these students include the following four work points in a woman's life referred to in this study as: (a) after graduation;



(b) after marriage before the birth of the first child; (c) after the birth of children; (d) when children are grown up. According to the findings this last stage is characterized by a return to work by 15 students in sample.

The period at which the largest proportion of students will be simultaneously engaged in the labor force is the period between their graduation and prior to marriage. The reasons warranted for work at this stage are based on the expectations of the parents that: the daughters will support themselves; a general wish for work; and interest in a particular type of work. The majority of married students who intend to work until the birth of the first child will do so for economic reasons. Reasons given by those who anticipate a return to the labor force suggest a psychological need to justify themselves. The students who intend to work permanently during their lives are motivated mainly by occupational interest and desire for self-fulfillment. An examination of work cycle patterns of the 11 married students does not reveal any, significant difference from those of the unmarried students.

Thus, the students plan to work during the period between their graduation from university and old age. Some students anticipate employment at only one stage in their lives. Other students perceive occupational participation as an experience that is likely to recur. While the remaining students intend to work continuously for a given length of time or to work on a permanent basis throughout their whole lives. Hence, three categories of work patterns are deduced:

- (a) Occupational participation perceived at one point in the students' life.
- (b) Occupational participation perceived as a recurrent experience in the students' life.
- (c) Occupational participation perceived as a continuous experience in the students' life.

#### Factors Which Influence Students' Work Cycle Patterns

As already discussed in the present Chapter, relevant interview material supports the first part of the third working hypothesis of this study.

"Occupational participation is perceived by women students as an experience likely to occur at various points during the period between graduation and old age."

The second part of this hypothesis states that: "This thought is influential during the process of occupational selection". Before the writer proceeds to test the validity of this hypothesis, an examination is warranted of the circumstances that may have influenced students in the sample to anticipate employment at one or more points after graduation from college.

There is evidence that the reasons stated by students in the research sample as underlying their future employment plans are factors which, to a certain extent, exert an influence on their work patterns. However, it could be that the students' attitude towards their future employment could have been conditioned by circumstances such as their mothers' work history.

Other factors that may have influenced occupational planning are fathers and students' attitudes towards employment or non-employment of the mothers outside the home and the parental attitude towards the students' employment plans after graduation.

The discussion of these forementioned factors are particularly of interest when related to Chapter V which deals with family influence during the process of occupational choice. The present section will demonstrate to a certain extent if the parental attitude is influential on the students' work cycle patterns.

#### Mothers' Work Cycle Patterns

In order to demonstrate whether women students in the sample are in any way influenced or not by their mothers' employment or non-employment outside the home after marriage in the selection of their work patterns, Table 60 was compiled. This compilation was done according to the hypothetical model<sup>1</sup> already referred to for the classification of the students' work patterns (Table 55). Consequently, Table 60 indicates: (1) at what points in their life the 71 mothers of students in the research sample have been working or not; (2) how many points are included in each work pattern; and (3) how many mothers have the same work pattern.

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<sup>1</sup>Supra, p. 295

TABLE 60

WORK CYCLE PATTERNS AND THEIR INCIDENCE IN GROUP OF 71 MOTHERS  
OF STUDENTS IN RESEARCH SAMPLE

| Work Cycle Patterns  | No. of<br>Work Points<br>in Pattern | No. of Mo-<br>thers with<br>Work pat-<br>terns |
|--|-------------------------------------|--|
|  | Total                               | 71   |
| Prior to marriage (a)  | 1                                   | 31   |
| After marriage before birth of child   | 1                                   | 0  |
| After birth of child   | 1                                   | 1  |
| After children are grown up  | 1                                   | 0  |
| Prior to marriage; after marriage before birth of<br>child   | 2                                   | 12   |
| Prior to marriage; after marriage before birth of<br>child; after birth of child                                       | 3                                   | 0  |
| Prior to marriage; after marriage before birth of<br>child; after birth of child; after children are<br>grown up       | 4                                   | 7  |
| Prior to marriage; after marriage before birth of<br>child; after children are grown up                                | 3                                   | 1  |
| Prior to marriage; after birth of child; after<br>children are grown up  | 3                                   | 0  |
| Prior to marriage; after birth of child  | 2                                   | 3  |
| Prior to marriage; after children are grown up   | 2                                   | 2  |
| After marriage before birth of child; after birth<br>of child; after children are grown up                             | 3                                   | 1  |
| After marriage before birth of child; after birth<br>of child  | 2                                   | 0  |
| After marriage before birth of child; after child-<br>ren are grown up   | 2                                   | 0  |
| After birth of child; after children are grown up  | 2                                   | 1  |
| No work cycle pattern  | 0                                   | 12   |
| (a) The term "prior to marriage" is equivalent to<br>"after graduation" as referred to for the<br>students in Table 55 |                                     |  |

This Table reveals that of the 71 mothers of the students in the sample, the largest proportion was employed prior to marriage. In fact, 31 mothers worked before marriage and retired permanently from the labor force once married. It is to be noted that 12 of the 71 mothers never undertook gainful employment outside the house prior to or after marriage. It may be assumed that their family income and the husband's income at the time of marriage favoured such an attitude. The inspection of the actual income of the husbands of these 12 mothers plus the other 31 who abstained from employment after their marriage shows an income of \$10,000 and over in 20 cases. In this particular instance, Caplow's statement would likely be confirmed on woman's work and class status:

In general, the higher the class status, the higher the probability that work will be interrupted at marriage, and the lower the chance that women will return to the labor force after the birth of children.<sup>1</sup>

The second largest proportion of working mothers comprises 12 mothers who were employed both prior to and after their marriage till the birth of the first child. Seven mothers have been employed on a permanent basis ever since they completed their formal schooling. The remaining mothers worked at one or more points after they were married.

#### Categories of Work Cycle Patterns

According to the employment plans of the students at various stages of their life, their work patterns were said to determine three different categories of work patterns.<sup>2</sup> Similarly to the students, the

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<sup>1</sup>Caplow, op. cit., p. 234

<sup>2</sup>Supra, p. 300

mothers work cycle may be classified under three types of work patterns as indicated in Table 61.

TABLE 61

CATEGORIES OF WORK CYCLE PATTERNS AND THEIR INCIDENCE IN  
MOTHERS OF STUDENTS IN RESEARCH SAMPLE

| Categories of Work<br>Cycle Pattern  | Number<br>of<br>Mothers<br>in<br>Categories | Work Points in Pattern  |                                |                               |                                      |
|--|---|-------------------------|--------------------------------|-------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
|  |   | Prior<br>to<br>Marriage | After Marriage                 |                               |                                      |
|  |   |                         | Before<br>Birth<br>of<br>Child | After<br>Birth<br>of<br>Child | After<br>Children<br>are<br>Grown Up |
| Total  | 59(a)                                       |                         |                                |                               |                                      |
| Occupational participation<br>at one point in the mo-<br>thers' life               | 31  | x                       |                                |                               |                                      |
|  | 1   |                         |                                | x                             |                                      |
| Occupational participa-<br>tion as a recurrent<br>experience in mo-<br>thers' life | 1   | x                       | x                              |                               | x                                    |
|  | 3   | x                       |                                | x                             |                                      |
|  | 2   | x                       |                                |                               | x                                    |
| Occupational partici-<br>pation as a continuous<br>experience in mother's<br>life  | 12  | x                       | x                              |                               |                                      |
|  | 7   | x                       | x                              | x                             | x                                    |
|  | 1   |                         | x                              | x                             | x                                    |
|  | 1   |                         |                                | x                             | x                                    |

(a) As indicated in Table 60, 12 mothers have no work cycle patterns.

Some mothers were engaged in the labor force on a remunerative basis at one stage of their life, while the others experienced their occupational participation in terms of a recurrent or a continuous experience throughout lifetime. Of interest is the fact that the work patterns of the mothers are based on an experienced situation while the students are projecting themselves into the future and therefore, planning on an idealistic and possibly

unrealistic basis. Thus, a comparison between Table 56, p. 300 and Table 61 reveals that the work point "after the birth of a child" appears frequently in the mothers work patterns. The largest proportion of students do not expect to be employed at this stage of their life. One may assume that the reality of the situation will modify their expectations or at least some of their plans with reference to employment at this point.

Points at Which the Mothers of the Students Were Employed and  
Reasons for Employment

In order to show the proportion of mothers who were employed at the four work points already referred to, namely: (a) prior to marriage, (b) after marriage before the birth of the first child, (c) after the birth of children; and (d) after children are grown up, Table 62 is presented.

TABLE 62

NUMBER OF MOTHERS OF STUDENTS IN THE SAMPLE WHO WERE EMPLOYED  
AT EACH OF THE STATED WORK POINTS

| Work Cycle Patterns  | No. of<br>Mothers<br>with<br>Work<br>Points | No. of Mothers Who Were Employed<br>at Work Points |                                |                               |                                   |
|--|---|--|--------------------------------|-------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
|  |   | Prior to<br>Marriage                               | After Marriage                 |                               |                                   |
|  |   |  | Before<br>Birth<br>of<br>Child | After<br>Birth<br>of<br>Child | After<br>Children are<br>Grown Up |
| Total  | 59  | 56   | 22                             | 12                            | 12                                |
| Prior to marriage  | 31  | 31   |                                |                               |                                   |
| After birth of child   | 1   |  |                                | 1                             |                                   |
| Prior to marriage; after marriage before birth of child  | 12  | 12   | 12                             |                               |                                   |
| Prior to marriage; after marriage before birth of child; after birth of child; after children are grown up | 7   | 7  | 7                              | 7                             | 7                                 |
| Prior to marriage; after marriage before birth of child; after children are grown up                       | 1   | 1  | 1                              |                               | 1                                 |
| Prior to marriage; after birth of child  | 3   | 3  |                                | 3                             |                                   |
| Prior to marriage; after children are grown up   | 2   | 2  |                                |                               | 2                                 |
| After marriage before birth of child; after birth of child; after children are grown up                    | 1   |  | 1                              | 1                             | 1                                 |
| After marriage before birth of child; after children are grown up  | 1   |  | 1                              |                               | 1                                 |



According to this Table, the largest proportion of mothers (59) was employed prior to marriage. Fifty-six mothers are indicated to have been simultaneously engaged in the labor force after the termination of their formal schooling. After marriage, a significant decrease is noted since only 22 mothers remain in the labor force. An equal proportion of women (12) worked after the birth of their children and after their children had grown up. It is of interest to note that the proportion of students who anticipate employment at the same stages as their mothers' life, as indicated in Table 57, p.302, is different. The proportion of mothers who worked after marriage is considerably less than the proportion employed prior to marriage. A very small proportion of mothers returned to work after their children had grown up. This quantitative difference between the students' and their mothers' work cycle patterns suggests a change in a cultural pattern. No longer do women's place and contribution appear to be solely restricted to the home.

According to information obtained from the students, their mothers' employment after marriage was warranted mostly for economic reasons. Of the 28 mothers who worked at various stages, once married,  $2/3$  of them did so for financial reasons. The remaining  $1/3$  gave as their reasons: "to keep busy while husband was away", "to keep busy when husband died", "need for social activity", and "occupational interest". In contrast to the students, the mothers appear to have expected primarily their major satisfactions to be derived from marriage and very few seem to have had a desire for achievement through work. According to Ginzberg's

classification, the great majority of these mothers appear to be essentially "marriage-oriented".

**Mothers' and Students' Work Cycle Patterns:**

In order to compare the work patterns of both the mothers and students, Table 63 is presented.

TABLE 63

COMPARISON OF STUDENTS' AND MOTHERS' WORK CYCLE PATTERNS

| Work Cycle Patterns  | No. of<br>Work<br>Points<br>in Pat-<br>tern | With Work Patterns |                    |
|--|---|--------------------|--------------------|
|  |   | No. of<br>Mothers  | No. of<br>Students |
| Total  |   | 71                 | 71                 |
| Prior to marriage (or after graduation)  | 1   | 31                 | 22                 |
| After marriage before birth of child   | 1   | 0                  | 1                  |
| After birth of child   | 1   | 1                  | 0                  |
| After children are grown up  | 1   | 0                  | 1                  |
| Prior to marriage; after marriage before<br>birth of child   | 2   | 12                 | 20                 |
| Prior to marriage; after marriage before<br>birth of child; after birth of child;<br>after children are grown up | 4   | 7                  | 10                 |
| Prior to marriage; after marriage before<br>birth of child; after children are<br>grown up                       | 3   | 1                  | 11                 |
| Prior to marriage; after birth of child  | 2   | 3                  | 0                  |
| Prior to marriage; after children are<br>grown up  | 2   | 2                  | 1                  |
| After marriage before birth of child;<br>after birth of child; after children<br>are grown up                    | 3   | 1                  | 1                  |
| After marriage before birth of child;<br>after children are grown up   | 2   | 0                  | 3                  |
| After birth of child; after children are<br>grown up   | 2   | 1                  | 0                  |
| No work cycle pattern  | 0   | 12                 | 1                  |

As shown in this Table, the work cycle patterns are similar for both students and their mothers except in a few cases. In order to demonstrate whether the mothers' employment history could have influenced in any way the student's work pattern, the data will be examined to determine how frequently the same work patterns are manifested by mothers and daughters. For this purpose, only patterns which include a significant number of mothers and daughters are listed in Table 64.

TABLE 64

COMPARISON OF FREQUENCY OF SIGNIFICANT WORK CYCLE PATTERNS  
IN MOTHERS' AND STUDENTS' GROUPS

| Work Cycle Patterns  | No. of<br>Work<br>Points in<br>Pattern | With Same Work<br>Patterns |                          |
|--|--|----------------------------|--------------------------|
|  |  | No. of<br>Mothers<br>63    | No. of<br>Students<br>64 |
| Total  |  |                            |                          |
| Prior to marriage (or after graduation)  | 1                                      | 31                         | 22                       |
| Prior to marriage; after marriage before the<br>birth of child   | 2                                      | 12                         | 20                       |
| Prior to marriage; after marriage before<br>birth of child; after birth of child; after<br>children are grown up | 4                                      | 7                          | 10                       |
| Prior to marriage; after marriage before birth<br>of child; after children are grown up                          | 3                                      | 1                          | 11                       |
| No work cycle pattern  |  | 12                         | 1                        |

Examination of the patterns in this Table indicates that 8 of the 22 students who expect to work only after their graduation have apparently adopted their mothers' work cycle patterns. Four students who also plan employment at this stage are daughters of mothers who were employed neither prior to or after marriage.

Four of the 20 students who plan to work at the following two stages: (a) after graduation and (b) after marriage before the birth of the first child, have the same work cycle pattern as their mothers. Thirteen other students are daughters of mothers who have never worked outside their own homes. It is to be noted that the 11 students who plan to work on a permanent basis are daughters of mothers who have never been employed on a permanent basis since their marriage. Of interest is the fact that the daughters of the 7 mothers who worked permanently since the termination of their schooling till the present stage intend to work at only two points of their life: the period between graduation and the birth of the first child.

As already mentioned, 15 students intend to return to work after their children are grown up. Because of this expectation, the students differ from their mothers who abstained from returning to employment at this stage of their life. Thus, generally the attitude of the students towards employment outside the home is different from their mothers'. This is exemplified by the fact that whereas 12 mothers have never been employed on a remunerative basis, only 1 student in the sample does not expect to work at any time after her graduation.

According to these findings, it may be deduced that approximately 1/3 of the students have adopted their mothers' work cycle pattern. Of the remaining 2/3, the largest proportion does not expect to work at more than two points. They are daughters of mothers who had never been employed outside their own homes or who had worked only prior to marriage. The daughters of mothers who worked on a permanent basis prior to marriage till the present time do not intend to repeat the work pattern of their mothers but expect to limit their occupational participation to two points.

In relation to these findings, the question may be raised as to whether the students disapprove of their mothers' employment after marriage. Relevant content analysis reveals that the daughters of 7 of 28 mothers who worked after marriage are not in favour of their mothers' employment outside the home. This attitude is expressed in terms such as "woman's place is in the home". Apparently these students may have experienced emotional deprivation due to the absence of the mother from the home. On the other hand, 17 students state their approval of the mother's non-employment in similar terms. In their total scheme of values, the students give top place to the housewife's and mother's tasks which would make them inclined to identify to the maternal picture and, therefore, likely to imitate the mother's work cycle pattern. This matter will be further discussed in this Chapter.

Referring to Ginzberg's statement on paternal influence: "closer relationships continued to exist between them (the girls) and their fathers"<sup>1</sup>, one may suspect that these students would also generally

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<sup>1</sup>Ginzberg, op. cit., p. 168

tend to adopt the father's attitude towards the mother's employment or non-employment after marriage. In order to demonstrate this possible relationship Table 65 and Table 66 were compiled.

TABLE 65

FATHERS' AND STUDENTS' ATTITUDE TOWARDS MOTHERS' EMPLOYMENT  
AFTER MARRIAGE

| Attitude Towards Mothers' Employment<br>after Marriage | Number of<br>Fathers | Number of<br>Students |
|--|----------------------|-----------------------|
| Total  | 28                   | 28                    |
| Approval   | 10                   | 4                     |
| Disapproval  | 3                    | 7                     |
| Attitude unknown                                       | 8                    | 4                     |
| Not asked or not applicable                            | 7                    | 13                    |

TABLE 66

FATHERS' AND STUDENTS' ATTITUDE TOWARDS MOTHERS' NON-EMPLOYMENT  
AFTER MARRIAGE

| Attitude Towards Mothers' Non-Employment<br>after Marriage | Number of<br>Fathers | Number of<br>Students |
|--|----------------------|-----------------------|
| Total  | 43                   | 43                    |
| Approval   | 25                   | 17                    |
| Disapproval  | 0                    | 6                     |
| Attitude unknown   | 6                    | 5                     |
| Not asked or not applicable                                | 12                   | 15                    |

Of the sample of 71 mothers, only 28 of them were employed outside their own homes after marriage. Table 65 indicates that 10 fathers and 4 students are in favour of the mother's employment. Disapproval is expressed by 7 students and 3 fathers. Among these 7 students, 5 have decided not to work after marriage. The fact that the 10 fathers approve of the mother's employment after marriage may be explained by the circumstances underlying their employment. The interview material reveals, as already indicated, that the largest proportion of mothers who worked after marriage did so for financial reasons. Since the woman who is employed usually contributes to the family finances, she is more likely to be accepted by her husband who is socially and culturally perceived to be the principal earner and provider for the family than by the student who possibly resented her mother's absence from the home when she was a child.

As shown in Table 66, 25 fathers and 17 students approve of non-employment of the mothers. Here again, the students' attitude towards the mothers' non-employment differs from the fathers'. Six students disapprove of their mother's full-time house-maker role and they plan to work after marriage. Among the 17 students who favour the non-employment of the mother after marriage, 9 of them agree with their fathers that "woman's place is in the home" and they do not intend to work once they are married. The remaining students aspire to a work cycle pattern different from their mothers'. Consequently, the paternal attitude seems to be influential on a very small proportion of daughters.



The attitude of the daughters towards their mothers' employment after marriage appears to have conditioned or modified their own prospective work patterns. However, the proportion of these students is still too small and relevant content analysis too incomplete to deduce any significant relationships.

#### Attitude of the Parents towards the Employment Plans of the 71 Students Before and After Marriage

Thus far, the employment history of the students' mothers has been discussed as the first factor which may have influenced the students' work cycle patterns. The attitude of the students and the fathers towards maternal employment have also been considered. At this point, the parental attitude towards the employment plans of the students before and after marriage will be discussed.

TABLE 67

#### PARENTAL ATTITUDE TOWARDS STUDENTS' EMPLOYMENT PLANS BEFORE AND AFTER MARRIAGE

| Parental Attitude Towards Students' Employment Plans | Parents' Attitude Towards Employment Plans |              |                |              |
|--|--|--------------|----------------|--------------|
|  | Before Marriage                            |              | After Marriage |              |
|  | Father<br>71                               | Mother<br>71 | Father<br>71   | Mother<br>71 |
| Total  |  |              |                |              |
| Approval   | 46   | 46           | 13             | 20           |
| Disapproval  | 2  | 2            | 28             | 15           |
| Attitude unknown                                     | 13   | 11           | 18             | 26           |
| Not asked or not applicable                          | 10   | 12           | 12             | 10           |

According to this Table, approximately 2/3 of both parents, the fathers and mothers, favour their daughter's employment prior to marriage which is the stage that corresponds to the period after their graduation. The only two negative reactions can be explained by the fact that these parents would prefer their daughters to engage in post-graduate studies rather than to participate in the labor force. Of interest is the fact that content analysis does not reveal any strong parental pressure as to whether those students should engage in post-graduate studies or become employed after graduation. The students are apparently free to decide what they want to do when they leave college.

However, this flexible attitude becomes more rigid with reference to employment plans after marriage. The paternal opposition is strongly expressed, since 28 of the fathers of the 71 students disapprove of their daughters' employment after marriage. Referring to the fathers' attitude towards the mothers' employment (Table 65 and Table 66);<sup>1</sup> and as suggested by Ginzberg's material,<sup>2</sup> one may suspect that the paternal attitude was likely to be repeated towards the daughter's employment. The largest proportion of fathers did in fact approve of the non-employment of the mothers outside the home.

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<sup>1</sup>Supra, p. 330

<sup>2</sup>Supra, p. 329

On the other hand since 28 mothers were employed after their marriage, more permissiveness may be expected from the mothers towards their daughters plans to seek employment after marriage. Table 67 effectively indicates this flexibility. However, the fact that 26 students appear to ignore the attitude of their mothers towards their plans to become employed after marriage again supports Ginzberg's observations: "the girls seem to have a less intimate relationship with their mothers".<sup>1</sup> The 15 mothers who disagree with their daughter's occupational plans reflect the attitude of their husbands and it could be that they are rationalizing concerning woman's status when they state that "woman's place is in the home". An examination of the interview content indicates that only 9 of the 71 students have adopted this parental frame of reference and therefore, in conformity with it, do not plan to become employed once they are married. Hence, the parental influence appears to be a slight one as far as the employment plans before and after marriage are concerned.

#### Summary

In this section, the mothers' employment history, the attitude of fathers and students towards the employment of their mothers after marriage, and the parental attitude towards the employment plans of the students before and after marriage have been discussed. Consideration of

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<sup>1</sup> Ginzberg, op. cit., p. 169

these circumstances has been undertaken to determine whether they influence in any way the students' plans for occupational participation in the future.

According to the findings of this section, approximately 2/3 of the mothers of students in the sample did not work outside their home after their marriage. One half of the students intend to limit their occupational participation to one or two points in their life. These students are mostly the daughters of mothers whose work experience is restricted to "prior to marriage", or who have never been employed.

Students who expect to work on a permanent basis are not daughters of mothers who have been permanently employed ever since they left school or college. In this particular instance, the employment history of their mothers induced the students to limit their occupational participation. Paternal influence is felt by only 9 students who approve with their fathers of their mothers' non-employment, and who plan to repeat the same work pattern. On the other hand, the proportion of students who consciously modified their work patterns because of their approval or disapproval of their mothers' work patterns is too small to deduce any significant finding. Remaining is the parental attitude towards the employment plans of the students prior to marriage and after marriage which does not suggest any strong influence on the students' anticipated choice of work patterns since only 9 of the 71 students have adopted the parental frame of reference concerning non-employment outside the home.

From the study of these factors, the work history of the mothers which has been referred to as the mothers' work cycle patterns appears to be the factor which primarily influences the students when considering and planning for occupational participation in the future.

Occupational Participation Perceived as an Experience Likely to  
Occur at Various Points During Lifetime Is Influential in the  
Process of Occupational Selection

As already stated, the 1956 study suggested that occupational participation perceived by women students as an experience likely to occur at various points during their lifetime is influential during the process of occupational selection. The findings presented thus far in this Chapter tend to confirm that the students in the sample do anticipate being employed on a remunerative basis at various points during the period between graduation from university and old age. The present section therefore, aims to investigate in what ways this expectation influences the choice of an occupation.

Within this frame of reference, the following questions are raised and answered in this section. What kind of occupations are selected by the students? Are they the traditional functions performed by women in the labor market, or does the student's selection indicate "a penetration into once exclusively masculine occupations and professions that require varied skills and preparation or experience?"<sup>1</sup> Do the

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<sup>1</sup>Muntz, op. cit., p. 436

students because of their expectations of marriage at some point in the future, select occupations which can easily be undertaken on a part-time basis without too much interference with the household schedule?

The answers to the forementioned questions which will be derived from the interview content will indicate the validity of the second part of the third working hypothesis which states:

"This thought (occupational participation perceived as an experience likely to occur at various points during the period between graduation and old age) is influential during the process of occupational selection".

In order to demonstrate if there is any relationship between the student's expectations of employment at one or some points after graduation and the occupations they select, Table 68 and Table 69 are presented.

TABLE 68

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN WORK CYCLE PATTERNS AND OCCUPATIONAL  
AREAS SELECTED BY 46 STUDENTS WHO PLAN TO WORK BETWEEN  
GRADUATION AND OLD AGE

| Points in Work Patterns |                             |                            |                                      |  | Number of Students in Each Group Occupations |              |                          |                     |                            |              |
|-------------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------------|--------------------------------------|--|--|--------------|--------------------------|---------------------|----------------------------|--------------|
| After Gradua-<br>tion   | After Marriage              |                            |                                      |  | Total  | I<br>Service | III<br>Organi-<br>zation | VI<br>Scien-<br>ces | VII<br>General<br>Cultural | VIII<br>Arts |
|                         | Before<br>Birth of<br>Child | After<br>Birth of<br>Child | After<br>Children<br>Are<br>Grown Up |  |  |              |                          |                     |                            |              |
|                         |                             |                            |                                      |  | 46   | 6            | 13                       | 4                   | 18                         | 5            |
| x                       | x                           |                            |                                      |  | 20   | 0            | 5                        | 0                   | 11                         | 4            |
| x                       | x                           | x                          | x                                    |  | 10   | 2            | 3                        | 2                   | 3                          | 0            |
|                         | x                           | x                          | x                                    |  | 1  | 0            | 0                        | 0                   | 0                          | 1            |
| x                       | x                           |                            | x                                    |  | 11   | 2            | 4                        | 2                   | 3                          | 0            |
| x                       |                             |                            | x                                    |  | 1  | 0            | 1                        | 0                   | 0                          | 0            |
|                         | x                           |                            | x                                    |  | 3  | 2            | 0                        | 0                   | 1                          | 0            |

TABLE 69

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN WORK CYCLE PATTERNS AND OCCUPATIONAL AREAS SELECTED  
BY 24 STUDENTS WHO PLAN TO WORK AT ONLY ONE POINT  
AFTER GRADUATION

| Points in Work Patterns  |                             |                            |                                      | Number of Students in Each Group Occupations |              |                          |                     |                            |              |
|--------------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------------|--------------------------------------|--|--------------|--------------------------|---------------------|----------------------------|--------------|
| After<br>Gradua-<br>tion | After Marriage              |                            |                                      | Total  | I<br>Service | III<br>Organi-<br>zation | VI<br>Scien-<br>ces | VII<br>General<br>Cultural | VIII<br>Arts |
|                          | Before<br>Birth of<br>Child | After<br>Birth of<br>Child | After<br>Children<br>Are<br>Grown Up |  |              |                          |                     |                            |              |
|                          |                             |                            |                                      | 24   | 5            | 11                       | 1                   | 5                          | 2            |
| x                        |                             |                            |                                      | 22   | 4            | 10                       | 1                   | 5                          | 2            |
|                          | x                           |                            |                                      | 1  | 1            | 0                        | 0                   | 0                          | 0            |
|                          |                             |                            | x                                    | 1  | 0            | 1                        | 0                   | 0                          | 0            |



Table 68 comprises only the 46 students<sup>1</sup> who plan to work on a remunerative basis at more than one point between graduation and old age. Also indicated in this Table are the occupations those students have chosen classified according to Roe's<sup>2</sup> classification of occupations.

Table 69 deals solely with the 24 students<sup>3</sup> who intend to be employed at one point of their lives.<sup>4</sup> A comparison between these two tables aims to reveal whether there is any significant difference between the occupations selected by these two categories of students. If so, a possible relationship between the student's frame of reference and the occupations selected may exist.

Before proceeding to any further description of these two tables, an explanation is warranted of Roe's classification. Roe states:

Categorization by primary focus is related to most factorizations of interest, but is not identical with any of them. The focus of an occupation may be on personal interactions, supportive or exploitative close or more distant, personal or administrative. It may be on activities involved in the first handling of natural resources or in their conversion into commodities, or in the organizational structures required for these activities. It may be on development and application of knowledge, or the preservation of the institutions and the accumulated knowledge of the culture. The specific Groups are outlined below.

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<sup>1</sup>Supra, p. 302

<sup>2</sup>Roe, Anne, The Psychology of Occupations, (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1956), pp. 145-52.

<sup>3</sup>Supra, p. 302

<sup>4</sup>(63) As previously indicated, 1 student in the sample has no work cycle pattern.

I. SERVICE. These occupations are primarily concerned with serving and attending to the personal tastes, needs, and welfare of other persons. Included are occupations in guidance, social work, domestic and protective services...

II. BUSINESS CONTACT. These occupations are primarily concerned with the face-to-face sale of commodities, investments, real estate, and services. Also included are such occupations as demonstrator, auctioneer, and some kinds of agents...

III. ORGANIZATION. These are the managerial and white collar jobs in business, industry, and government, the occupations concerned primarily with the organization and efficient functioning of commercial enterprises and of government activities...

IV. TECHNOLOGY. This Group includes occupations concerned with the production, maintenance, and transportation of commodities and utilities. Here are occupations in engineering, crafts (including repair work), and the machine trades, as well as transportation and communication...

V. OUTDOOR. This Group includes agricultural, fishery, forestry, mining, and kindred occupations: the occupations primarily concerned with the cultivation, preservation, and gathering of crops, of marine or inland water resources, of mineral resources, of forest products, and of other natural resources, and with animal husbandry...

VI. SCIENCE. These are the occupations primarily concerned with scientific theory and its application under specified circumstances, other than technology...

VII. GENERAL CULTURAL. These occupations are primarily concerned with the preservation and transmission of the general cultural heritage. The Group embraces occupations concerning the subjects usually called the humanities in college catalogues,

but it is broader than these. It includes occupations in education, journalism, jurisprudence, the ministry, linguistics, and so on...

VIII. ARTS AND ENTERTAINMENT. These occupations include those primarily concerned with the use of special skills in the creative arts and in the field of entertainment.<sup>1</sup> Both creators and performers are included...

According to this classification of occupations, an attempt is made to classify the occupations selected by the students who perceive occupational participation as an experience likely to occur at various points during their lives. In the case where the students were ambivalent in their occupational selection and had, for instance, two choices in mind, only the selection which appeared the more definite according to relevant content analysis was classified. Since the students' final occupational plans have already been indicated in Chapter V of the present study, they need not be repeated in this Chapter. Let it be said only that under Group I occupations, "Service", the choice of Social Work with or without professional training is the most frequent. Group III, "Organization", includes: personnel work, public relations and administrative jobs, and civil service employments. Clerical work rates the highest frequency. Students with occupations selected in Group VI, the "Sciences", are primarily concerned with post-graduate studies in social sciences. Group VII, "General Culture" involves newswriters and library work but mainly teachers. In Group VIII, "Arts", are included one advertising writer and commercial artists.

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<sup>1</sup>Roe, op. cit., pp. 145-47

It is of interest to note that three of Roe's groups of occupations are systematically excluded from the students' choice: Group II, "Business Contact", Group IV, "Technology" and Group V, "Outdoor". A possible interpretation of this fact is that the occupations classified in these three groups have always been exclusively performed by men and are still considered as a "man's job" even in the progressive American culture. It is a fact also that a great many of these occupations do not require a university training and are not closely related to the content of the course (B.A.) that the students are taking. On the other hand, according to the classification of occupations provided by the Census of Canada 1951,<sup>1</sup> it may be observed that the occupations the most frequently selected by the students correspond to traditional women's jobs: clerical and library work, teaching or to the so-called feminine occupations, namely, social work, and magazine newswriting.

A similar finding is mentioned by Slocum in his survey on "Occupational Planning by Young Women": "The great majority of girls prepare for occupations which have been traditionally regarded as women's work".<sup>2</sup> A possible interpretation of the students' choice of the traditional occupations for women may be that preparation for a professional career is not the primary aim of liberal education. Therefore, it seems that a great majority of students who plan to work immediately

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<sup>1</sup>Table 11, Volume IV, Labour Force, "Occupations and Industries", Census of Canada 1951, cited in: The Labour Gazette, LVI, (July, 1956), p. 807.

<sup>2</sup>Supra, p. 291

after their graduation from college would select an occupation well below the level of their ability.

At this point, it is to be noted that from Table 68, the occupations classified in the group "General Cultural Occupations" have been selected the most frequently by the 46 students of the sample who intend to work at various stages of their life. The occupations in the "Organization" category rate second in frequency. Thus, the present findings would indicate that these two groups of occupations tend to be more favoured by the students who plan occupational participation as an experience likely to occur at various points during their lifetime.

Referring to Table 69, p.339 , the occupations in the "Organization" category are the first choice of the 24 students who plan to work at only one point between their graduation from university and old age and among whom are the 22 students who have been referred to as the marriage-oriented girls of the sample according to Ginzberg's classification.<sup>1</sup> From the comparison of Table 68 and Table 69, it appears that the occupations in the "General Cultural" category are likely to be the students first choice for their future. According to the students' choice, these occupations primarily concerned with news-writing, library work, and teaching have already been referred to as traditional functions performed by women.<sup>2</sup> This is the major finding that may be deduced from the data to support the second part of the third working hypothesis which states that "perception of occupational

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<sup>1</sup>Supra, p.306

<sup>2</sup>Supra, p.343

participation as an experience likely to occur at various points during the period between graduation and old age tends to influence the process of occupational selection".

In agreement with this present finding, it is of interest to question whether the occupations in the "General Cultural" group are the first choice of the students who anticipate to be employed at various stages in their lives. Roe states as follows with reference to this group of occupations:

The occupations in this Group are more closely related to those in Group I because of the personal interest factor and to those in Group VIII because of the cultural aspect.<sup>1</sup>

On the other hand, Ginzberg speaking of the students referred to as "marriage-oriented" girls states:

"They realize that there may be an interval of several years between graduation from college and the time when they marry and have children. They therefore give some consideration to working during this interim. Since they do not have very strong drives, their willingness to consider stenographic work, which at first might seem anomalous, appears quite reasonable."<sup>2</sup>

Table 69, p. 339, has already shown a marked preference on the part of students for occupations in the "Organization" category among which clerical work is the students' first choice.

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<sup>1</sup>Roe, op. cit., p. 226

<sup>2</sup>Ginzberg, op. cit., 173

Ginzberg states further:

Those whom we have assigned as having a combined goal, primarily marriage but with a desire to express themselves also through work, differ from the marriage-oriented group in their effort to tie their collegiate education more closely to their future work.<sup>1</sup>

According to this statement, one may deduce that women students who plan to join the labor force at various points during their lifetime are likely to search of personal satisfaction derived from work. Therefore, selection of an occupation may involve what Roe describes as the "personal interest" factor which characterizes the occupations in the "General Cultural" group. Moreover, the "cultural aspect" in this group of occupations corresponds logically to their effort "to tie their collegiate education more closely to their future work".

For purpose of this investigation, the occupations selected by the 11 students who aspire to employment on a permanent basis during their lifetime are classified as follows:

TABLE 70

OCCUPATIONAL AREAS SELECTED BY 11 STUDENTS WHO ANTICIPATE TO BE EMPLOYED ON A PERMANENT BASIS DURING A LIFETIME

| Group Occupations       | Number of Students in<br>Each Group |
|-------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| Total                   | 11                                  |
| Service                 | 1                                   |
| Organization            | 2                                   |
| Sciences                | 2                                   |
| General Cultural        | 3                                   |
| Organization or Arts    | 1                                   |
| Organization or Service | 2                                   |

<sup>1</sup> Ibid., p. 174

In view of the fact that 3 of these 11 students have only tentative employment plans and because of the small size of this sub-sample, it is impossible to deduce any significant relationships. However, it is of interest to mention that the occupations in the "General Cultural" category and the "Organization" category are also in the present case, the most frequently selected by the students.

From the present findings, the occupations in the "General Cultural" category are more frequently selected by the students who perceive occupational participation as an experience likely to occur at various stages in their lives. On the other hand, occupations in the "Organization" group tend to be selected by students who plan to work only prior to marriage. However, from the research data it is impossible to estimate the degree to which the students are influenced during the process of occupational selection by their anticipation of employment at various points during their lives. From the interview content, it is also not possible to determine how much consideration the students had given prior the research interview to the possibility of working after marriage. In view of these limitations, it cannot be stated definitely that "occupational participation perceived by women students as an experience likely to occur at various points during the period between graduation and old age is influential during the process of occupational selection". It may only be suggested that women students in the research sample who perceive occupational participation in such a frame of reference tend to select primarily occupations which are characterized by "personal interest" and "cultural aspects".



## Marriage and the Selection of an Occupation

Marriage as an influence on the selection of an occupation has already been discussed in Chapter VII. But because of the importance of marriage in the life of all women and of the significant effect of marriage on their work patterns - "Marriage and having children are the major determinants of labor force activity"<sup>1</sup> - it appears of interest to briefly relate the marriage plans of the present sample to their occupational plans. In view of this Table 71 is compiled.

TABLE 71

MARRIAGE PLANNING LEVEL OF THE 71 STUDENTS IN THE RESEARCH  
SAMPLE IN RELATION TO THEIR OCCUPATIONAL PLANNING LEVEL

| Marriage Planning Level | Occupational Planning Level |          |           |          |
|-------------------------|-----------------------------|----------|-----------|----------|
|                         | Total                       | Definite | Tentative | No Plans |
|                         | 71                          | 18       | 16        | 37       |
| Definite Plans          | 17                          | 3        | 9         | 5        |
| Tentative Plans         | 9                           | 3        | 5         | 1        |
| No Plans                | 34                          | 6        | 21        | 7        |
| Married Students        | 11                          | 1        | 7         | 3        |

For purposes of the study, marriage plans are classified under three categories which have been previously delineated in this Chapter. Quantitatively this table does not reveal any significant relationship between marriage and occupational plans. On the other hand, a somewhat different impression is obtained when the response of the students to the question is examined: "Is there any relationship between your

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<sup>1</sup>Supra, p. 344

present employment and your marriage plans?" Table 72 which follows was compiled from information derived from the sample.

TABLE 72  
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MARRIAGE PLANS AND OCCUPATIONAL PLANNING  
LEVEL OF 71 STUDENTS

| Marriage Planning Level | Total Number of Students | Relationship Between Employment and Marriage Planning Level |  | No Relationship Between Employment and Marriage Plans |
|-------------------------|--------------------------|---|--|---|
|                         |                          | Students who Dropped a Further Training                     | Students Who Want To Combine Marriage and Employment |   |
|                         | 71                       | 10  | 15   | 46  |
| Definite Plans          | 18                       | 7   | 5  | 6   |
| Tentative Plans         | 8                        | 0   | 1  | 7   |
| No Plans                | 34                       | 0   | 7  | 27  |
| Married Students        | 11                       | 3   | 2  | 6   |

According to this Table, 46 of the 71 women students saw no relationship between their present employment plans and their marriage plans while the remaining 25 students affirm the existence of such a relationship. Because they plan to be married, 7 students no longer think of post-graduate studies. Three married students do not intend to take further university training. These 10 students attribute discontinuance of course to its length and home duties. On the other hand, the 15 other students state the relationship between their employment and marriage plans in terms of selection of their occupation which is anticipated to harmoniously fit with the requirements of the household schedule.

Of interest to note is the fact that 8 of these 15 students have selected occupations under Roe's classification in the "General Cultural" group; 4 in the "Organization" group; 2 in the "Sciences" group; and 1 in the "Service" group. Among the 46 students (Table 72) who do not perceive any relationship between their employment and marriage plans are 16 students who have selected occupations in the "General Cultural" category.

An investigation of the occupations selected by the 11 married students in the sample reveals that 5 of them have chosen occupations within the "General Cultural" group. The choice of the remaining 6 students lists as follows:

| <u>NUMBER OF STUDENTS</u> | <u>GROUP OCCUPATIONS</u> |
|---------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1                         | Organization             |
| 1                         | Service                  |
| 1                         | Sciences                 |
| 1                         | Service or Organization  |
| 1                         | Organization or Arts     |
| 1                         | No Plans                 |

It will be recalled that the majority of students who plan to be employed at various points after graduation from university have similarly selected occupations within this category. It seems, therefore, that some occupations are thought of by students as more suitable and convenient to the requirements of marriage and employment. However it seems also that some students are not conscious of the fact that the selection of their occupation is likely to fit in harmoniously with

the household schedule and, therefore, claim no relationship between their employment and marriage plans.

From the present findings, it may be deduced that marriage appears to be a factor that influences the selection of an occupation. Because of marriage, some of the students will not engage in post-graduate studies. Because of marriage some students select an occupation thought of as fitting with the requirements of home duties. With reference to the third working hypothesis of the research study, marriage as well as the perception of occupational participation at various points during a lifetime appears to be influential in the process of occupational selection. In both cases, the prevalent occupations are characterized by "personal interest" and "cultural aspects".

#### Conclusions

The purpose of the present Chapter was to investigate whether the interview material tends to support the third working hypothesis of the study which states that

- (a) Occupational participation is perceived by women students as an experience likely to occur at various points during the period between graduation and old age.
- (b) This thought is influential during the process of occupational selection.

According to the analysis of the data relevant to this first section of the hypothesis, the findings indicate that approximately 1/3

of the 71 students in the sample plan to work at only one point during their lives which is immediately after their graduation from college, prior to marriage. Since these students look forward to finding their major satisfaction in marriage, they are referred to as the "marriage-oriented" members of the sample. The reasons underlying the employment of these students are based on parental expectations that their daughters support themselves, a general wish on the part of students for work and interest in a specific type of work.

The primary goal of the remaining 2/3 is also marriage, but these students expect to work at some point even if married between graduation and old age. The majority of them anticipate employment on a remunerative basis till the birth of their first child and most of them will do so only under economic need.

The child-rearing period is then characterized by a sharp decrease in occupational participation since the wish of the largest proportion of students is to raise their children themselves. At this stage, the small proportion of students who intend to remain employed comprises 11 students. These students anticipate employment on a permanent basis throughout life. The reasons they give for working permanently stem from occupational interest and a desire for self-fulfillment.

The period when children in a family are grown up is characterized by a return to work which is largely motivated by a psychological need for self-justification.

Examination of the students' work cycle patterns suggests three categories of work experience:

- (a) Occupational participation is perceived by some students at only one point of their lives.
- (b) Occupational participation is perceived by some students as an experience likely to occur during their lives.
- (c) Occupational participation is perceived by some students as a continuous experience during a certain period of time or as a permanent experience during a lifetime.

Since 2/3 of the work patterns of the sample are in the last two of the forementioned categories, the students in the sample apparently perceive occupational participation as an experience likely to occur at various points during the period between graduation and old age.

The mothers' work history appears to be a factor which significantly influences the students when planning their own work patterns. The daughters of mothers who have never worked for a remunerative employment or who worked only prior to marriage tend to limit their occupational participation to one or two stages. The daughters of mothers who worked permanently before marriage until the present time do not expect to repeat their mothers' work patterns. On the contrary, the 11 students who anticipate employment on a permanent basis from graduation till old age are daughters of mothers who had a restricted work experience. According to the data, the attitude of both the fathers and the students towards the employment or non-employment of their mothers

after marriage and the parental attitude towards the employment plans of the students before and after marriage are circumstances that exert little influence upon their planning.

The second section of the third working hypothesis of the research study states that occupational participation perceived by women students as an experience likely to occur at various points during the period between graduation and old age is influential during the process of occupational selection.

From the testing of this hypothesis, the following findings were deduced:

(1) Students who perceive occupational participation in such a frame of reference tend to select occupations characterized by "personal interest" and "cultural aspects". Under Roe's classification of occupations, occupations such as teaching, library work and newswriting belong to the "General Cultural" group of occupations. On the contrary, the proportion of students who anticipate employment on a remunerative basis at only one point in their lives favour occupations in Roe's "Organization" group. Consequently, such occupations as clerical, personnel and administrative work are often more frequently selected by this category of students which comprises mostly the "marriage-oriented" students in the sample.

(2) Approximately  $1/3$  of the students in the sample consciously admit that they select occupations which allow for a combination of marriage and employment. Marriage is stated by other students as a

reason for not undertaking further university training because of the heavy requirements of graduate studies. According to these statements, it was possible to deduce that marriage appears to be also a factor that influences the choice of an occupation.

In the case where the students claim a relationship between their employment and marriage plans, the occupations the most frequently selected by them are in Roe's "General Cultural" group. A similar choice is made by the students who perceive occupational participation as an experience likely to occur at various stages of their lives.

The findings also reveal that some students select occupations within the same group, but, they are apparently not conscious of the fact that these occupations are more likely to fit harmoniously with the household schedule. However, because of the small size of the sample and the limited interview material with reference to marriage and occupational selection, it has not been possible to further investigate if marriage is the factor that primarily influences the choice of an occupation. Is it because of marriage that the students tend to select occupations within the "General Cultural" category or because of their perception of occupational participation as an experience likely to occur at various points during the period between graduation and old age? An order of priority cannot be established between these two factors, but it is apparent that marriage is implicitly involved in



the students' perception of occupational participation at various stages' of their lives. Consequently, marriage would also be a factor that influences the selection of an occupation.

As already stated it is not the purpose of this Chapter to deal with marriage as a factor influential in the process of occupational selection. Due to the fact that the students could hardly dissociate marriage from the planning of their work patterns, marriage, therefore, is often referred to.

According to the interview material, marriage is a matter of general and great concern to all of the students. Besides the married students and those who are definitely to be married, every single student in the sample expects the right man to come along some day. From relevant content analysis, the interviewers attempted to infer the students' role concept in marriage as perceived by themselves.' According to Berelson, the inference drawn from content data is a direct inference:

"In the direct method, essentially, the content is taken at face value. What it says is, in effect, translated into an inference about non-content matters".<sup>1</sup>

The research findings reveal that woman's role in marriage is perceived in terms of functions in marriage. For some students, marriage is a full-time job which involves household care and child rearing by the mothers themselves. In general, the students aspire to

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<sup>1</sup>Berelson, Bernard, Content Analysis in Communication Research, (Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press Publishers, 1952), p. 194.

be wives but primarily mothers, as suggested by the data the average number of children anticipated is three to four. For all, the establishment and the care of a home and motherhood constitute their primary goal and interest. Work outside the home is undertaken for different reasons discussed previously in this Chapter, but within the frame of reference that it will not be a cause of deprivation for the home and the children. Volunteer work in community services also appears in the picture of married life in view of broadening one's experience or as a source of personal satisfaction.

Very few students expressed their role in terms of companionship with their husbands and the sharing of interests and values with them. This aspect of husband-wife relationship seems to be implicit in the students' frame of reference. But of interest to note is that they did not omit to specify - and this applies to the majority of students - their desire for security with reference to the husband's income. A survey of the students preferred occupations for husbands reveals that medical doctors, lawyers, and engineers are the most frequently cited. It is to be noted that social prestige and a high income level are characteristic of these occupations.

According to the findings relevant to the third hypothesis of the study and to woman's role in marriage, it is apparent that these students reflect the contemporary pattern of woman's role and expectations in the North American culture.

A half century ago the eyes of the specially able girl who went to college faced ahead toward a profession, towards a career. The idea of marriage was often pushed aside as a handicap. Today, the girl of the same ability is usually willing to admit that she wants to marry and seems more willing to sacrifice her career to marriage than to sacrifice a chance for marriage to her career. Because it is now more and more accepted that girls should work until they marry - and if one is unlucky, this means all one's life - girls work hard at acquiring skills and professions. If they have brains and ability, sheer virtuosity, plus the need to succeed may lead them to become engrossed in their work, but seldom so engrossed that the desire for marriage is blocked out.<sup>1</sup>

Although the majority of the students anticipate employment at various stages in their lives, they are primarily thinking and planning for their future in terms of marriage; occupational participation falls into a subsidiary position. From the interview material and according to the findings relevant to the third working hypothesis, it is suggested that the students, in general, do not plan their participation in the labor force in terms of a conscious contribution to the world of labor and to society. As expressed by the students themselves, the reasons warranted for employment are based on external pressures such as parental expectations, economic need, or a psychological need to "keep busy" or to "feel useful". Only very few students have strong occupational drives that must be fulfilled in a career which requires further university training and which consequently interferes with marriage. As stated by Margaret Mead, "seldom, girls are so engrossed in their work that the desire for marriage is blocked out".<sup>2</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> Mead, Margaret, Male and Female, (New York: The New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 1955), p. 240.

<sup>2</sup> Supra, p. 358

Of interest for further research would be a study designed to determine the student's perception of her role in the labor force; how students perceive it at various stages of their lives as referred to in this study; and what is their perception of a woman's contribution to society as college graduate and wife. With reference to the second section of the third hypothesis, a further analysis of marriage as a factor that influences the selection of an occupation is also suggested.

Another characteristic of the role of woman in the American culture is the wife-mother role.

There is little reason to doubt that for a vast majority of American women the wife-mother role is still the dominant component in the total role. The idealization of American women is primarily an idealization of her motherhood. As one writer has caustically remarked, American men more often seek mothers in their marriage than wives. It is also as mothers that women are most often self-consciously critical of themselves. And of all family relational bonds, the mother-child relationship has the greatest emotional strength and depth.<sup>1</sup>

As suggested by the interview material and the inferences relevant to role concept in marriage, the wife-mother role appears also to be the "dominant component in the woman's total role", as perceived by the students in the study. An emphasis on the mother's role is clearly indicated at the child-rearing period, since the majority of the students anticipate not being employed in view of "raising their children themselves".

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<sup>1</sup> Kluckhohn, op. cit., p. 194

The desire for security as expressed by the students is also typical of American-culture.

Men - and women - still want the things that a successful career will bring them - high salaries, a high standard of living, residence in a good suburb, social prestige and membership in the appropriate clubs and organizations. But in their choice of a field they make demands which guarantee that they will never give a job the kind of devotion that a "career" requires.

A career demands "taking risks" - running the risk of failure, of being passed over, of finding out that one is not first rate, of working for years and perhaps never "hitting the jack pot". Careers demand deferred marriages, deferred child-rearing and fewer children.<sup>1</sup>

According to the present findings, the students apparently refuse to enter the kind of training which means postponed marriages and postponed parenthood and they are not ready to take risks.

"Home and family are good things - in which to rear children - but they are not the end-all and be-all of every human being in the society".<sup>2</sup>

Margaret Mead affirms that the United States needs good husbands and good wives but "we also need men or women with commitment to the tasks of a world in which we are becoming the model setters, with or without our consent".<sup>3</sup>

The forementioned evidence suggests that the students in the sample follow in several aspects the cultural pattern of the American women's role, which according to Margaret Mead is becoming a "model setter" - for the better or the worst of the other countries of the

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<sup>1</sup>Mead, Margaret, "American Man in a Woman's World", The New York Times Magazine, February 10, 1957, p. 21.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 23

<sup>3</sup>Ibid.

world - but still it is a model. Consequently, it seems that a conscious effort should be made by youth to bring a valuable contribution to the world of labor through occupational participation and to society in terms of a woman's role. Consideration should be given to a definition or a redefinition of the role of woman in Canadian life for the purpose of enlarging the unique contribution of women in society.

It is necessary, therefore, for counselors in the field of vocational guidance to determine how they can best aid young persons to realize that they must deal with the problem of their occupational choice, to help them to avoid making serious errors in dealing with it, and to especially encourage women students to adopt a strategy which will give them the advantages of a plan, and yet retain the elements of flexibility required for the combination of employment outside the home and marriage.

## CHAPTER X

### CONCLUSIONS

This study was designed to test three hypotheses related to the occupational planning of university women undergraduates, and to elucidate some of the circumstances operative in occupational choice. In the preceding chapters, the findings related to each of these hypotheses have been presented. The purpose of the present chapter is to provide a brief review of the study and suggestions for further research. This chapter is divided into three main sections.

1. Summary of Findings and Conclusions
2. Suggestions for Further Research
3. Evaluation of Group Research

#### Summary of Findings

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The first hypothesis which was tested in this study is:  
"There is a relationship between the point in the educational period when students manifest initial interest in occupations and the point at which they become aware of a need to plan for postgraduation employment."

The findings of the study do not support this hypothesis. However it is important to note that most students manifested initial interest in occupations in elementary or high school. They become aware of a need to plan for postgraduation employment while at university. There are also some indications that students in the higher income groups develop an interest in occupations later and

become aware later of the need to plan for employment than do students in the lower economic groups. The fact that slightly over 2/3 of the students first became interested in occupations during elementary school suggests that information on occupations should be included in the elementary and to a greater and more detailed extent in the high school curricula in order to help young people plan more realistically for their future work.

The second major hypothesis is "Familial influences predominate in the process of occupational choice". In studying the sample, both familial and non-familial influences were found to have important effects on planning. It is obvious that both types of influence help to determine occupational choice and that these influences are usually complementary rather than opposing. The hypothesis was probably poorly formulated, because it is difficult to determine if either familial or non-familial influences predominate in planning. However, some findings resulted from the testing of this hypothesis which merit restatement.

Students with "no plans" have the highest proportion of both familial and non-familial influences which operate to discourage occupational planning. Of the personal influences which affected this group 50 percent had negative effects on planning. These students participated in slightly fewer extra-curricular activities while at university than did the other students and were less frequently influenced by external factors such as education and work experience. Approximately 3/4 of the 16 students with "no plans" are from families whose incomes exceed \$10,000 a year. Proportionately few of these students have fathers



with university education. These students appear to have been influenced by their parents' concept of women's role as involving only marriage. The students themselves indicate that their main goal in life is marriage and that they are not interested in any specific occupation. There is some evidence to suggest that students with no plans have identified less closely with their parents than have students with definite plans.

The findings suggest that vocational counseling could do little to help students who have no occupational plans. This assumption has already been suggested by the fact that formal personal counseling was most common in the "no plans" group and yet the students still have no plans. It appears that these students are hampered in occupational planning because their main and only goal in life is marriage and they feel no need to plan for an occupation. Several students, at least at present do not need to work in order to support themselves.

Students with definite plans have the highest proportion of familial and non-familial influences with positive effects on planning. Students in this group have a high proportion of fathers with university education. These students have been proportionately more influenced than the other students by occupational contacts and interest in a specific occupation. Although these students want to get married at some point in their life, they also have a desire to work in a field which interests them, and they have planned accordingly.

The third hypothesis states that:

3. (a) Occupational participation is perceived by women students as an experience likely to occur at various points during the period between graduation and old age.

- (b) This thought is influential during the process of occupational participation.

When this hypothesis was tested on the 71 students in the sample only the first part of the hypothesis was found to be valid. The second part of the hypothesis was invalid. The main findings relating to this hypothesis are:

1. One third of the students plan to work only in the period between graduation and marriage. The rest of the students plan (1) to work permanently, (2) to work until the birth of the first child, or (3) to work before children are born and after they are grown up.
2. Students who plan to work between graduation and marriage are motivated both by their parents' expectations that they will be self-supporting, their own desire to work and/or their interest in a specific occupation. Students who plan to work after marriage until children are born expect to do so mainly because of financial necessity. Those who plan to return to the labour force after their children are grown up anticipate a need to do something useful after they are no longer needed full-time in the home. The 11 students who plan to work permanently are mainly motivated by occupational interest and a desire for self-fulfillment in a career.
3. Students in the sample tend to be influenced by their mothers' work patterns when considering their own prospective work patterns.

#### Suggestions for Further Research

The findings and conclusions of this study are necessarily limited due to lack of financial resources and of curricular time to carry on a large scale investigation.

The researchers are of the opinion that carefully designed studies should be initiated to further delineate the circumstances operative in the process of occupational planning and selection. It is suggested that large scale studies be undertaken with representative samples from the following groups:-

- (1) Male and female students at McGill University and at other Canadian Universities.
- (2) Students whose economic status is such that they are employed fulltime and pursue their college courses after work hours.
- (3) Students of specific ethnic and religious background.
- (4) Young persons of college age who have never attended college and who are employed in business, industry and/or in unskilled occupations.

It would seem that it is only after large scale carefully designed studies have been undertaken with these groups of the student population and the results of these studies compared that significant information will be forthcoming concerning the forces operative in the process of occupational selection.

In order to determine the circumstances that influence occupational planning during this period it is suggested that in future studies a series of interviews be conducted with each student commencing with arrival at college and then at various points throughout the university period.

In addition to suggestions for a broader orientation in this field and a more representative sample of significant sub-groups of the student population, the researchers have formulated the following specific problems for further study:

1. Is there a relationship between economic status and the opportunity which students have for social and occupational contacts which may enable them to plan more realistically?
2. How does knowledge about careers by parents, other lay advisers and by the students themselves help the student to arrive at a more realistic knowledge of various occupations? What is known of the technique, the prerequisites, the training, the income, the social status, promotion, opportunities, the satisfactions, the frustrations and the dangers of various careers?
3. Careful analysis should be made of the personal values which enter into occupational choice of the college student. Such knowledge could only be obtained through several interviews with each person.
4. Are interest and/or ability more related to experience than to role concept?
5. Why is it that although all the students are basically marriage oriented, some feel it worthwhile to plan for an occupation in which they are interested, and others do not feel any necessity for occupational planning?
6. Is a role concept of women which rejects female participation in the occupational field related to socio-economic, educational, cultural and religious values of the parents and of the students themselves?
7. Is it difficult for the parents of the students to approach their children about occupational planning in a non-directive way? If so, do they indicate the need for a better knowledge of the purpose and the technique of this approach in counseling?.
8. Are parents of low educational level more apt to be directive in occupational planning, and what are the factors related to this?

#### Evaluation of Group Research

The group approach to research has certain strengths and weaknesses. The strengths are that a group can undertake a larger volume of work than an individual. Furthermore, when work is arranged according to a schedule no member of the research group is likely to fail to meet the final deadline for submission of the thesis. The less mature student or the student who has difficulty with research obtains from the thesis adviser and the group the

guidance and support which he needs. There is also in a group project mutual stimulation, in that students learn a number of different ways in which a problem may be approached and in so doing share their knowledge.

Its weaknesses are that there is usually less personal interest in the subject than in an individual study since students have to choose between three or four topics selected by the School. This can result in stereotyped production which lacks originality. Another weakness is that since at the McGill School of Social Work there are usually only 25 or 30 students engaged in the three or four group research projects, the size of the sample which each study includes is of necessity small.

The advantages of an individual study are that the student works on a topic which he has chosen and in which he is, therefore, genuinely interested. The final product may enable the student to obtain more cohesion and originality than in a group effect. However, due to the lack of time available for research and the fact that there may be less faculty time for supervision of an individual than of a group study, most students choose the group approach.

Since at the McGill School of Social Work, time limitations may influence the quality of the research undertaken, the following suggestion is proposed: that research commence at the beginning of the first instead of the second year of the M. S. W. degree course. Planning and collection of data could then be done during the first year and the analysis of the data during the second year. There could be one group project and the possibility of an individual thesis for students who wished to do one. If there was only one group project, the sample could be much larger and, therefore, more meaningful. There would then be an increased possibility of making a contribution to knowledge.

APPENDIX 1

LETTER



McGILL UNIVERSITY  
MONTREAL

School of Social Work,  
3600 University Street.

John J. O. Moore, M.A.(Soc.Wk.), Ed.D.  
Director

January , 1957.

Dear

During the 1955-1956 Session, a study was initiated by the McGill University School of Social Work to obtain information concerning the circumstances that influence women undergraduates in their planning for postgraduation employment. This study was initiated at the request of the McGill Women's Alumnae Placement Committee and was under the direction of Professor Verity Ross. It was thought that through information obtained from this study it would be possible for the Placement Committee to plan career orientation programmes more closely related than previously to students' interests and needs.

A group of women undergraduates participated in this study, the results of which warrant continuation of certain aspects of it this Session. For this purpose, the assistance is required of all fourth year B.A. degree students. Within the next few days, I shall telephone you to discuss this matter in greater detail and hope that it will be possible to arrange an interview at a time and place convenient for you.

You may rest assured that all information obtained during this interview will be regarded as confidential and that it will be used solely for research purposes.

Your cooperation will be greatly appreciated by all concerned and will constitute an important contribution to the study.

Yours sincerely,

APPENDIX 2  
INTERVIEW GUIDE



FACE SHEET

Code No. .... Age ..... Date of Birth .....

Place of Birth (if other than Canada) .....

Degree Course: Pass .....

Honours: .....  
(subject)

Religion: .....

Health: Good .....

Poor .....

Work Experience:

Present: Full Time      Type      Length of Time

Part Time

Previous: Full Time

Summer

Sessional

| Family | Age | Birthplace | Education | Occupation |
|--------|-----|------------|-----------|------------|
| Father |     |            |           |            |
| Mother |     |            |           |            |

| Family   | Age | Sex | Birthplace | Education | Occupation |
|----------|-----|-----|------------|-----------|------------|
| Siblings |     |     |            |           |            |
| 1.       |     |     |            |           |            |
| 2.       |     |     |            |           |            |
| 3.       |     |     |            |           |            |
| 4.       |     |     |            |           |            |
| Other    |     |     |            |           |            |

| Income                   |  |  | Father | Mother |  |
|--------------------------|--|--|--------|--------|--|
| Less than \$ 2,000 ..... |  |  |        |        |  |
| \$ 2,000 to 2,999 .....  |  |  |        |        |  |
| 3,000 to 3,999 .....     |  |  |        |        |  |
| 4,000 to 4,999 .....     |  |  |        |        |  |
| 5,000 to 5,999 .....     |  |  |        |        |  |
| 6,000 to 6,999 .....     |  |  |        |        |  |
| 7,000 to 7,999 .....     |  |  |        |        |  |
| 8,000 to 8,999 .....     |  |  |        |        |  |
| 9,000 to 9,999 .....     |  |  |        |        |  |
| 10,000 and over .....    |  |  |        |        |  |

Interviewer's Comments:

Name of Interviewer:

Date Interviewed:

Time of Interview:

From:

To:

Place of Interview:

Hypothesis:

There is a relationship between the point in the educational period when the student becomes aware of the need to plan for employment after graduation and the point in this period when he first becomes interested in a specific occupation.

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When you were just a little girl what was the first thing you wanted to be?

How old were you?

Why (Who and What people influenced you)?

What did you want to be next?

How old were you?

Why (Who and What influenced you)?

What did you want to be next?

How old were you?

Why (Who and What influenced you)?

What effect did school have on this occupational interest?

Why ?

What were your interests in High School?

What influenced these interests?

Were there any fluxuations in your interests in High School?

What were they?

What influenced them?

What brought you back to your original plan?

What did you do after High School?

If University

Were you intending to go on to University when you entered High School?

When did you decide you wanted to go to University?

What influenced this?

If other than University

What factors influenced this decision?

For how long did you stay at this job?

What did you do after that?

For how long?

What influenced the change?

When did you decide to go to University?

What influenced this decision?

All

What did you plan to do when you entered University?

What influenced this decision?

Were there any occupational fluxuations while at University?

If so what were they?

What influenced these?

What brought you back to your original plan?

Do you plan on post-graduate work?

If so - Why?

What influenced this?

When did you become aware of the need to plan specifically for your post-graduate employment?

What induced this awareness?

What plans did you make?

How did you make these plans?

With whom did you discuss your plans?

What resources did you use?

Hypothesis:

Family influences are prepotent during the period of occupational choice.

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I. Do you have any plans for employment after graduation?

If yes:

If no:

II. What are they?

II. Did you ever have any plans before?

For how long have you had the present plans?

If yes:

Why did you change your mind about them?

If no:

III. What do you think influenced your present decision?

III. What do you think influenced your absence of any decision?

IV. What does your family think about your employment plans?

IV. What does your family think about your absence of plans?

Do you think they will assist you in any way?

Do you think they would assist you if you had any plans?

V. What does your family think about your coming to College in general?

Are they assisting your studies in any way at present?

If yes:

If no:

To what extent are they assisting?

Why are they not assisting you?

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VI. Do you talk with your parents about your plans?

If yes: how often (frequently/seldom/never)?

VI. Do you talk with your parents about your future?

If yes: how often (frequently/seldom/never)?

VII. What do you think your father and mother would like you to do?

What makes you think that that ( is their (his/her) attitude?  
( he or she wants?

If positive:

If negative:

VIII. Had they ever thought of this for themselves?

Or would they now, if they could, choose  
this for themselves?

VIII. Have they ever thought of other careers  
than those which they propose at the moment?

Would they now, if they could, choose  
something different for themselves?

IX. How do you feel about the role your parents  
played in guiding your occupational choice?



Hypothesis:

- (a) Occupational participation is perceived by women students as an experience likely to recur at various points during the period between graduation and old age.
  - (b) This frame of reference is influential during the process of occupational selection.
- 

What are your employment plans?

Do you intend to work after graduation?

If so - what?

If not - Why?

Are you interested in marriage?

If not - why not?

What occupation would you like your husband to be?

Have you any definite marriage plans?

If so - What?

Is there any relationship between your present occupational plans and marriage?

Did your plans for marriage have an effect on your occupational planning?

In the event that you may marry do you intend to work after marriage?

Full time?

Part time?

Why?

Did your mother work after marriage? Full time? Part time?

Why?

Did your mother work after the children were born?

Full time?

Part time?

Why?

What influence has this had on your plans to work or not to work after marriage?

How did your father feel about your mother working or not working?

How did his feelings affect your decision to work or not to work after marriage?

Have you any sisters that worked after marriage?

Full time?

Part time?

Why?

How did this influence your plans to work or not to work after marriage?

If you do not intend to work after marriage, are there any circumstances under which you would work?

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