AN EXPLORATION OF FACTORS AFFECTING SOCIAL PARTICIPATION OF PROFESSIONALS IN RURAL AREAS

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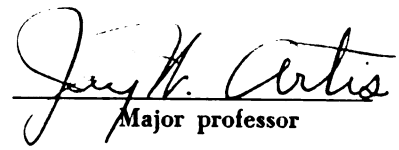

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ABSTRACT

AN EXPLORATION OF FACTORS AFFECTING SOCIAL PARTICIPATION
OF PROFESSIONALS IN RURAL AREAS

By Clinton J. Jesser

The present research took as its focal question: "How do professionals in rural areas participate socially?" Brief discussions of the meaning and use of the terms "profession" and "social participation" were presented and a fairly detailed description and comparison of the professions represented in the present study were made.

Two major sociological theories seemed to incorporate the broad classes of variables under investigation in the present research. It was, however, difficult to generate specific conditional (if....then....) statements from the broad outlines of the theories. It was then decided to investigate on an exploratory level of research some of the factors presumed to be associated with social participation and sub-types thereof.

Formal social participation was operationally defined largely on the basis of voluntary associational activity. Semi-formal social participation was operationally defined as activity within or attendance of community events such as athletic events, movies, supper-dinners, and other local productions. Informal social participation was defined as visiting in homes and local gathering places. All but one (dentists) of the professions included in the present study are among those referred to as "established professions" (doctors, lawyers, ministers and teachers).

Pursuant to the problem of the study all professionals (206) of this type together with dentists in four rural counties in Michigan were interviewed (a few replied by mailed questionnaire).

It was found that very few factors consistently discriminate between high and low social participators with respect to all types of social participation. That is, such variables as education and income were highly associated with formal social participation but not semi-formal and informal social participation. The present study also revealed some anomalous findings, such as the association of size of place of residence with formal and informal social participation, the association of length of residence and father's occupational level with formal social participation and the lack of association of sex, age, and number of inter-community moves with formal social participation. Furthermore, the controlling of certain of the variables significantly associated with social participation almost always had some effect on the strength of other significant associations, thus indicating a quite high degree of interrelationship among the variables.

Two major contributions resulting from the present study are the findings of a high degree of association of community satisfaction and type of profession with formal social participation. The former finding suggests that new variables can be conceptualized which supplement the traditionally researched stratificational variables and which, when taken together with the latter, may serve to account for a greater amount of the social participation variance.

The latter finding (that type of profession was associated with formal social participation) lends some support to the argument that if

occupational situation in some way affects the manner in which an individual is drawn into the social order (according to Durkheimian theory) then when two or more occupations having fairly definite and well established characteristics (such as professions) are compared and found to differ, individuals in those occupations will also differ in their social participation patterns (when such participation is construed as one of the ways in which an individual is drawn into the social order).

The present research cannot clearly answer the question as to whether the present findings are due to the fact that the respondents were professional people or that they all resided in rural areas. It is possible that it is due to both factors. Future research might draw random urban and rural samples with respect to professional and non-professional workers to determine an answer to this question. At any rate, it appears that many generalizations asserting the effect of certain factors upon social participation require qualification.

AN EXPLORATION OF FACTORS AFFECTING SOCIAL PARTICIPATION OF PROFESSIONALS IN RURAL AREAS

By

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CHAPTER I

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM, ITS RELATION TO THEORY AND RESEARCH AND ANALYTIC STRATEGY FOR THE STUDY

A. Introduction

The general problem of this study may be stated in the following form: "How do professionals participate socially?" This ques tion addresses itself to and implicates both the sociology of occupations and the relationship between social structure and behavior. Many writers, in slightly varying ways, note the importance of the study of professions and suggest that there is a need for empirical research in this area. Oswald Hall stated that "social scientists have given very little time to the study of professions . . . [in spite of their obvious importance in our society as indicated by] . . . the functions performed, the prestige accorded, the number involved and the portion of the national income which they receive. . . ."[1] Greenwood has observed that "Many important features of social organization are dependent upon professional functions."[2] From a normative point of view, it has emphatically been asserted by various writers that, historically and in contemporary times, professions as a body exhibit a "calling" to humanity and a concern for

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[1] Oswald Hall, "The Informal Organization of the Medical Profession," Canadian Journal of Economics and Political Science, 12:1 (February, 1946), p. 30.

[2] Ernest Greenwood, "Attributes of a Profession," Social Work, 2:3 (July, 1957), p. 45.

social "progress,"[3] yet relatively little is known about how they participate socially. It is believed that the findings of this study will contribute to our knowledge of professionals as it seeks to describe and analyze some of their "extra-occupational" activities and the relationship of other characteristics to these activities. The problem posed may therefore be regarded as a logical priority (or at least coordinate with other problems), i.e., requiring research before other questions may be asked concerning such matters as the nature of their influence or the impact upon modern society.

B. The Meaning of Profession and Social Participation

Any study seeking to further our understanding of professions must define what is meant when one asserts that an individual is engaged in a profession. A great deal of dispute might ensue at this point for there is no complete agreement regarding a definition of profession. Carr-Saunders and P. A. Wilson, after pages of discussion, rather disparagingly define a profession as "a vocation in which a professed knowledge of some department of learning or science is used in its application to the affairs of others in the practice of an art founded upon it."[4]

Professions and professionalism have been regarded as: (1) An attitude of mind including inter-colleague identification--a feeling of

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[3]See for example the following sources: Everett C. Hughes, Men and Their Work; T. H. Marshall, "The Recent History of Professionalism in Relation to Social Structure and Social Policy," The Canadian Journal of Economics and Political Science, v. 5 (February to November, 1939), pp. 325-340; William J. Goode, "Community Within a Community: The Professions," American Sociological Review, v. 22 (April, 1957), pp. 194-200; Ernest Greenwood, "Attributes of a Profession," Social Work, 2:3 (July, 1957), pp. 45-55; and "Ethical Standards and Professional Conduct," The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, v. 297 (January, 1955), entire issue.

[4]A. M. Carr-Saunders and P. A. Wilson, The Professions, p. 287.

"community"—without the presence of intensive interaction;[5] (2) a level of accomplishment with respect to a specialized knowledge pertaining to certain vital affairs of mankind;[6] (3) a distinctive relationship between client and practitioner;[7] (4) a moral body with a mandate to be exempt from certain norms and a prerogative to view a certain segment of phenomena in an "unconventional manner";[8] (5) a sub-community based on occupation having a distinctive culture. As such a profession represents the fulfillment of an endeavor to unite an aggregate of people on the basis of occupation.[9] Perhaps it is all of them.

To some extent the right to be called a profession is vested in those occupations which succeed in obtaining such recognition from "society" or an important segment thereof.[10] It appears, however, that some occupations are more easily professionalized than others and that some occupations are more universally and unequivocally accorded the

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[5]Goode, op. cit. (The boundaries of this type of community are social rather than physical and geographical; it is to be distinguished from the ecological sense of community. A contrasting term, "ambiance," meaning interaction within a spatially defined territory but without the emergence of community [in the former sense] is proposed by Theodore Caplow, "The Definition and Measurement of Ambiences," Social Forces, 34:1 (October, 1955), pp. 28-33.

[6]Talcott Parsons, "The Professions and Social Structure," in Parsons, Essays in Sociological Theory Pure and Applied, pp. 185-199.

[7]Marshall, op. cit.

[8]Emile Durkheim, Professional Ethics (translated by Cornelia Brookfield) and The Division of Labor in Society (1st edition of 1893, translated by G. Simpson); Hughes, op. cit.

[9]Greenwood, op. cit.; Goode, op. cit.

[10]Hughes (op. cit., p. 44) suggests that the question which he initially posed for himself, viz., "Which occupations are professions?" turned out to be a pseudo problem to a large extent for this reason.

title of profession than others. Four such occupations are listed by Carr-Saunders. They are the occupations of lawyer, doctor, cleric, and teacher (especially in higher education). These occupations have been referred to as the "established" professions.[11] The designation of an individual in one of the established professions qualifies him as a professional in this study. It will be noticed that these occupations connect up or are involved quite directly with the basic institutions of a society.

Since the topic of professions will be discussed again in Chapter II, another desideratum of our problem will now be introduced, viz., social participation. Its meaning and importance to theoretical and research activity in sociology shall be considered (although the empirical definition given this concept will be delayed until Chapter III).

Scott Greer has said that "the participation of the individual in his community is of importance on two grounds. Theoretically, an understanding of such behavior aids in the clarification and extension of our picture of modern society as a system. And, from a normative point of view, the nature and degree of such participation sets the limits and indicates the possibilities of social control in a non-hierarchical society."[12] It would appear that these are justifiable grounds for the study of social participation of professionals as well

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[11] A. M. Carr-Saunders, "Metropolitan Conditions and Traditional Professional Relationships," in R. M. Fisher (ed.), The Metropolis in Modern Life, pp. 279-287.

[12] Scott Greer, "Individual Participation in Mass Society," in Roland Young (ed.), Approach to the Study of Politics, p. 339.

as any social group or congery. It is a simple fact that the degree to which an individual can affect his society depends in part on the number and type of people he can relate to and the frequency and character of his social participation. Three types of social participation may be distinguished: formal social participation, semi-formal social participation, and informal social participation.

It is characteristic of modern American society that a great many formal organizations (sometimes called "voluntary interest associations") are found on all levels of social organization (i.e., national, state, and local levels). These organizations have as their functions a wide variety of activities. Often they accrue about the institutional complexes of a society (such as educational, religious, governmental, recreational, and economic) and perform some of their activities. A charter of rules for operation, a delineation of the areas of social life they seek to affect and the allocation of individuals to statuses of office, committee or membership (often by election, appointment, or acceptance) characterize these organizations and lend uniformity and persistence to their activities. These organizations are variously articulated in their "inter-organizational" relationships. That is, they may relate to one another intensively or very little, cooperatively or antagonistically, conflicting over power arrangements. At any rate, it is activity of individuals within this type of organization which is generally referred to as formal social participation. More specifically, it appears that what is meant by formal social participation is activity in organizations of a voluntary, non-profit type. The remarkable proliferation of such organizations and organizational memberships has led some observers to refer to our society

as an "associational" society and to characterize us as a nation of "joiners."[13]

Semi-formal participation generally pertains to the involvement of individuals in social activities occurring as special events or programs in a community. Their settings may be of a public, semi-private, or private nature. They may be designed to provide an outlet for one's aesthetic interests, to promulgate a specific cause which is deemed worthwhile, to perpetuate a certain tradition or to educate the public. The sponsors of these events vary greatly. Individuals usually learn the norms appropriate to these events and sometimes may be said to the "participating" in them by simply sitting in an audience and doing whatever everyone else in the audience is doing. Examples of such events

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[13] Some interesting speculations concerning the structural changes in American society which account for the proliferation of voluntary associations will be found in Greer, op. cit., Rose, "A Theory of the Function of Voluntary Associations in Contemporary Social Structure," in Rose, Theory and Method in the Social Sciences, pp. 50-71; and Clyde and Florence Kluckhohn, "American Culture: Generalized Orientations and Class Patterns," in L. Bryson, L. Finkelstein, and R. M. MacIver (eds.), Conflicts of Power in Modern Culture, Ch. XX. Recent research has indicated a mass apathy regarding voluntary association participation. Bernard Barber ("Participation and Mass Apathy in Associations," in H. D. Stein and R. A. Cloward (eds.), Social Perspective on Behavior) summarizes this research in the following way: (1) There is an almost countless number of voluntary associations in the United States (cf. Goldhamer's attempted enumeration: Herbert Goldhamer, "Voluntary Associations in the U. S.," unpublished report prepared for the National Resources Committee, Washington, D. C., 1937, cited in Goldhamer, "Some Factors Affecting Participation in Voluntary Associations,") unpublished Ph.D. thesis, University of Chicago, 1942; (2) there is a large number of people belonging to no associations at all; and (3) only a minority of the membership is active in them.

It is interesting to note that when social changes emanate from political spheres of society then the formal and informal associations of individuals having political significance gain most of the attention. Therefore, what one often means by social participation depends on the researcher's interest. If he is interested in political activity he may focus upon participation in formal organizations of a political nature, pressure groups, elections, and certain aspects of informal associations.

are athletic events, programs, dances, movies, card games, parties, fairs, picnics, dinners and banquets, auctions, etc.

Still another mode or type of participation pertains to involvement in social activities at the more informal levels of society and smaller social systems. The functions of these activities are perhaps less conspicuous and more problematical. For whatever reason, perhaps due in part to adherence to and dependence upon a common basic institutional core, individuals in their prolonged phases of formal interaction quite crescively and spontaneously develop a network of informal (sometimes called "personal") relationships or patterns.[14]

One such network in a community is the visiting patterns. Oftentimes certain individuals quite consistently visit with certain other individuals. Familial visiting (visiting or entertaining as a family) within the home has become quite firmly institutionalized in our society. Visiting may also occur at traditional, often public, gathering places. Such visiting, in either type of setting, has been referred to as "informal social participation."[15] Oftentimes the visiting accompanies or takes place subsidiary to another activity which people engage in such as check and look over their mail at the post office, drink coffee, eat a dinner or play cards. This type of social participation

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[14]These often co-exist with the formal networks and sometimes develop directly out of formal and semi-formal participation. The importance of these informal systems have been noted especially by rural sociologists in the adoption of innovations and by mass media sociologists in the flow of information and the effect of personal influence.

[15]Informal social participation might also apply to activities within the informal systems constituted by relations between professionals and public officials, clients, and other professionals.

is, for this reason and others, not as clearly distinguishable from the second as are these latter two from the first. Part of our difficulty undoubtedly resides in the lack of an adequate definiton of "informal" in sociology.[16] All three types of social participation are herein referred to as "extra-occupational social participation," or simply SP.

The definition of SP and a further explication of its meaning can be achieved when viewed against the background of community structure and process. The concept of community as it applies in the U.S.A. usually refers to the organizational structures or units (at least minimally integrated with each other) which arise through prolonged interaction of individuals within a delimited territory as they seek to satisfy their basic needs. (The established ways by which this is accomplished is sometimes referred to by the term "institution.") Partly as a result of such ecological arrangements, individuals within the community develop a common sentiment or culture which becomes the basis for other organizations, associations, or activities.

Aggregates of people are therefore to a great extent sustained by a continuing community organization or structure in spite of the fact that once relatively autonomous communities are being absorbed into larger spheres of inter-dependence on a national level. Participation within a community structure and community related activities can be measured in various ways. The present definition of SP selects only certain aspects of participation activity, such as number of associational memberships and frequency of attendance of such associations and community events together with visiting.

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[16]See Arthur L. Wood, "Informal Relations in the Practice of Criminal Law," American Journal of Sociology, 62:1 (July, 1956), pp. 48-55, and Robin Williams, American Society, pp. 483-489.

C. Classes of Variables to be Dealt with in the Present Study

Pursuant to the problem of this study and its broader scope (in which it was intended to gain more knowledge in a systematic way concerning professionals) a study was conducted in which questions were asked, the answers to which yielded information classifiable within three major areas: (1) Professional occupational group (i.e., doctors, dentists, lawyers, clergy, and teachers), (2) types of social participation, and (3) personal characteristics of the professionals, viz., demographic characteristics, occupational history, and attitudinal characteristics. It would be extremely helpful in bringing coherence to the analysis and predictive and explanatory power to the study if there existed some formulation in the form of a scheme of concepts which would provide a proposed vocabulary in which the analysis could be made and a model[17] or theory (a deductively related set of empirically interpreted formulae, at least one of which is a law-like statement) from which propositions incorporating some of the variables in the three major areas above might be deduced and their truth or falsity subsequently determined. It is now appropriate to explore the possibility of there existing such formulations or their approximations, and to determine whether or not consequences directly relevant to the problem at hand can be specified from them.

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[17]Instructive discussions concerning the meaning and functions of models will be found in R. B. Braithwaite, Scientific Explanation, pp. 88-114, and May Brodbeck, "Models, Meaning and Theories," in Llewellyn Gross, Symposium on Sociological Theory, pp. 373-408.

D. General Theory Related to the Above Classes of Variables

Some years ago Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels were espousing the primacy of material forces and spinning a theory of society therefrom.[18] According to these theorists, to paraphrase them in an overly-simplified fashion, what an individual does in gaining his livelihood (his occupation), and the position of that occupation in the division of labor (or what Marx called the social organization of production) has profound effects upon one's style of life (which can be construed to mean one's philosophy, Weltanschauung, attitudes, speech, dress, consumption habits, and social participation).[19]

Disregarding for the moment the limitations of this overarching, macroscopic theory, it appears that Marx's pronounciamentos hold some general relevance to the problem at hand, namely a description of the social participation activities of professionals and an exploration and

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[18]Karl Marx, A Contribution to the Critique of Political Economy (2nd German edition, translated by N. I. Stone); Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels, The German Ideology and Selected Correspondence.

[19]It is beyond the scope of this thesis to thoroughly evaluate either the structural elegance or the empirical plausibility of this theory (or set of theories). The dialectical logic of successively emerging systems is baffling, confusing, and dubious; the theory is to some extent culture bound, applicable largely to certain traditions and socio-economic circumstances; the phenomena of class, status, and power are not analytically distinguished; economic dominance is perhaps overemphasized and the specific ways in which the material forces are said to effect styles of life are left largely to the reader's imagination. In short, like many other theories whose appeal and attractiveness rest on apparent simplicity, much auxiliary machinery in the form of qualificatory strictures and additional, sometimes tenuous, assumptions must be invoked before the purported consequences can be deduced. The type of hypotheses which can be generated from such theories are usually such that they do not venture a clear-cut answer to a specific problem and it is therefore unclear just what would constitute disconfirmatory evidence if the hypotheses were to be rejected or falsified. Often the net results are that the gap between theory and research is widened.

analysis of the factors affecting these activities. He and Warner (who investigates, evaluatively and at a community level, some of the interrelationships of some of the purported consequences of Marxian theory)[20] hypothesize that persons occupying similar stratification positions may be expected to exhibit similar social participation patterns. In addition, both theorists indicate that occupation is a primary determinant (or at least indicator) of stratification position. Yet it is extremely difficult to (1) deduce, even in a rough way, from their theories which styles of life and how styles of life might vary between given occupational groups or strata, and (2) determine the conditions under which social participation might vary for given occupations or classes of individuals which cut across occupational boundaries. Other theorists also indicate that social class, to some extent, determines and is determined by occupation and that style of life, correspondingly, is influenced by both class position and occupation.[21]

The work of Emile Durkheim[22] in some respects comes somewhat closer to the problem at hand, inasmuch as he dealt extensively with the moral and economic division of labor and the subsequent functions and articulation of occupational groupings found within the matrix. This approach enabled him to speculate on the way in which occupation draws

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[20]W. Lloyd Warner, Marchia Meeker, and Kenneth Eels, Social Class in America.

[21]For example see Edmond Goblot, "Class and Occupations," in Parsons, et al., Theories of Society, V.I, pp. 535-540. In a sense the various classificatory and ranking schemes of occupations themselves reflect social position dimensions thereby combining class and status components. See Paul K. Hatt,"Occupation and Social Stratification," American Journal of Sociology, 55:6 (May, 1950), pp. 533-543.

[22]Durkheim, The Division of Labor in Society.

individuals into the mainstream of social life and the way in which occupation affects one's extra-occupational social activities. At the same time he speculated that participation in voluntary associations (a type of extra-occupational social activity) is the primary means by which, in "organic-like" societies, individuals are (1) integrated into the authority system of the state, and (2) enabled to develop their extra-occupational capacities. With respect to the former, Durkheim felt that the government or nation which could best do this would be more likely to endure. In his Division of Labor in Society he wrote: "A nation can be maintained only if, between the state and the individual, there is intercolated a whole series of secondary groups near enough to the individuals to attract them strongly in this way into the general torrent of social life."[23] It is apparent that he believed that individuals would and could develop their extra-occupational capacities only if the proper socio-political milieu existed for their nurture.

Unfortunately, in terms of the type of theory required for the present problem, Durkheim's polemical concern with integration, cohesion, or solidarity of the differentiated society overshadows observations he might have made into what kinds of occupations participate in what way, or the way occupational and person characteristics combine to effect the way one is drawn into "extra-occupational" activities within the social order.

It appears at this juncture that general theory does not offer an adequately applicable set of propositions regarding the interrelations of the variables which are the specific focus of this study. It only suggests in a theoretically broad and eliptical manner some lines of

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[23]Durkheim, The Division of Labor in Society, p. 28.

inquiry. It is now appropriate to review and examine some of the empirical generalizations culled from research literature dealing with social participation.

E. Research Findings Related to the Above Classes of Variables

Chapin[24] found that the norm of the participation scores on his social participation scale (which concerns itself with membership, attendance, monetary contributions, and office and committee position in formal organizations) for adult men in professional and business executive positions were four times greater than the scores for lower or unskilled positions. He does not, however, explore the factors which may differentiate participation between professions or among people in the same profession.

Duncan and Artis[25] found a direct and, in most cases, significant association between certain stratification variables (namely, occupation, income, education, political office holding experience, and community prestige by judges' ratings) and participation in formal, semi-formal, and informal activities. Although the components comprising the types of SP used in their study do not exactly correspond in all cases to those in the present study, they were roughly similar. Occupation was a consistently important factor in differentiating between the participation (especially the formal and semi-formal) of individuals within the community.

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[24]F. S. Chapin, "Social Participation and Social Intelligence," American Sociological Review, No. 4 (April, 1939), pp. 157-166.

[25]Otis Dudley Duncan and Jay W. Artis, Social Stratification in a Pennsylvania Rural Community (The Pennsylvania State College Agricultural Experiment Station), Bulletin 543, October, 1951.

Mather[26] also noted the significance of income to differential participation and leadership in formal and semi-formal community groups in Franklin, Indiana. High income respondents had more associational affiliations and leadership positions in the community than low income respondents.

The 1955 NORC Survey,[27] reporting only on membership in voluntary associations of all kinds, showed a marked and direct relationship between such participation and stratification variables, such as income, education, prestige of occupation, and level of living. A high positive correlation between this type of membership and being married with children in the family, home ownership, and interest in civic affairs was also found. Residency by rural non-farm or urban and length of residence did not significantly differentiate membership in such organizations.

Lenski found that low crystalization persons are more frequently non-participants in voluntary organizations and more often join out of non-sociable motives than high crystalization persons.[28] Except for the fact that this study employs a composite concept comprised of social stratificational characteristics and hypothesizes certain behavior which is assumed to follow from an inconsistent status, it contributes nothing more to the problem at hand than might be expected from other stratificational analyses of SP.

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[26]William G. Mather, "Income and Social Participation," American Sociological Review, 6:3 (June, 1941), pp. 380-383.

[27]Charles R. Wright and Herbert H. Hyman, "Voluntary Association Memberships of American Adults: Evidence from National Sample Surveys," American Sociological Review, 23:3 (June, 1958), pp. 284-294.

[28]Gerhard Lenski, "Social Participation and Status Crystalization," American Sociological Review, 21:4 (August, 1956), pp. 458-464.

Foskett suggests that SP varies with the size and composition of a town or city and the systematically explores the relationship of education, income, and age to SP with respect to adult respondents of both sexes in two cities differing in size and economic structure. Although the SP profiles for the two cities differed somewhat, Foskett found that for both cities education and income are more significant variables in their affect upon SP than was age.[29]

A number of studies seek to correlate occupational prestige level (as indicated by the census classification or the North-Hatt ratings) by various types of participation or leisure activities.[30] It is generally the case that the higher the prestige level of the occupation, the greater is the SP (especially when defined as formal associational SP). The findings, though instructive, are not directly applicable to the present study since an intra-classification analysis of the "professional, managerial, proprietor" category is not made. That such an intra-classificatory analysis is often needed is suggested by Riess whose research on professionals alone reveals that this category is not nearly as homogeneous as many had heretofore believed it to be, especially when the type of occupational mobility for various types of professions is considered.[31]

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[29]John M. Foskett, "Social Structure and Social Participation," American Sociological Review, 20:4 (August, 1955), pp. 431-438.

[30]See Duncan and Artis, op. cit.; Morris Axelrod, "Urban Structure and Social Participation," American Sociological Review, 21:1 (October, 1955), pp. 13-18; Leonard Reissman, "Class, Leisure and Social Participation," American Sociological Review, 19:1 (February, 1954), pp. 76-84.

[31]Albert J. Reiss, Jr., "Occupational Mobility of Professional Workers," American Sociological Review, 20:6 (December, 1955), pp. 693-700.

One of the most comprehensive and promising approaches to the study of SP is that of Wilensky's.[32] He suggests that a synthesis of determinants of social participation could be achieved by investigating the interaction of four major factors whose social structure significance affect SP. They are age, career pattern, family cycle, and consumption demands. However, empirical research has not yet undertaken the study of these relationships, and his suggestions are, therefore, still programmatical.

A number of researchers find different social activity consequences for types of job structures and types of career patterns. Wilensky[33] has classified jobs with respect to the degree of orderliness of career pattern and finds that SP varies accordingly. In general, he found that the more orderly the career, the stronger are the attachments of formal associations and the community. Gerstl[34] compared the social organization characteristics of three professions and found that opportunity for the development of occupational "community" (meaning inter-colleague friendship and professional group identification) varied with the absence or presence of certain of these characteristics. He noted only incidentally that where intra-occupational "community" is weak the professionals oftentimes related more intensively to community associations and family circles.

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[32]Harold L. Wilensky, "Work, Careers, and Social Integration," International Social Science Journal, 12:4 (Fall, 1960), pp. 543-560, and "Life Cycle, Work Situation, and Participation in Formal Associations," in R. W. Kleemeier (ed.), Aging and Leisure.

[33]Harold L. Wilensky, "Orderly Careers and Social Participation," American Sociological Review, 26:4 (August, 1961), pp. 521-539.

[34]Joel Gerstl, "Determinants of Occupational Community in High Status Occupations," Sociological Quarterly, 2:1 (January, 1961), pp. 37-48.

As a result of his study of fifty young married couples in a small New York community, Smith[35] suggested that three types of influences appear to affect one's participation in formal community organizations: participation backgrounds, family influences (family of procreation) and community influences. Unfortunately, the variables within these types of influences are not clearly specified especially for community influences nor their relationship to occupation and other types of SP. It appears that, due to the centrality of SP (it may be regarded as a special case of social behavior) to sociology, it is affected by many different factors all of which are highly relevant to sociological analysis.

In summary, a review of some of the literature reveals relationships between types of SP and stratificational characteristics together with certain personal characteristics. It further suggests that SP is related to family cycle and career patterns. The SP of an individual also appears to be a function of some as yet undelineated variables pertaining to family, personal history, and community influences. The type of occupation and the social organization of the occupation also appear somehow to affect intra-professional solidarity and the type and intensity of SP outside of work roles.

A review of the literature, therefore, yields findings more directly related to one or more of the classes of variables at hand, but they are too disparate to be unified into an embryonic inductive system of propositions for empirical test.

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[35] W. M. Smith, Jr., "The Social Participation of Rural Young Married Couples," Cornell University Agricultural Experiment Station Bulletin 812, July, 1944.

F. Analytic Strategy of the Study

Glock has noted that one of the basic obstacles to the study of religious leadership is the lack of a conceptual framework for the general study of the professions.[36] A similar obstacle is encountered in seeking a framework by which to synthesize the major classes of variables in this study. In the absence of an adequately applicable deductive or inductive set of propositions, and due to the fact that no heuristic model is suggested, a decision concerning subsequent strategy of this research must be made. Perhaps several possibilities are open. One might be to build, in a rather ad hoc fashion, such a framework within which the variables could be related. One distinct disadvantage of this strategy is the risk of foisting upon the data a superficial and not wholly applicable scheme. This might be called the problem of "fit." One might, on the other hand, design the scheme most compatible (i.e., one which "fits" well) with or specific to the present data, but whose transference to other data would thereby be impeded. Lastly, once a scheme is chosen, one might impose a premature closure upon important questions which are not easily asked within the framework or language developed.

It would seem more appropriate to regard the present study as exploratory, or, in Selltiz and others' terms, a type of "formulative" research.[37] Using this approach, it is felt that one will not be as

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[36] Charles Y. Glock, "The Sociology of Religion," in Merton, Broom and Cottrell, Sociology Today, p. 164.

[37] Claire Selltiz, et al., Research Methods in Social Relations, pp. 50-53.

likely to isolate the present study from past and future research by creating one's own idiosyncratic scheme in which others might either not be interested or which they would find of little use. The research would still contain some interesting, incidental bearings on previous theoretical positions and research findings, and its importance to sociological knowledge would not be diminished.[38]

The topics to be taken up in this research may be outlined at this point. In Chapter II we will address ourselves further to the meaning of the term profession and the features which characterize professions. We will then examine the literature pertaining to the professions of the present study and make a few comparisons between them. The chapter will conclude with a proposed dichotomy of the professions included in the present research and a brief description of the socio-economic conditions of rural society. In Chapter III we will describe the study area and the professionals interviewed (with respect to some selected characteristics mainly of a demographic nature.) This description will be followed by a description of the main research techniques and procedures together with the operationalization of the

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[38]These statements regarding the establishment and utilization of a conceptual scheme hinge on a few broader problems in the development of a science. One of these problems has to do with the apparent lack of consensus in sociology as to the fundamental or main concepts of the discipline. Keeping in mind that the semantical aspect of scientific theories consists of a set of concepts which emerge as a result of the attempt of the scientist to speak about the phenomena he is studying, it is not surprising to find that the languages developed by scientists within the same discipline will vary somewhat due in part to the fact that the scientists are studying different problems and seeking to develop concepts which seem to bring coherence and organization to the phenomena observed. Reinhard Bendix and Bennett Berger refer to this problem when they state that "there is no 'sociological theory' but only 'sociological theories'" ("Images of Society and Problems of Concept Formation in Sociology," in Llewellyn Gross (editor), Symposium on Sociological Theory, p. 113.) Perhaps this will remain the situation in sociology until greater conceptual integration is achieved.

variables being researched and a statement of the hypotheses to be tested. Chapter IV will present the tests of the hypotheses and Chapter V will conclude the study with a summary, discussion and evaluation of the research.

CHAPTER II

BACKGROUND DISCUSSION

A. Professionalism and Characteristics of Professions

Since we are concerned in this study with the question of how professionals participate socially, it would seem appropriate to discuss one of the contexts within which that participation occurs, viz., professionalism. Although the following discussion cannot be integrated more directly with the content of the hypotheses of this research because of lack of data, it may facilitate interpretations of the findings which the reader may wish to make. In this section we will discuss the distinctiveness of professions together with the structure and definition of the work situation of each of the four professional groups in the present study.

Professions are among the oldest occupations. Their heritage lies in the priesthoods and guilds of medieval Europe. Especially in England, the professions were the occupations deemed most suitable and gentlemanly for the wealthy classes.[1] Perhaps this is still the case in rigidly stratified societies. The identity of separate professions as we now know them were, until recently, submerged largely within the church. The religious practitioner, before the emergence of secular professions, performed the healing and educational functions together with

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[1]Marshall, op. cit., pp. 325-326.

jurial mediation and interpretation of law.

The traditional sociological approach to professions has been quite succinctly summarized by Greenwood.

> The sociological approach to professionalism is one that views a profession as an organized group which is constantly interacting with the society that forms its matrix, which performs its social functions through a network of formal and informal relationships, and which creates its own sub-culture requiring adjustments to it as a prerequisite for career success.[2]

Such an approach, it will be noticed, finds a profession interesting due to the fact that it exhibits characteristics of a community or subsociety. Most analysis of professions takes as its focus certain aspects of professionalism which derive from their importance as a community. Such structural analyses bring to light the social organization within the profession (or community) and the strains, exchanges, and interactions within the profession and between the profession and the larger community containing it,[3] but fail to illuminate the way professionals participate in their communities of residence of which they are also a part.

We have already briefly noted in Chapter I some observations on the importance of professional services, their calling to humanity and the moral unit they seek to become. We now wish to fill in this picture by noting some additional characteristics of professions and professionalism.

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[2]Greenwood, op. cit., p. 45.

[3]Examples of this approach are: Goode, op. cit.; and two intrastructural analyses of professions; Harvey L. Smith, "Contingencies of Professional Differentiation," American Journal of Sociology, 63:4 (January, 1958), pp. 410-414; and Rue Bucher and Anselm Strauss, "Professions in Process,"ibid., 66:4 (January 1961), pp. 325-334. Another writer sees professionalism as a special case of bureaucratization. (See Robert C. Stone, "The Sociology of Bureaucracy and Professions," in Joseph F. Runcek (ed.), Contemporary Sociology, pp. 491-506.

A profession often exacts of its initiates a certain minimum functional competence based on principles deriving from an abstract body of organized knowledge. The academic degree, title, license, or certificate is the public's symbol guaranteeing them that the professional has successfully completed the requirements of the training period. Such a guarantee seems necessary since the service which the professional performs is unstandardized, each performance being to a great degree a work of art unique to the particular practitioner, and the client is presumably unable to judge the quality of the service since he does not understand the theory upon which it is based.

The theory and skill of the profession is assimilated in the training period during which, in some professions, the recruit is, to a great extent, isolated from the greater society. Apparently this training period has another important function which is the assimilation of the initiate to the professional culture and the development of a professional self-image.[4] Some writers have suggested that the completeness with which the initiate assumes the professional self-image is of greater importance to his subsequent success in the profession than the mastery of technical knowledge.[5] As the professional internalizes the culture of the profession and seeks to ascend in its formal and informal organization, his identification with the profession often attains a high level as indicated in the personality involvement of the practitioner

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[4]An exploration of this process is represented in Mary Jean Huntington, "The Development of a Professional Self-Image," in Merton, Reader and Kendall (eds.), The Student-Physician, pp. 179-187.

[5]See Hughes, "Dilemmas and Contradictions of Status," American Journal of Sociology, 50:5 (March, 1945), p. 355.

and the fact that once in the profession few leave it.[6]

Most professions hold some code of ethics within which some of the social relationships expected among professionals, between professionals and clients, and between professionals and the public are defined. Within such a code a statement of policy regarding the operation of the profession and the conduct of the professionals is often included. It may admonish the professionals to offer their services whenever and wherever needed, to do their best at all times and respect the confidence of the client. It may also discourage them from certain forms of advertising (although the referral system may be viewed as a response to the lack of advertisement to which the public is exposed), unfair intra-professional competition, commercial haggling and evaluations of one another which are visible to the public.

The rights and privileges which professions seek to legitimate for themselves vary by the particular exigencies of the profession. They may include the right to establish and control their own training centers and thus control the rate and type of initiates who enter and graduate from them, the right to define and control the standards by which seniority and merit are judged,[7] and any of a bundle of subsidiary rights including immunity to testify against a colleague, non-interference in fee assessment, etc.

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[6]Goode, op. cit., p. 194, and Reiss, op. cit., p. 695; also William Faunce, "Occupational Involvement and the Selective Testing of Self-Esteem," revision of paper read at the annual American Sociological Association meeting, Chicago, September, 1959. An interesting topic in this regard is the effect which increasing alienation in the work role has upon SP.

[7]Meaning in part that only fellow colleagues in the same profession are qualified to judge the quality of the professional service rendered.

Oftentimes the profession develops an association which works for the welfare of the profession by attempting to safeguard and improve the conditions of their work. Of course, the association represents an organizational effort by which the profession may more effectively secure control over the behavior of its members and protect itself against invasion by other professions, non-professions, and charletons, thus, in effect, monopolizing their knowledge and skills. Other functions may be served by this association, such as the arrangement of conventions, the facilitation of employment, the coordination of activities and programs, and the publication of materials. It also often becomes the political pressure group which lobbies on behalf of the profession.

It would appear that the larger the per cent of membership within the association and the greater the degree of integration of members within it, the more readily can the profession wield power and develop a professional solidarity. We turn now to a discussion of the four professions in the present study: the clerical, the teaching, the legal, and the medical professions.[8]

1. The Clerical Profession

It has been said that the ministry is the most heterogeneous of all professions,[9] and in some respects it is the most interesting

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[8]There is no standardized set of terms by which religious practitioners are referred to. The terms clerics, clergy, or ministers may refer to practitioners of Catholic, Protestant, or Jewish faiths unless otherwise specified. The term medical professions may apply to dentists, doctors of osteopathy, doctors of medicine, or other specialists.

[9]Bryan R. Wilson, "The Pentecostal Minister: Role Conflicts and Status Contradictions," American Journal of Sociology, 64:5 (March, 1959), p. 503.

sociologically. The cleric counsels when a birth occurs, he presides over confirmations, weddings, anniversaries and other rites of passage, he comforts during illness and supports the bereaved when a loved one dies. Few professions have access to such a range of important human events.

A few major developments (such as the spread of science, the demands of time and loyalty of other associations such as the school and lodge, the consumption of mass media, and increased specialization of occupations) have drastically altered the structure of the clerical profession and the activities which they traditionally engage in. Due to the increasing specialization of functions and the impetus of industrial and intellectual revolutions, professions gradually broke away from the church. The net effect seems to have been that the ministry has both lost and gained certain functions.[10]

The material which is the object of the clerical profession is the souls of people. The goals are to save souls, instill religious teachings and sometimes protest the existing social order and speak out on social problems. Although the mandate appears simple, its implementation is actually quite complicated. Religious factions have rent the universal church into a multitude of disagreeing bodies. It is no

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[10]Wilson, op. cit., and Stanley Chapman, ("The Minister, Professional Man of the Church," Social Forces, 23:2 (December, 1944), p. 203) note some of the areas from which the minister has been cut off, while Samuel Blizzard ("The Minister's Dilemma," The Christian Century, April 25, 1956, p. 508) describes the multi-various functions the present-day minister is expected to perform. It is interesting to note that to a great extent the transformation of the clergy profession has closely paralleled the decline of community in the United States. It might also be noted that rural clergy often serve multiple parishes. See Lowry Nelson, Rural Sociology, pp. 357-359.

secret that the group or party with which a particular church most bitterly differs is often another church. There is no monolithic philosophy or doctrine although the ecumenical movement seems to be gaining. No unifying code of ethics exists for the clergy although various attempts are being made to formulate policy with respect to "stealing" parishoners from other flocks, performing "unwise" marriages and other matters pertaining to the conduct of the minister in the parish and community.[11]

Since the affairs of the soul are transcendental in nature, science as a method for its understanding is inapplicable. Yet the social gospel, as commissioned by Christ and interpreted by certain ministers, sometimes leads clergy to become knowledgeable of social science inasmuch as it pertains to matters of mental health, the family, crime and delinquency, leadership, group dynamics, and the nature of mass society.

It is difficult to classify either the denomination or such groups as ministerial associations as professional associations for it appears that their functions vary and neither type of organization aspires to perform the functions which professional associations normally perform for their members. Or, if aspiring, it does not perform them effectively. One of the main difficulties is, of course, the fact that religious experiences and groups are so diverse, and religious groups (within certain limits of civil law) are free to develop and select their own leadership. For this reason and others there does not appear to exist a social substratum conducive to the emergence of an inclusive and vital professional

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[11]See Nolan B. Harmon, "Ethics of the Protestant Ministry," The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, Vol. 297 (January, 1955), pp. 70-75.

association. This does not mean, however, that the cleric may not take as the evaluative reference for his behavior the expectations of other clergy.

> From a sociological point of view, the clergyman stands in a relationship to the church similar to that occupied by the teacher in relation to the school. The clergyman is the leader whom the congregation employs to carry out the functions associated with the office of minister or priest. He is the professional leader of the group.[12]

The cleric is often responsible for the coordination of the various organizations which subdivide the church. In this respect his role contains elements of both professional and executive positions. The cleric is responsible primarily to his church congregation who subsidizes him. His continued employment is subject to the desires of either a church board (locally) or a denominational representative (or committee) or both.[13] The congregation in either case is one of his major audiences of evaluation. He performs often and periodically before them, the major performances being the some fifty-two Sunday morning services during the calendar year. His parishoners are concerned (sometimes quite critically) with his social skills, decorum, and leadership finesse.[14]

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[12]Nelson, op. cit., p. 354.

[13]A distinction is usually made between two different types of denominational structures, the one called "Congregational type (or c-type)," the other "Episcopal type (or e-type)." The former is distinguished from the latter by the fact that authority to "call" a minister, dispense rewards for his performance, discharge him, and make its own decisions locally with respect to such matters as finances resides in each local church. These two structures (a third type may be called "mixed" which incorporates elements of both) also greatly affect the minister's relationship to his parishoners and community and his migration patterns. (See Luke M. Smith, "The Clergy: Authority Structure, Ideology, Migration," American Sociological Review, 18:3 (June, 1953), pp. 242-248.)

[14]Blizzard ("The Parish Minister's Self-Image of His Master Role," Pastoral Psychology, Vol. 9 (December, 1958), noted that the attributes which made for success were quite different (and differently ranked) from those which contribute toward effective witness in the ministry.

The congregation is comprised of people of all ages and their status as parishoners may continue for a lifetime. Sometimes they gain their status as parishoners by inheritance. Like the teacher, the cleric's clientele is to a great extent provided for him. Although the cleric's role is variously conceived and not clearly defined,[15] therapeutic functions are assuming an increasingly large share of his activities. Because of this role he has been referred to as a mediating professional--one who deals in human emotions and whose obligation it is to help the client transform from a present mode of functioning to a future state.[16] Yet the cleric is not paid directly by the client in the form of fees (except for such fees as honorariums for guest speeches) for separate services rendered, but is salaried and thus indirectly and impersonally subsidized. The fact that the cleric participates in the activities of his clients and they in his quite sharply distinguishes this profession from others.

Due to the autonomy and diversity of religious bodies, the requirements and training of clergymen are far from uniform. Each denomination, local church, or sect often ordains its own ministers. However, some kind of training or experience is usually required for there is the possibility of charletons in this profession also. Since denominations contain various class strata (only broadly can one speak of upper or lower class denominations) what is expected of a minister in terms of

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[15]Blizzard, "The Protestant Parish Minister's Integrating Roles," Religious Education, Vol. 53 (July-August, 1953), pp. 374-380.

[16]Kasper P. Naegle, "Clergymen, Teachers and Psychiatrists: A Study in Roles and Socialization," Canadian Journal of Economics and Political Science, 22:1 (February, 1956), pp. 46-62.

training often depends on class, regional and local parish conditions. Many denominations are now requiring the B.D. degree from accredited or recognized seminaries. Many times these institutions are their own establishments. When such training is mandatory, the initiate is usually considerably separated from the larger society for a length of time. During this time he learns various theologies, eschatologies, and cosmologies, together with parish skills which he often tries out in an internship.

Social mobility for the cleric usually involves spatial migrations unless he is already part of a local organization in which he may aspire to higher positions. By moving he can often get to a larger, more prestigeful church in an area offering more "cultural" opportunities.[17] He may also aspire to state, regional, or national convention offices. Ideologically, the "getting ahead" motive is suppressed; however, it appears that Protestant ethic motivations are embraced by ministers and laymen alike.[18]

2. The Teaching Profession

It is not clear exactly what the status of the teaching profession is in our society. It may be that its members enjoy considerable prestige

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[17]Myles W. Rodehaver and Luke M. Smith, "Migration and Occupational Structure: The Clergy," Social Forces, 29:4 (May, 1951), pp. 417-420.

[18]This appears to be especially the case for ministers in the c-type structure where they have a contractual relationship with the local church. According to Parsons ("The Professions and Social Structure," op. cit.,) the goals (viz. achievement and recognition) of businessmen and professionals in our society are the same, only the paths to them are different. Yet, what constitutes achievement and recognition may vary by profession. The minister, as well as the teacher, exhibits strong commitments toward serving the communities in which they reside. (John B. Holland and Charles P. Loomis, "Goals of Life of Rural Ministers," Sociometry, 11:8 (1948), pp. 217-229.)

but little power. The schoolmaster has perhaps been more highly regarded for his novelty and characteristic style of life than for the seriousness of his ideas or his "indispensable" function. Waller has said that "Teaching has been the refuge for unsaleable males and unmarriageable females."[19] Heretofore it appears that parents and community members approved of the school as a sort of detention building in which peers were to learn a few basic subject areas and above all acquire certain values and discipline.

In contradistinction to the clergy and the other professions in this study, the high school teachers in a particular community all generally work under the same roof and within the same educational system. There is usually only one school system for a particular school district (except in the case where both public and parochial schools co-exist).

The commodity in which the teacher deals is knowledge and the goal is the education and guidance of impressionable minds. Science has

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For the minister the recognition for this service may partly be deferred to a "future life" while for the teacher it may rest in the fact of service for its own rewards. A large part of the rewards for lawyers, dentists, and doctors, however, may take the form of a more institutionalized business enterprise. It should also be noted in this context of rewards that "between 1940 and 1954 the real income of lawyers, physicians and industrial workers rose from 10-80 per cent, while that of faculty members dropped 5 per cent." (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, Annual Report, cited by Max Ascoli, "Our Cut-Rate Education," an editorial, The Reporter, February 20, 1958, p. 9.) Also see Harold Rosencranz ("The Relation of Social References to Imagery of Occupational Life Styles," Ph.D. thesis, Michigan State University, 1960), for some references to and perceptions of income of teachers and doctors, and also see "Incomes of Physicians, Dentists and Lawyers, 1949-51," Survey of Current Business, July, 1952, pp. 5-7, for a comparison of incomes of physicians, dentists, and lawyers.

[19] Willard Waller, The Sociology of Teaching, p. 58.

played an important role in revolutionizing education both in its (science) dissemination and its application to teaching methods.

One of the very interesting structural features of the teaching profession is that it has "compulsory clients"--literally, a captive audience. Elementary education is required by law. Pressures to attend high school are such that in fact virtually all the youth of that age bracket attend.

A consequent of compulsory education and support of the school system via public funds, the payment of which is mandatory of all taxpayers, is that these citizens (taxpayers) are encouraged to think that they have a voice in the operation of the school system and, consequently, the control over the work situation of the teacher. The fact that this lay public entertains many diverse and competing philosophies concerning the goals and means for "better" education (as do the teachers themselves) does not make easier the task of the teacher.

Training requirements, more uniform than the clergy but less uniform than the other professions, are often set by state and national governmental agencies who also, to some extent, control the broad range of material to be taught. Yet qualifications for a given high school teaching position vary greatly as do the courses which are taught and required of the student. It is usually expected that the degrees held by a teacher will have been earned at accredited colleges. These colleges are the same ones in which degrees are conferred in other fields of specialization and, therefore, the isolation of the initiate into the teaching profession is no greater than that of any other college student.[20]

[20]Although there is usually no conscious attempt to isolate the teacher by means of a separate training center, it is still quite probable that a teacher sub-culture develops out of collegial associations and experiences.

Another interesting characteristic of the teaching profession is the fact that teachers are employed, salaried, and discharged by local school boards or equivalent governing bodies. This board thereby becomes the most powerful audience of evaluation for the teacher. As in the case of the clergy, this audience of evaluation is not usually comprised of members of the teaching profession, yet it judges the quality of the service rendered. Perhaps it is because this lay group is not fully knowledgeable of the subleties of the conditions of the profession and the theoretical underpinnings upon which the performance is customarily based that it must adduce "extrinsic" criteria in the evaluation of the teachers' competence and performance. Perhaps it is for this reason that teachers sometimes perceive the reward and advancement system as operating capriciously.

An additional factor complicates the teacher's role and makes his employment insecure. This is the fact that the audiences before which he performs daily are not the audiences holding the greater power over his performance.[21] Perhaps it is for these reasons and others that the literature (studies) pertaining to teacher employment and service repeatedly document role conflicts and induced structural strains of various sorts.[22]

Like ministers, teachers are part of a social system in which sub-

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[21]Even the e-type minister is not as exclusively at the mercy of a "removed" audience of evaluation.

[22]See, for example, J. W. Getzels and E. G. Guba, "The Structure of Roles and Role Conflict in the Teaching Situation," Journal of Educational Sociology, 29:1 (September, 1955), pp. 30-40; and Chandler Washburne, "Involvement as a Basis for Stress Analysis: A Study of High School Teachers," unpublished Ph.D. thesis, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan, 1953.

groups (organizations) are active and with which he becomes involved in advisory or coordinating functions. Both these professions, when contrasted with the others, have a more continuing relationship with a more unchanging set of clients and engage in more frequent interaction with them.

Teachers again exhibit a similarity to the clergy by the fact that national professional associations or unions (which strive for freedoms for the teacher), although in existence, receive little enthusiastic support from teachers.[23] Reasons for this may be many. Some believe that membership in such an organization jeopardizes their relationships to the community in which they serve. Others believe that the association can do little for them, given the fact that many of their activities and work conditions are presently controlled by national, state, and local agencies. Still others feel that resort to an association by which to improve their status and employment is unethical; it is felt that it is the responsibility of each teacher to conduct himself in a morally upright manner, fulfilling his every obligation conscientiously. Only then, some believe, will their lot improve.[24]

The fact that teachers are in possession of virtually all school-age youth of the community a major part of the day and year could lend

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[23]In 1938 only 10.3 per cent belonged to the American Federation of Teachers Union, less than 3 per cent belonged to the Progressive Educational Association, and 67.9 per cent belonged to the NEA. Patronage of state associations (such as the Michigan Educational Association) is still higher than NEA membership rates. Lloyd A. Cook, Ronald B. Almack, and Florence Greenhoe, "Teacher and Community Relations," American Sociological Review, 3:2 (April, 1938), pp. 167-174.

[24]See Washburne, op. cit., pp. 70-95. Another reason suggested by Wilbur Brookover (A Sociology of Education, pp. 237-253) perhaps strikes to the heart of the matter but might not be readily admitted to by teachers, that being the fact that unions or other defining bodies might mitigate intra-teacher competition.

apprehension to community members with a concern regarding the teachers' "character." Teachers (in small communities) often report that their behavior is constantly surveilled and that they feel an inordinate amount of "community pressure" to actively participate in organizations in the community.[25] This participation brings them (perhaps not by purposive intent) into greater visibility to the community (since the cloistered school building is rarely frequented by parents) and puts them into positions where they are more amenable to community norms and wishes. Since the process of education is presumably not limited to the school environment and activity, teachers are often concerned with the character of community activities as well. In this they again resemble the clergy who often speak of the "moral tone" of the community. Teachers, like ministers, engage, to a great extent, in mediator roles involving human emotions and counsel. In fact, they find that much of their resource material which they find helpful in counsel is utilized by the clergy also.

It would appear that Simmel's sociology of the stranger is applicable to teachers vis-a-vis the communities in which they serve.[26] That is, they seem to be accorded the position of being <u>in</u> the community but not <u>of</u> the community. They are often regarded by many members of the community as notorious harborers of radical ideas, seeking to innovate wherever possible. To a limited extent this view of them may be quite correct as it is of certain religious leaders who do not accept the

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[25]Cook, <u>op. cit.</u>, p. 169. If the teacher does not participate in community affairs and organizations he can hardly be surveilled. However, the range of such activities appropriate to him is quite narrowly prescribed. See Brookover, <u>op. cit.</u>, pp. 237-253.

[26]Kurt H. Wolff, <u>The Sciology of Georg Simmell</u>, pp. 402-408.

state of society as given in a certain segment of time. Perhaps this element of suspicion is one of the reasons for the fact that ". . . the principle most descriptive of teacher migration is that of 'limited circulation' . . . it is likely that teachers move more often, but at shorter distances, than do doctors or even ministers . . . [and] . . . teachers show a tendency to work back in their changes of position toward home towns"[27] where they are known and accepted. In a few instances the teacher may advance within the school system of which he is a part, but often he must migrate to do so. He may also aspire to county and state educational posts.[28]

3. The Medical Profession

Most of the discussion to follow in this section will apply mainly to medical doctors and osteopaths. The dentistry profession has not received much systematic study although it appears from some research which has been conducted that they deviate appreciably from the general characterization of physicians. Gerstl[29] found that of the five factors conducive to occupational "community feeling" among professionals within each of three professions (dentists, admen and college professors) only two characterized the dentistry work situation: participation in

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[27]Cook, op. cit., p. 168.

[28]Ward S. Mason and Neal Gross ("Intra-Occupational Prestige Differentiation: The School Superintendency," American Sociological Review, No. 3 (June, 1955), pp. 326-331) find that school superintendents' intra-occupational evaluations may occur around several criteria and status symbols: managerial responsibility, quality of the school system, facilities available and salary of the superintendent.

[29]Gerstl, op. cit.

occupational associations and felt occupational prestige. College professors, by contrast, although low on the former factor, had much more opportunity for interaction on the job and exhibited a much higher work commitment (solicited by asking the question, "Would you choose another career if you had to do it over again?") than did dentists. Even though, in the present study, most of the dentists operate in single-dentist towns (thus greatly diminishing the opportunity for inter-colleague interactions), Gerstl's study prompts some comparative observations.

Dentistry as an exclusive vocation is a relatively new profession. Their services are perhaps not deemed as vital as are some other professions' for there is still quite a large segment of the population which regards their services as kind of a luxury. The nature of their job is such, of course, that they do not see as many emergency patients as medical doctors do. One cannot easily schedule himself to be ill on a certain day, but one can have dental services performed which were scheduled weeks in advance. By means of scheduling the dentist is able to confine his work hours to an eight to five work schedule if he likes. It is also apparent that the dentist does not regard his client in "the whole patient" sense that a general practitioner (perhaps even a specialist) doctor does. Correspondingly, he seldom compiles a health history on his new clients.

One of the professions apparently undergoing some of the most radical changes is that of the medical. A couple of observers state that: "The rash of controversy that has broken out recently, both within the medical profession and outside of it, over fundamental problems of medical practice--pre-payment insurance plans, advertising, the hiring of physicians by institutions and fee-splitting--would seem to indicate

that something fairly serious is happening to the oldest and most pre-eminent of the professions."[30] It is conceivable that major technological and scientific changes (specialization, the development of expensive and immobile equipment, increased medical knowledge and new drugs) are seriously affecting the relationships among medical practitioners and between them and their client-public.

One of the most noticeable changes occurring in the medical profession is the centralization and institutionalization of services. The success of an aspiring medical practitioner is to a great extent dependent on his access to the hospital, clinic, laboratories, nursing homes, dispensaries, medical associations and established office practices. Hall[31] has noted that within most communities in which medical services centralize there evolves an informal organization (inner-fraternity) of the established practitioners. This fraternity determines the movement and fate of the aspiring practitioner in these institutional structures. This inner fraternity is comprised of specialists who have access to, and dominate the main hospital posts. Below these are those who are expected to replace the core group in time. Around the core are the general practitioners and outside the core are those doctors "who are attempting by their individual efforts to break into the central core."[32] Such a juxtaposition of clearly differentiated,

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[30] William T. Fitts, Jr., and Barbara Fitts, "Ethical Standards of the Medical Profession," The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, Vol. 297 (January, 1955), p. 17.

[31] Hall, op. cit.

[32] Ibid., p. 15, and Hall, "The Stages of a Medical Career," American Journal of Sociology, 53:5 (March, 1948), p. 335.

intra-professional groups is seldom found in other professions.

The decision to locate in a certain area and take up practice is undoubtedly an important one and one which is swayed by many factors. Hughes states that "the decision of operating in a small or in a large community involves the choice of significant others (reference groups), the people on whose opinion one stakes one's reputation; those whom one can afford to pay less attention to; and those, perhaps, from whom one must dissociate oneself."[33] In view of the centralization described above, this decision would appear to be a particularly important one to the physician.

Some factors underlying the location of physicians within Indiana has been researched by Dinkel.[34] The reasons rural doctors gave for locating in their communities differ significantly from those mentioned by urban doctors. Both urban and rural doctors gave consideration to "town being a nice place to live and its having good institutions." Beyond that, however, rural doctors more often mentioned "relatively few doctors in town," and "town is near a large city," and "able to live and work at a moderate pace" as location determinants. Urban doctors mentioned "home town," "joined an older doctor" and "clinics available."

The type of counties in which the present study was conducted are those generally having a proportionately greater number of towns and rural-non-farm places. These places usually contain a large number of older people.[35] The need for medical care increases with

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[33]Hughes, Men and Their Work, p. 129.

[34]Robert M. Dinkel, "Factors Underlying the Location of Physicians Within Indiana," American Sociological Review, 11:1 (February, 1946), pp. 16-25.

[35]Otis Dudley Duncan and Albert J. Reiss, Jr., Social Characteristics of Urban and Rural Communities, p. 33.

age.[36] The wealth of a community is an important factor in attracting a doctor.[37] These facts, taken together, often mean that rural areas cannot easily attract a doctor and yet considerable need for one often exists. A number of studies indicate that the number of doctors per one thousand population in rural areas has steadily decreased over the last thirty years.[38] Furthermore, the doctors found in these areas are in the young and old age brackets with very few in the middle age brackets around thirty-five to fifty years of age (such is also the case with rural lawyers).[39]

Maslow, in his study of physicians moving into six Wisconsin rural counties, suggested that there is to be found a "rural itinerant" type of doctor of elderly age who moves from one rural community to another. He found that two-thirds of the physicians moving into these counties came from other rural areas and many of them were older practitioners. McNamara[40] and Nelson noted essentially the same phenomenon. The latter researcher stated that, "A move originating in a place under 500 is over three times as likely to terminate in a place of less than 2,500 population than is one originating in cities 10,000 and over."[41]

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[36]Charles R. Hoffer, "Medical Needs of the Rural Population in Michigan," Rural Sociology, 12:2 (June, 1947), p. 162.

[37]Joseph W. Mountin, Elliott H. Pennell, and Virginia Nicolay, "Location and Movement of Physicians, 1923 and 1938--Effect of Local Factors Upon Location," Public Health Reports, 57:51, December 18, 1942.

[38]Lowry Nelson, "Distribution, Age, and Mobility of Minnesota Physicians, 1912-1936," American Sociological Review, pp. 792-801.

[39]It must also be noted that the efficiency of the medical service varies inversely with age since considerable stamina is required for the full diurnal routine.

[40]Robert McNamara, "Changes in the Characteristics and Number of Practicing Physicians in Rural Ohio, 1923-1942," Rural Sociology, 9:1 (March, 1944), pp. 10-20.

[41]Nelson, "Distribution . . ." p. 800.

Some communities, in attempts to attract a physician, have guaranteed a minimum salary, constructed office space, and purchased equipment with which the new doctor can begin.[42]

There are also indications that rural doctors (perhaps more than urban doctors) are expected to provide community leadership in addition to medical services.[43]

Hughes[44] has said that the medical profession has control over all medical functions with the exception of abortion and even the latter requires qualification. It is perhaps for this reason that the physician is not beset with the magnitude of diverse and conflicting role expectations and structural strains which beset the cleric and teacher. There is, however, indication that the medical profession seeks to exceed the purely technical medical functions:

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[42] University of Nebraska News, 31:32 (March, 1952), Lincoln, Nebraska.

[43] John R. Rodger, M.D., "Rural Practice Can Be Fun," Journal of the Student American Medical Association, April (no year given).

[44] Hughes, Men and Their Work, p. 72. A major difference between the clerical-teaching and the medical-lawyer professions inheres in the fact that the latter each have a single strong professional association which purports to represent the profession inclusively. According to Hugh Brenneman, Public Relations Department, Michigan Health Association, membership in the American Medical Association is voluntary, very high (perhaps over 90 per cent), requires the payment of dues and requires that the M.D. first be a member at local and state level associations. Michigan began an "integrated bar association" in 1935, meaning that all lawyers practicing in this state must, by law, be a member of the state bar association, have taken its exams and submit himself to its rules of professional conduct before he can practice in the state. Such a bar becomes a governmental adjunct giving the board of governors and local committees the power to try lawyers for misconduct and recommend discipline by the supreme court. Membership in the American Medical Association is higher (about 22 per cent) than membership in the American Bar Association.

> According to social medicine the dtudy of the physician is not just to the individual patient but to the community at large--the body social, as it were; and the physician should study not only individual pathology but social pathology which is recorded in the statistical annals of many disciplines. His scope will then reach out into the fields of statistics, sociology, anthropology and psychology.[45]

4. The Legal Profession

The sociology of religion and education have been standard chapter headings in many books describing an institutional purview of sociology. Medical sociology is rapidly emerging also. But, except for a few contemporary sociologist, such as Sorokin, Selznick, Timasheff and Gurvitch, the sociology of law (or legal sociology) has received little attention--especially when compared with present trends toward the sociology of power and politics. Within the area of legal sociology, the barrister and solicitor professional roles and the extra-occupational aspects of these roles have received little systematic attention.[46]

About 78 per cent of the active lawyers in the U.S.A. engage in private practice, although it appears that the large law firms are increasing.[47] Private practice allows the lawyer to make direct and immediate contact with the client and assume full responsibility for the case. All of the lawyers in the present study were primarily self-employed in private practice.

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[45]Fitts and Fitts, op. cit., p. 28. Also see Loomis, Social Systems, pp. 304-305.

[46]Both N. S. Timasheff (An Introduction to the Sociology of Law) and Georges Gurvitch (Sociology of Law) make only an occasional note to lawyers when noting the subjective factors in jurisprudence.

[47]Albert P. Blaustein and Charles O. Porter, The American Lawyer, p. 8.

A recent writer found that if a lawyer is to be maximally competitive in the job market he must be a "personable man (one with 'acceptability,' i.e., good family connections, ability, and personality) from one of the select eastern law schools, who graduated with honors from an Ivy League College, and was at the top of law school class."[48]

It has been said that lawyers have never been a popular occupational group in American society.[49] Complaints against them are of two main types: (1) The way justice is administered, and (2) the way the profession is structures and operates. To an objective non-American observer of American society, the complexity and prominence of our legal machinery is quite conspicuous. Whether popular or not, the lawyer is nevertheless a prominent profession in American society. His technical-professional functions are fairly specific. He is an advocate (pleader), attorney (representative), and counselor (advisor). According to Wardwell and Wood, "The lawyer's citizenship role is by no means so clear cut [as the technical-professional role]."[50] Yet there seems to be a common core of extra-occupational activities in which lawyers participate (especially the lawyer in private practice).

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[48]Erwin O. Smigel, "Recruitment and the Large Law Firm," American Sociological Review, 25:1 (February, 1960), p. 57. Most of the 165 law schools in the U. S. require three years of college work as a preparation for the three year law school period which takes place in a separate training center.

[49]Blaustein, op. cit., p. 33.

[50]Wardwell and Wood, op. cit., p. 304. Of course, the type of practice in which lawyers may engage varies considerably. In addition to services rendered to companies, trusts, and individuals, they vie for city, county, or state attorneyships and the various positions of the "bench" such as justices of the peace and county, state, or federal district court judgeships.

Similar to the physician and dentist in private practice the new lawyer must build up his clientele. This is not easy for between the lawyer, as with the physician (but not the dentist), and the client there must be a confident trust relationship sustained by mechanisms of effective neutrality and functional specificity in order that the practitioner can procure the necessary details of the client's condition. The fact that he must build a clientele without resorting to commercial advertising seems to be related to the fact that the lawyer, whether in order to make himself visible to the public, validate his proficiency or establish business "contacts," participates "in a wide variety of community and political organizations."[51] The lawyer in small communities is especially prone to seek political office. In building up a clientele the lawyer also puts himself in competition with other lawyers.

Since a large part of the finances for those who need lawyer services but cannot themselves afford them are provided by local community chest drives, lawyers (especially civil rather than criminal lawyers) show active interest and leadership in these projects together with participation in civic and recreational clubs and religious lay groups.[52] One respondent in Wood's study stated: "I find veterans' affairs a most satisfying activity for two reasons: I sympathize with the problems of the veterans and also because veterans' organizations have been very good to me--they have really been the backbone of my clientele."[53]

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[51] Wood, op. cit., p. 49.

[52] Ibid., p. 52.

[53] Ibid., p. 49.

In spite of these frequent sympathetic organizational allegiances, the legal code of ethics[54] exhorts lawyers to stay free from organizational memberships which would tend to divide and sway his objectivity and loyalty to justice. The code is conspicuously lacking, however, in detail regarding what comprises the lawyer's citizen role.

At least two factors characteristic of some rural communities are relevant to the practice of the lawyer in these areas. Blaustein noted that "both the oldest and the youngest groups of lawyers seem to prefer the small communities."[55] There is a lack of lawyers in the 35-55 category in these communities. In this age bracket productive and aspiring lawyers seem to need bigger clients which the rural areas cannot furnish. Secondly, Blumenthal[56] noted that some of his respondents characterized the small town life as "smug and tight . . . [resenting] its enforced intimacies, its factional disputes. . . ." It would seem that the lawyer (in the nature of his job which deals with controversy) in the small communities would be faced with the added difficulty of protecting his future business by placating these factions. A case, if won, is always won at the expense of another party (or faction), and when both parties lie within one's "trade-territory" he (the lawyer) must remember that the opposition is always a potential client.

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[54]Henry S. Drinker, "Legal Ethics," Annals (op. cit.), pp. 37-45.

[55]Blaustein, op. cit., p. 17.

[56]Albert Blumenthal, Small Town Stuff, p. 36. For further references to legal practitioners see: J. E. Carlin, "The Lawyer as Individual Practitioner," unpublished Ph.D. thesis, University of Chicago, 1959; Dan C. Lortie, "The Striving Young Lawyer: A Study of Early Career Differentiation in the Chicago Bar," unpublished Ph.D. thesis, University of Chicago, 1959; Martin Mayer, "The Wall Street Lawyer," Harpers Magazine, Vol. 212 (January-February, 1956), pp. 31-37 and 50-56, and the American Bar Association Journal.

B. A Dichotomy of the Professions in the Present Study

The above discussion was not primarily intended to generate hypotheses which could be tested in the present research. Indeed, the data are inadequate to be brought to bear on specific hypotheses regarding influences of professional involvement and affiliation on SP. Furthermore, it cannot be determined in this research how, if at all, certain occupational characteristics result in or encourage differential SP. Rather the discussion is intended to provide a background by which to assess and interpret some of the findings of this research. Another important purpose of this discussion was to characterize a dichotomous distinction which can be made of the established professions in the present study. It has been noted that the clerical and teaching professions share certain characteristics on the one hand and the medical and lawyer exhibit certain similarities on the other hand. Because of these distinctions we shall refer to the former (for lack of better terminology) as the "social-helping" professions and the latter as the "technical-helping" professions. The terms themselves are not as important as the distinctions they are intended to make. These distinctions in summary are the following.

1. The "social-helping" professions lack a well established, singular professional association which seeks to represent the entire profession and gain certain rights pertaining to the economic conditions of the profession, the work situation, and the control of its own members.
2. The "social-helping" professions perform their work roles

within an organizational setting, such as the church or school systems.

3. The "social-helping" professions must possess verbal and organizational skills (somewhat different from, e.g., legal practitioners), which are exhibited frequently and periodically before groups of clients. They often perform mediating roles in counsel also.
4. The "social-helping" professions are salaried.
5. The major audience of evaluation for the "social-helping" professions is usually comprised of individuals outside of the profession.
6. The clientele of the "social-helping" professions is, to a great extent, rather stable and ascribed.
7. The "social-helping" professions exhibit a strong work commitment involving a "calling" to public community service in addition to a set of clients.
8. The "social-helping" professions are entered with little difficulty.
9. The "social-helping" professions are characterized by a rather distinctive occupational status system which is reflected in the mobility patterns of these professionals and the lack of concensus over means and ends.
10. The "technical-helping" professions do not exhibit any of the characteristics of the "social-helping" professions to as great an extent.
11. The "technical-helping professions are distinguished by their tradition of independent entrepreneurship, the presence of

strong professional organization and the performance of more technical functions.

12. The "technical-helping" professions are purportedly characterized by greater status, power, and income.

C. American Society and Rural Communities

Some of the conditions in the rural community affecting the practice of each of the four professional occupations in the present study have been noted. It is perhaps appropriate to also briefly describe some of the major changes occurring in rural society which might have some broad effects upon the participation of professionals within rural communities.

The modern-day rural community is to be viewed within the framework of changes occurring in American society and agriculture. New farm policies prompted by national economic conditions, together with changing technology in agriculture and an increasing mobile population, have seriously affected many trade centers. The infiltration of mass media into rural areas, exposing the inhabitants to more varieties of consumer goods and styles of life and inducing secondary needs for their acquisition, together with improved transportation and communication which make goods and services accessible in other trade territories, have cut sharply into the traditional social life and boundaries of small communities.[57] Furthermore, it appears that governmentally, as well as economically and socially, the rural areas have been changed. Increasing centralization of government prompted by greater economic

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[57]Everett M. Rogers, Social Change in Rural Society, p. 142.

interdependence (nationally and internationally) and the possible need to mobilize the national economy in times of crisis have meant some issues are no longer determined on the local community level and others which are must often take into account meta-local conditions.

Nevertheless, some villages and towns survive (indeed, have increased in population) perhaps only at the expense of others. Social life continues and certain areas of life are still controlled at local levels. Secondary organizations exist. In fact, Blumenthal reported in 1932 that "the vast number of groups to be found in the small town of Mineville is almost startling . . . /and/ . . . a frequent complaint of Minevillers is that their town has too many organizations."[58]

Little research deals with the role of professionals in rural communities. Vidich and Bensman[59] find that professionals often perform the function of institutional connectors. They occupy this role by virtue of their education, technical knowledge, and their access to different styles of life and consumption. In Springdale they influence styles of consumption and thought in the community in three main areas of activity: in organizational activities, community projects, and social fashions. "They have been prime movers in setting up a formal program of youth recreation and in vigorously participating in and supporting local cultural activities, such as plays, recitals, and educational talks. In the P.T.A. they constitute the bloc favoring those modern methods and programs which bring the outside world to the small town."[60]

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[58]Blumenthal, op. cit., p. 264.

[59]Small Town and Mass Society, pp. 88-91.

[60]Ibid., p. 90.

CHAPTER III

DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY AREA AND THE OPERATIONALIZATION OF THE STUDY

A. Introduction

In 1957, a study was undertaken of all doctors (meaning doctors of medicine and doctors of osteopathy), dentists, lawyers, high school teachers, and clergymen in four counties in central Michigan.[1] The counties constituting the study area (Clare, Gladwin, Missaukee, and Osceola) in which the respondents resided and the characteristics of the high school students residing within these counties have already been described in other publications;[2] however, we shall expand on those descriptions somewhat below. The data for the present study are taken from this larger study of 1957 which was undertaken as an exploration of population migration and rural professionals. The selection of counties was guided by the objectives of this larger study. The

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[1]The study from which the present data are taken was conducted under the auspices of the Michigan Agricultural Experiment Station and the Farm Population and Rural Life Branch, Agricultural Marketing Service, United States Department of Agriculture.

[2]See James Cowhig and Jay Artis, J. Allan Beegle and Harold Goldsmith, Orientations Toward Occupation and Residence: A Study of High School Seniors in Four Rural Counties in Michigan, Special Bulletin No. 428, 1960, Michigan State University, Agricultural Experiment Station, East Lansing, Michigan; Rolf H. K. Schulze, "Community Satisfaction and Migration," unpublished M.A. thesis, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan, 1960.

features which seemed desirable in view of the objectives of the larger study were that the counties exhibit net out-migration, declines in rural farm population, a relatively low level of living, relatively little manufacturing enterprise and that they be rural in character and accessible to the research headquarters.

B. Description of the Study Area

Table 1 shows a preponderance of youth fourteen years of age and younger in all four counties. It is largely because of this fact that two of the counties, Clare and Gladwin, show a net gain in population even though there is more out than in-migration in the four counties. Given the present low mortality rates and a relatively high birth rate, one can say that the counties are maintaining, even increasing, their population level by supplying it from within. A slight dip in the population pyramid occurs at the 20-24 age bracket due to the fact that many of the youth (especially females), upon graduation from high school, leave their communities.

No urban places are found in the four county area, therefore, the total population may be referred to as "rural" (meaning rural-farm and rural-non-farm). Osceola County has the largest rural population and Missaukee County the smallest. The places of largest size and their population in 1950 and 1960 for each of the four counties follow: Clare County - Clare (2,440, 2,442) and Harrison (884, 1,072); Gladwin County - Gladwin (1,878, 2,226) and Beaverton (794, 926); Missaukee County - Lake City (719, 718) and McBain (506, 551); Osceola County - Reed City (2,241, 2,184), Evart (1,578, 1,775), and Marion (village)

TABLE 1

AGE COMPOSITION OF THE FOUR COUNTIES, 1950, 1960[a]

Age	County							
	Clare		Gladwin		Missaukee		Osceola	
	1950	1960	1950	1960	1950	1960	1950	1960
Under 5 yrs.	1,161	1,464	1,032	1,225	860	802	1,599	1,477
5-9	1,082	1,271	1,117	1,242	861	818	1,437	1,474
10-14	1,008	1,132	993	1,152	823	757	1,341	1,460
15-19	846	952	783	963	668	575	1,111	1,108
20-24	591	568	504	520	343	307	713	695
25-29	608	626	544	550	451	294	835	660
30-34	656	629	623	584	456	314	828	707
35-39	663	652	579	607	456	377	884	795
40-44	664	689	505	612	396	415	770	781
45-49	538	659	470	584	378	396	684	789
50-54	531	607	469	490	386	377	728	676
55-59	483	527	468	481	361	297	688	609
60-64	444	506	449	470	331	296	655	619
65-69	370	524	377	467	266	273	563	576
70-74	255	383	266	401	191	240	434	520
75-79		273		229		141		344
80-84	300[b]		228		201		436	
85-over	53	78	44	68	30	34	91	117
Total rural	10,253	11,647	9,451	10,769	7,458	6,784	13,797	13,595

Total Rural (4 county area) 1950 - 40,959 1960 - 42,795

Source: 1960 U. S. Census of Population, Michigan (General Population Characteristics), P-C (1) -- 24B., U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, pp. 24-135 to 24-147.

[a]The new 1960 Census Reports were not yet completed at the time of this study report. Such data are now available, however. Since the selection of the counties for the larger study was, to a considerable extent, based upon knowledge from the 1950 census, these data constitute an appropriate baseline description.

[b]Apparently the category used in 1950 was 75-84 and 85 and over.

(879, 898).[3] These places and others of similar size are referred to as towns or villages.

Table 2 shows a decided trend toward a decrease in rural-farm and an increase in rural-non-farm population in all of the four counties. Whereas, in 1950 the rural farm exceeded the rural-non-farm population in two of the counties, now all counties have more rural-non-farm than rural-farm population. Gladwin County showed the greatest percentage gain in rural-non-farm population while Clare County showed the greatest percentage loss in rural-farm population. The percentage of rural farm population for the four counties is still considerably above that for the state as a whole.

TABLE 2

SELECTED POPULATION DATA FOR THE FOUR COUNTIES AND FOR THE STATE

County	Population, 1960			Percentage change 1950-60			Percent rural-farm
	Total	Rural-non-farm	Rural-farm	Total	Rural-non-farm	Rural-farm	
Clare	11,647	10,928	1,619	13.6	51.9	-55.6	13.9
Gladwin	10,769	7,398	3,371	13.9	81.8	-37.4	31.3
Missaukee	6,784	4,179	2,605	-9.0	38.9	-41.5	38.4
Osceola	13,595	9,829	3,766	-1.5	35.9	-42.7	27.7
Tot. 4-Co.	42,795	31,434	11,361	4.5	50.3	-53.3	26.5
State	7,824,965	1,643,243	438,198	22.8	39.9	-36.9	5.6

Source: 1960 United States Census of Population, Michigan, General Social and Economic Characteristics, PC (1)-24C, United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, p. 24-184 and J. Allan Beegle and Donald Halsted (1957), Michigan's Changing Population, Michigan Agricultural Experiment Station Special Bulletin 415.

[3]1960 U. S. Census of Population, Michigan, Number of Inhabitants, PC (1)-24A, U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, pp. 24-19 to 24-20.

More recent figures on population changes of the four county area are presented in Table 3. A small net increase in population for the four county area occurred between 1950 and 1960. Two counties show small total population losses and all four counties show net migration losses.

TABLE 3

POPULATION AND NET MIGRATION, 1950-60, FOR THE FOUR COUNTIES

County	1950 Pop.	1960 Pop.	Per cent change	Net migration	Per cent of net migration
Clare	10,253	11,647	13.6	-301	-2.9
Gladwin	9,451	10,769	14.0	-53	-0.6
Missaukee	7,458	6,784	-9.0	-1589	-21.3
Osceola	13,797	13,595	-1.5	-1825	-13.2
Total	40,959	42,795	4.3	-3768	-9.5

Source: J. Allan Beegle, Hambir Phadtare, Rodger Rice, and John F. Thaden, Michigan Population, 1960, Selected Characteristics, forthcoming Agricultural Experiment Station Bulletin, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan.

The four tables concluding this section represent a comparison of the study population (the 206 professionals) with age and income categories of the four counties in which they reside, and the distribution of professionals within the four county area. Table 4 compares the study population with the appropriate age categories of the four county area population. With the exception of four categories, the four county population is proportionately larger than the study population although the disparity of sex-ratios between the two populations distorts the comparison somewhat (i.e., the study population contains a very small proportion

TABLE 4

AGE COMPOSITION COMPARISON OF THE FOUR COUNTIES, 1950, WITH THE STUDY POPULATION

Age	1950 Four Co. Totals	Per cent of sub-total	Study Pop. totals	Per cent of study totals	Comparison of the two population
Under 5 yrs.	4,652				
5-9	4,497				
10-14	4,165				
15-19	3,408				
20-24	2,151	9.4	13[b]	6.3	3.1
25-29	2,438	10.7	28	13.6	-2.9
30-34	2,563	11.2	33	16.0	-4.8
35-39	2,582	11.3	23	11.2	.1
40-44	2,335	10.2	15	7.3	2.9
45-49	2,070	9.1	24	11.7	-2.6
50-54	2,114	9.3	28	13.6	-4.3
55-59	2,000	8.8	13	6.3	2.5
60-64	1,879	8.2	16	7.8	.4
65-69	1,576	6.9			
		11.9	13[c]	6.3	5.6
70-74	1,146	5.0			
75-79	1,165				
80-84					
85 - over	218				
Sub-total[a]	22,854				
Total	40,959	100.0	206	100.1	00.0

Source: Column 1 (1950 Four County Totals) was obtained by summating horizontally in Table 1.

[a]Column 1 total within the broken lines.

[b]Age category used in the present study was simply "under 25 years of age," however, no one younger than 20 fell into the definition of professional and therefore all the respondents were 20 years of age or over.

[c]Age category used in the present study was simply "65 years of age and over," however, no one over 74 years of age was interviewed.

of females.)[4]

Table 5 represents a comparison between the income of gainfully employed families and unrelated individuals and the professionals in the study. (Incidentally, it might be noted that the latter would be included in the former figures.) It is quite apparent that the professionals receive an average yearly income which is substantially higher than that of the remainder of the workers in the counties. Incomes of medical doctors and osteopaths appear to be the highest when compared to those of the other professionals in the study, while clergymen receive the lowest salaries. It should be noted, however, that clergymen commonly obtain pre-paid benefits (income "in kind") from their parishes, such as insurance and rent which affects the reported income level of these professionals.

Since 1960 census data concerning income were available and since the Bureau changed the classification of income somewhat, it may be interesting to note a comparison between the income of the study population and that of the counties in terms of "income of Families and Persons." Such a comparison appears in Table 6. This comparison makes the incomes of the two populations less disparate; however, the incomes of the professionals still exceed those of the four county area.[5]

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[4]The sex ratio for the four county area, 1950, was approximately 102.4 (referring only to the population included in the age brackets to which the professionals are compared); whereas, the ratio for the study population was approximately 610.3 (177 males and 29 females). Professional workers is an occupational category in which few females are found.

[5]In order to check this statement the mean value of each of the income class intervals in Table 5 was multiplied by the percentages for each interval on both populations. Such computations revealed a total income for the four county area of approximately $493,000 while the professionals had approximately $734,500.

TABLE 5

INCOME COMPARISON OF THE FOUR COUNTIES, 1950, WITH THE STUDY POPULATION

Income	No. of Fam(s) & Unrel. Ind.[a] County				Total	%	Study Population					Total	%
	Clare	Glad.	Miss.	Osceo.			HS. Tea.	Law-yers	Den-tists	M.D.s & Ost.	Clergy		
Less than $3,000	2,105	1,860	2,610	1,500	8,075	72.2	3			2	23	28	14.3
$3,000-3,999	510	415	515	285	1,725	15.4	16		1		27	44	22.4
$4,000-5,999[b]	360	235	250	160	1,005	8.9	45	2		2	23	72	36.7
$6,000-6,999	70	20	75	20	185	1.6	5	2			4	11	5.6
$7,000-9,999	25	15	60	10	110	.9	1	1	1	2	1	6	3.1
$10,000-14,999[c]	35	15	25	10	85	.8		3	5	3		11	5.6
$15,000-19,999								4	1	5		10	5.1
$20,000-over								2	3	12		17	8.6
Total	3,105	2,560	3,535	1,985	11,185	99.8	70	14	11	26	77	199[d]	101.4

Source: Data for the county columns were obtained from 1950 U.S. Census of Population, Michigan (General Characteristics), P-B22, U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, pp. 22-148 to 22-150.

[a]The Census Bureau solicits income data from persons 14 years of age and over. The amount reported is the sum of money received less losses. (The income reported is therefore in a sense gross income.) Family income is reported in a lump sum even though several members of the family contributed to that sum.

[b]Income categories used in the table are those used in the present study. In some cases U.S. Census categories had to be collapsed in order to facilitate the present comparison.

[c]The U.S. Census' largest income category calls for $10,000 and more.

[d]No answer was obtained from 7 of the respondents of the study. Also note the per cent of professionals reporting net income (p.77 below).

TABLE 6

INCOME COMPARISON OF THE FOUR COUNTIES, 1959, WITH THE STUDY POPULATION

Income	Income of Families & Persons					Per cent	Per cent study population
	Clare	Gladwin	Miss.	Osceola	Total		
Less than $3,000	1,016	870	632	1,073	3,591	33.3	14.3
$3,000-3,999	313	295	298	446	1,352	12.5	22.4
$4,000-5,999	842	705	364	1,010	2,921	27.1	36.7
$6,000-6,999	292	364	106	276	1,038	9.6	5.6
$7,000-9,999	413	295	167	417	1,292	11.9	3.1
$10,000-14,999	128	106	64	147	445	4.1	5.6
$15,000 & over[a]	13	25	37	64	139	1.3	13.7
Total	3,017	2,660	1,668	3,433	10,778	99.8	101.4

[a]The last two categories used in the present study were combined so as to become comparable to the census categories.

Source: 1960 U.S. Census of Population, Michigan, General Social and Economic Characteristics, PC (1)-24C, U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, pp. 24-326 to 24-331.

Table 7 shows that Clare County has more lawyers, dentists, doctors, and clergy than the average of the four county area. Gladwin County has more high school teachers and clergy than the average of the four county area and Missaukee and Osceola Counties fall below the four county average in all professions except lawyers and dentists, respectively. Gladwin County has more professionals than the other three counties while Missaukee County has the least.

TABLE 7

DISTRIBUTION OF THE PROFESSIONALS WITHIN THE FOUR COUNTIES AND PROPORTIONAL DISTRIBUTION ACCORDING TO POPULATION DENSITY, 1950

County	County Total	Tot. No.[a] Prof.(als)	H.S. Tea.(s)	Prop.[b]	Law-yers	Prop.	Den-tists	Prop.	M.D. Ost.	Prop.	Clergy	Prop.
Clare	10,253	60	13	1.27	5	.49	5	.49	12	1.17	25	2.44
Gladwin	9,451	71	37	3.91	3	.32	2	.21	5	.53	24	2.54
Missaukee	7,458	29	6	.80	4	.53	1	.13	4	.54	14	1.88
Osceola	13,797	66	17	1.23	6	.43	5	.36	9	.65	29	2.10
Total	40,959	226	73	1.80[c]	18	.44	13	.30	30	.72	92	2.24

[a]Included in this column are both those interviewed and those not interviewed but who were known to be in the counties. Four of the professionals included (and interviewed) in the present study resided in in neighboring counties.

[b]Per 1,000 population.

[c]Arithmetic mean.

C. Description of Some of the Institutional Structures of the Study Area

Some of the professionals in the present study were found in practice within an institutional setting or organization either exclusively or in addition to their private practice. The lawyers and dentists of the study were primarily engaged in private practice while some doctors (including osteopaths) were performing part of their services within community hospitals. Teachers and clergymen functioned within a school or church system, although the formal organization of the pentecostal groups remains at a low level both with respect to internal structures and articulation with a denominational organization.

Fifteen high schools were found in the four county area. They were located at Clare, Harrison, and Farwell in Clare County; Beaverton and Gladwin in Gladwin County; Merrit, McBain, McBain Christian, and Lake City in Missaukee County; and Tustin, Hersey, Leroy, Marion, Evart, and Reed City in Osceola County. A high school once located at Winegars in Gladwin County has recently been dissolved.[6] Three general hospitals were located in the four county area: one at Clare, one at Gladwin, and one at Reed City.

Table 8 shows the astonishing diversity of religious bodies in the four county area. The largest single denomination in terms of membership is the Methodist Church followed by the Christian Reformed, Roman Catholic, and American Lutheran churches. The Methodist and American

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[6]Information confirmed with Dr. John F. Thaden of the Institute for Community Development and Services, Continuing Education, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan. See also John F. Thaden, Distribution of Doctors of Medicine and Osteopaths in Michigan Communities, Special Bulletin No. 370, 1951, Michigan State College, Agricultural Experiment Station, East Lansing, Michigan.

TABLE 8

NUMBER OF CHURCHES AND CHURCH MEMBERS REPORTED BY RELIGIOUS GROUP AND BY COUNTY

County / Church	Clare		Gladwin		Missaukee		Osceola		Tot.	Tot.
	Ch(s)	Mem(s)	Ch(s)	Mem(s)	Ch(s)	Mem(s)	Ch(s)	Mem(s)	Ch(s)	Mem(s)
1. Seventh Day Adventist	1	40	2	72	1	35	4	114	8	261
2. Assembly of God	1	72	1	100			1	42	3	214
3. American Baptist Convention							2	163	2	163
4. Bap. General Conf. of America							1	69	1	69
5. N. Amer. Bap. Gen. Conf.			1	124					1	124
6. Ch. of God (Anderson, Ind.)	1	68	1	16			1	28	3	112
7. Church of the Nazarene	1	14	1	38	2	65	2	78	6	195
8. Congrega. Christian (Chs.)	2	507					2	203	4	710
9. Dis.(s) of Christ (Int'l. Conv.)							4	386	4	386
10. E. U. B. Church			3	97					3	97
11. United Brethren	2	82							2	82
12. Church of the Brethren			1	273					1	273
13. Brethren in Christ			1	21					1	21

TABLE 8 (continued)

County / Church	Clare		Gladwin		Missaukee		Osceola		Tot.	Tot.
	Ch(s)	Mem(s)	Ch(s)	Mem(s)	Ch(s)	Mem(s)	Ch(s)	Mem(s)	Ch(s)	Mem(s)
14. Evan. Mission Cov. Ch. of Amer.							1	22	1	22
15. Reorg. Ch. of Jesus Christ Latter Day Saints	2	205	3	171			1	96	6	472
16. Evangelical Lutheran	1	153							1	153
17. American Lutheran Church			1	181			1	1,029	2	1,210
18. Augustana Evan. Luth. Ch.							2	224	2	224
19. Luth. Ch. (Missouri Syn.)			2	474			1	417	3	891
20. Finnish Evan. Lutheran			1	56					1	56
21. Methodist Church	2	472	8	453	7	299	12	1,132	29	2,356
22. Free Meth. of N. Amer.			3	148	2	83	2	50	7	281
23. Wesleyan Meth. Ch. of Amer.							3	85	3	85
24. Roman Catholic Church	1	407	2	840	1	123	1	352	5	1,722
25. Missionary Church Assoc.	1	20							1	20
26. Presby. Church in the U.S.A.			1	52	2	208	1	30	4	290

TABLE 8 (continued)

County Church	Clare		Gladwin		Missaukee		Osceola		Tot.	Tot.
	Ch(s)	Mem(s)	Ch(s)	Mem(s)	Ch(s)	Mem(s)	Ch(s)	Mem(s)	Ch(s)	Mem(s)
27. Protestant Episcopal Church			1	147					1	147
28. Christian Reformed Church					7	2,071			7	2,071
29. Reformed Church in America					3	355			3	355
Total	15	2,040	32	3,207	26	3,295	42	4,520	115	13,062
County Population Total, 1950		10,253		9,451		7,458		13,797		40,959
Per cent Ch. Mem. of Co. Tot.		19.8		33.9		44.1		32.7		31.9
Number of Clergy[a]	25		24		14		29		92	

[a]Number of clergy in the present study.

Source: National Council of the Churches of Christ in the U.S.A.: Churches and Church Membership in the ; U.S., Ser. A-E (Bureau of Survey Research), New York 10, New York. Year of study - '52; Release date - '57.

Lutheran bodies together account for slightly over one-half of the church membership of Osceola County while the Christian Reformed accounts for 63 per cent of the church membership of Gladwin County. Missaukee County has the largest per cent of church membership while Clare County has the least.

D. Demographic Description of the Study Population

Some inter-professional comparisons on a few selected demographic characteristics are shown in Table 9. Protestant ministers constitute the largest group of professionals in the study. Males dominate throughout the professions, but females constitute a significant segment of the teaching profession. Ninety per cent of the respondents are married and 77 per cent have one to four children.

Table 10 deals with features of residence and place of birth of the respondents. A major proportion (78 per cent) of the respondents reside in villages and towns. Dentists and lawyers have resided in their communities the longest while the tenure of the Protestant ministers is the shortest. Over one-half (54 per cent) of the professionals were born in Michigan non-metropolitan areas. All but one of the dentists were born in Michigan non-metropolitan areas. More ministers came from out-of-Michigan non-metropolitan areas than any other group. Doctors were more frequently drawn from metropolitan areas (both in and out of Michigan) while teachers more often came from non-metropolitan areas.

Table 11 shows the level of educational achievement of the professionals in the study. Professions are usually noted for their high standards of education. Dentists and the medical professionals exhibit a uniform educational attainment and lawyers nearly so also. Protestant

TABLE 9

SEX, MARITAL STATUS, AND NUMBER OF CHILDREN CHARACTERISTICS BY PROFESSION

Profession	No. in Study	Sex			Marital Status			
		Male	Female	Total	Sing.	Mar.	Other	Total
Teachers[a]	71	44	27	71	10	61		71
Lawyers	17	17		17		16	1	17
Dentists	11	11		11		11		11
Doctors[b]	27	27		27	1	25	1	27
Prot. Min(s)	76	74	2	76	2	74		76
Catho. Priests	4	4		4	4			4
Total	206	177	29	206	17	187	2	206

Profession	Number of Children										
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8+	Sing.	Total
Teachers[a]	12	17	11	13	7					11	71
Lawyers	2	2	5	5	1	1		1			17
Dentists	1	1	4	1	3	1					11
Doctors[b]	1	6	8	9	1		1				27
Prot. Min(s)	2	15	15	19	16	3	2		2	2	76
Catho. Priests										4	4
Total	18	41	43	47	28	5	3	1	2	18	206

[a]Whenever reference is made to teachers, high school teachers is connoted.

[b]Including doctors of osteopathy.

TABLE 10

RESIDENTIAL AND PLACE OF BIRTH CHARACTERISTICS BY PROFESSION

Profession	Place of Residence: Farm	Non-farm	Vil/town	NA	Length of Residence (Yrs.): -1	1-2	3-4	5-9	10-14	15-19	20-24	25+
Teachers	7	10	54		4	25	6	10	9	4	5	8
Lawyers	2		14	1				4	4	1	2	6
Dentists			11					3		3		5
Doctors		1	26			1	3	8	3	1	2	9
Prot. Min(s)	4	19	52	1	13	25	16	15	2	2		3
Cath. Priests			4		1	1			1	1		
Total	13	30	161	2	18	52	25	41	19	11	9	31

Profession	Place of Birth: Michigan Met.	Michigan N/met.	Michigan Unspec.	Out-Michigan Met.	Out-Michigan N/met.	Out-Michigan Unspec.
Teachers	9	46		2	13	1
Lawyers	3	11	1		2	
Dentists		10				1
Doctors	5	8		8	6	
Prot. Min(s)	6	35		8	25	2
Cath. Priests	2	2				
Total	25	112	1	18	46	4

TABLE 11

FORMAL EDUCATIONAL TRAINING AND PROFESSIONAL DEGREES OBTAINED BY PROFESSION

Profession	Education								
	D/n Comp. H.S.	H.S. Grad.	1-3 Yrs. College	Col. Grad.	Grad./Prof. W/o degree	Master's	D.O. D.D.S. Ph. D. M.D.	L.L.B., B.D./Cert.	Total
Teachers			2	25	26	17		1	71
Lawyers			1					16	17
Dentists							11		11
Doctors							27		27
Prot. Min(s)	6	7	10		20	4		29	76
Cath. Priests					2	1		1	4
Total	6	7	13	25	48	22	38	47	206

ministers, however, show both the most diverse and lowest educational levels. It is, of course, difficult to compare professionals on this characteristic since the quality and requirements of education and training vary by profession.

Table 12 presents information on the age and number of inter-community moves of the professionals since 1945. High school teachers are the youngest of the professionals and dentists the oldest. While length of residence was shortest for Protestant ministers, they are not the youngest. This fact, together with those in the second half of the table (on number of moves), suggests that ministers stay "on the move" during a longer period of their adult lives than any of the other professionals. The data on number of moves suggest a clear division between the clergy and teachers who have moved often and the doctors, lawyers, and dentists who have moved relatively little since 1945.

Some of the most striking observations one is confronted with in Table 13 are the following. The occupation of the father of the teachers, doctors, and ministers of the present study was often that of farm owner or operator. Over one-half of the lawyers' fathers were engaged as proprietors, managers, or officials. A significant number of the doctors' and ministers' fathers were themselves doctors or ministers.

E. Data Gathering, Coding, and Initial Processing

A total of four interviewers were used in gathering the field data. Three were male graduate students in the Department of Sociology and Anthropology at Michigan State University. The fourth was the wife of one of the aforementioned graduate students. The interviewers were competent and sensitive to the verbal and non-verbal behavior of the respondents.

TABLE 12

AGE AND NUMBER OF INTER-COMMUNITY MOVES BY PROFESSION

Profession	Age										Tot.	No. of Moves[a]						Tot.
	-25	25-29	30-34	35-39	40-44	45-49	50-54	55-59	60-64	65+		0	1	2	3	4	5	
Teachers	12	13	16	6	2	10	10		2		71	24	22	14	9	1	1	71
Lawyers		1	1	3	1	3	5			3	17	7	10					17
Dentists				2	1	2	2	1	1	2	11	10	1					11
Doctors			5	2	3	2	4	4	3	4	27	18	7		2			27
Prot. Min(s)	1	13	11	8	8	6	7	8	10	4	76	12	18	21	13	10	2	76
Cath. Priests		1		2		1					4	1	1	2				4
Total	13	28	33	23	15	24	28	13	16	13	206	72	59	39	24	11	3	206

[a]Number of inter-community moves since 1945.

TABLE 13

FATHER'S OCCUPATION BY PROFESSION

Profession	Father's Occupation										
	Pres. Prof(s)	Other Prof(s)	Prop.,Mgr. or Offic'l	Other Wht. Collar	Farm Own. or Opert'r	Skill. Lab.	Semi/s Lab.	Un/s Lab.	NLF[a] or Unclass.	Ser. Occ.	Total
Teachers	7	3	9	5	22	14	5	4	1	1	71
Lawyers	3		10	1	1	1	1				17
Dentists		2	4		4					1	11
Doctors	5	3	3	2	8	1	4			1	27
Prot. Min(s)	12	1	4	3	28	12	9	3	1	3	76
Cath. Priests			1		1		1	1			4
Total	27	9	31	11	64	28	20	8	2	6	206

[a]Not in labor force.

A copy of the schedule used in the field research is found in Appendix A. A total of 206 schedules were completed after the schedule had been pre-tested on four professionals in areas outside of the study area. Of this total (206) five were returned by mail (10 were sent out by mail) and the rest were completed in the interview situation. Five potential respondents refused to be interviewed, one was in another country, and nine were not available for other reasons at the time of the interviewing. Therefore, twenty schedules were not completed due to refusal on the part of the respondent, failure to reply by mail and inaccessibility at the time of the interviewing.[7]

Table 14 shows the number of professionals both interviewed and not interviewed (i.e., known to be residing in the four county area, yet not interviewed for reasons mentioned above) by profession and county. Three of the counties contained sixty or more professionals and one only twenty-nine. Most of the professions not interviewed were clergymen.

The data solicited on the schedule were coded by graduate students in collaboration with faculty members in the Department of Sociology and Anthropology. When conventional formats and rules for coding items were lacking, the coders collaborated with other social scientists regarding

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[7]There are also other factors which might affect the quality of one's data. It is believed that the interviewers were competent and qualified. The four county area was saturated with respect to the number of professionals eligible to be interviewed; therefore, there was no sampling problem within the counties. Refusals to the interview were very few and of those few schedules sent out by mail a large percentage were returned. Verification of the directories and other information gained indicate that very few cases were inadvertently omitted and few were omitted because of their inaccessibility at the time of the study. Partly due to the fact that the schedule had been carefully designed and pretested, nearly all the respondents answered all the items applying to them.

TABLE 14

NUMBER OF PROFESSIONALS BY PROFESSION AND COUNTY, INTERVIEWED AND NOT INTERVIEWED

County	H.S. Tea(s)			Lawyers			Dentists		
	Int.	N/Int.	Total	Int.	N/Int.	Total	Int.	N/Int.	Total
Clare	13		13	5		5	4	1	5
Gladwin	36	1	37	2	1	3	2		2
Missaukee	6		6	4		4		1	1
Osceola	16	1	17	6		6	5		5
Total	71	2	73	17	1	18	11	2	13

County	Doctors[a]			Clergy			County Total
	Int.	N/Int.	Total	Int.	N/Int.	Total	
Clare	10	2	12	22	3	25	60
Gladwin	5		5	19	5	24	71
Missaukee	4		4	14		14	29
Osceola	8	1	9	25	4	29	66
Total	27	3	30	80	12	92	226

[a]Due to an error in coding, one medical doctor was given the code number of dentist. Therefore, 28 doctors were actually interviewed in the present study and only 10 dentists.

coding decisions. After the data had been coded it was then punched on IBM cards and a preliminary summary of the data was obtained by machine process methods. The marginals of the printed sheets yielded by the machines were always checked for consistency and accuracy.

F. Empirical Definition of the Variables

Firstly, a professional was defined as a person actively engaged in one of the abovementioned established professions in any of the four counties comprising the study area at the time of the study. Prior to the field work an attempt was made to compile a list of names of each of the professions from such sources as professional association directories. Such directories yielded fairly comprehensive coverage for osteopaths, medical doctors, dentists, and lawyers, but a directory of clergymen in the four counties did not exist. It was therefore necessary that clergymen be sought out after the interviewers arrived in the communities. The lists of other professionals compiled prior to interviewing were cross-checked with community inhabitants and sources. In some cases the lists contained names of professionals who were not to be found in the community--in other cases professionals were found practicing in the community who were not on the lists. Wherever possible, reasons for the additions or omissions were secured.

The types of activities to be included in the definition of social participation have already been mentioned in Chapter II. With regard to formal social participation, it was noted that one of the weaknesses inherent in the data derived from the fact that although professionals are in a sense public servants, some, perhaps both by virtue of tradition and training, are found in certain public roles more often

than others. For example, since political office entails considerable legal activities, it has been sought and gained by lawyers in a disproportionate measure. Sanitation and health positions, often a matter of concern to local and higher governmental agencies, are often staffed by doctors and dentists who are either appointed to the positions, or elected. On the other hand, beliefs about the separation of church and state prevent and discourage clergymen from gravitating to these offices, and teachers, because of conduct codes to which they are subject, are subtly, if not overtly, discouraged from political activity. In short, there seems to be more governmental positions at all levels open to doctors, dentists, and lawyers than to teachers and clergymen. Perhaps the best way to overcome this weakness in the data is to leave out this item from the analysis and the SP index, since Table 15 indicates that teachers and clergymen in our study also exhibit low political activity.

TABLE 15

FREQUENCY OF GOVERNMENTAL OFFICE HOLDING BY PROFESSION

No. of Elective or Appointive Offices Ever Held / Profession	None	One	Two	Three	Four	Five	Total	Ave. No. of Off(s)
H. S. Teachers	58	10	1	21			71	.25
Lawyers		4	3	5	3	2	17	2.76
Dentists	7	2	1	1			11	.64
Doctors	16	8	3				27	.52
Clergymen	74	3	2	1			80	.13
Total	155	27	10	28	3	2	206	.86

In the area of semi-formal participation we again find that many clergymen normally do not participate in some of the activities on which responses were solicited in the study. Some of these might include card games, dances, and movies. Teachers, although perhaps less constrained out of religio-ideological ideals, often refrain from participation in some of the same activities in which clergymen abstain. Perhaps one of the reasons for the inactivity in these areas for both professions is the type of clientele to whom they are responsible or for whom they are supposedly "setting an example." Both are more involved with the youth of the community. It is perhaps not necessary to delete these areas from the analysis and the SP index because, since account shall be taken of both the number of such activities and the frequency of participation in each, it is expected that if those individuals prone to engage in this type of activity (semi-formal) feel constrained from some, they can compensate by greater participation in others.

Another weakness in the data comprising the SP index was found in the informal visiting patterns. It is quite commonly expected of clergymen that they visit as many different families within their parish as possible.[8] It is well known, however, that clergymen develop "special" friends much like anyone else does and that they visit more frequently with them in their homes. Although lawyers, doctors, and dentists visit considerably with other families in their communities, it would be quite inappropriate for them to visit many of their clients in their homes. Furthermore, they are not concerned for the harmony, continuation, and sanctity of the family (as it plays a major role in the Judeo-Christian

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[8]Some clergy responded that they visit "mainly in a professional capacity."

tradition) in the same way as clergymen are. Even high school teachers, who are aware of the effects which the home situation can make on the students' performance, are not expected to visit these homes of clients as intensely as are clergymen. Since this type of visiting appears to be prescribed for clergymen, yet open for the other professionals, it was felt that it is sufficient to take cognizance of this matter and use the data as reported by the professionals in the study, rather than omit these items from the analysis. Whether optional or prescribed it is possible that professionals may engage in it to about the same extent. Another way in which the professional would be disadvantaged with regard to family visiting is, of course, if he were unmarried. Since only approximately 8 per cent of all professionals in the study are unmarried, it is felt that this source of bias is negligible.

Formal SP was defined as membership, attendance, and office holding or committee membership within professional organizations and local voluntary community organizations, such as Chamber of Commerce, Kiwanis, Elks, literary, and church groups, etc. Also included in formal SP was: (1) Office-holding or committee membership in the meta-local counterparts (such as state and national levels) to any of the local voluntary community organizations; (2) participation in community-wide projects, such as school bond drives, attempts to attract industry, fund raising for community facilities, etc.; and (3) formal addresses (outside of the classroom situation) before high school age groups.

Attendance and frequency of attendance at various events transpiring in the community, such as athletic events, programs (plays, musicals, commemorative, etc.), supper-dinners, card games, movies,

dances, fairs, and picnics define semi-formal SP. Informal types of SP were defined as frequency of visiting in homes (familial visiting) and other gathering places.

It is not herein claimed that all the areas of activity which might fall within the conception of SP are included in the present research. In fact, it appears that informal SP particularly might have been construed more broadly so as to include frequency of participation within kin circles and neighborhood or other friendship groups not reported in family visiting. It is believed, however, that for communities of the type in which the study was conducted, family visiting includes a large majority of this type of participation.

Operationalization of the remaining variables in the study in most cases follow conventional methods. A few may require clarification, however. The total number of children in the family, whether at home or away, was solicited and the number presently in various school age grades, college, employment, or other. In addition to the highest number of years of school the respondent completed, he was given the opportunity to report any special education or training beyond the grade or high school level and the type of degree, certification, or license received, if any.

The operationalization of income level failed to yield uniform results. Eighty-seven per cent of the teachers, 24 per cent of the lawyers, 27 per cent of the dentists, 19 per cent of the doctors and osteopaths, and 15 per cent of the clergymen reported their income in terms of the net income rather than gross income. It was felt that the income of those teachers reporting in terms of net income should be

adjusted slightly.[9]

From an examination of responses to the open-ended question, "How did you happen to locate here?", the coders inductively arrived at a dichotomy of occupational and non-occupational reasons for location and a third category which was a combination of the two. Coding categories to the question of what aspects of the community entered into the respondent's decisions to locate therein were arrived at similarly, but allowed for a little more specification of attractions. It was thought that some questions concerning the contact of professionals with the high school age youth of the community should be included in the interview schedule. The perceived influence of professionals' advice (as perceived by the professionals themselves) to these youth within certain areas was deemed especially appropriate. These areas include the frequency of advice given in the following areas: advised the youth to go to college, advised the youth not to go to college, advised the youth to leave the community (for reasons other than to go to college), advised the youth not to leave the community, advised the youth to enter your occupation, advised the youth not to enter your occupation. Responses to the question of what kind (size) of community the respondent would prefer to live in were solicited on a set of pre-categorized intervals used in the U. S. Census.

A measure of community satisfaction was solicited in terms of

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[9]Since the incomes reported by teachers in the study was quite close to what one would expect for teachers in the area, it may be the case that the income not reported in the net income figures represents only that which is withheld from one's monthly salary check, such as federal income tax withholding, social security, and perhaps insurance or retirement premiums.

respondents' replies to a 21-item community satisfaction inventory.[10] To insure unidimensionality of the items, the responses were subjected to a Guttman scalogram analysis which will be discussed below.

The occupation of the respondents' father was defined as his (the fathers') present occupation, or, if retired or deceased, his major occupation during his lifetime. The prestige level of an occupation and the assignment of various occupations to a level followed broadly, the procedures and specifications in the Dictionary of Occupational Titles.[11] Occupational history was defined as positions which the respondent had held since 1945. The geographical location and size of the community in which each position was held were also solicited. One can therefore determine when the change in position was accompanied by an inter-community move.

Finally, the professions were dichotomized into those which we shall refer to as the "social helping" (clergymen and teachers) and the "technical helping" (doctors, dentists, and lawyers). The differences between these two types of professions have already been discussed in Chapter II.

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[10]Vernon Davies, "Development of a Scale to Rate Attitude of Community Satisfaction," Rural Sociology, 10:3 (September, 1945), pp. 246-255.

[11]Some of the foundation work for this classification may be found in Alba E. Edwards, Comparative Occupational Statistics for the United States, 16th Census, 1940 (Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1943), and Otis Dudley Duncan, "A Socio Economic Index for All Occupations," in Albert J. Reiss, Jr., Occupations and Social Status, pp. 109-138. Considerable effort has been made in the development of occupational prestige scales. One of the best discussions summarizing the quality of these efforts is found in Theodore Caplow, The Sociology of Work, pp. 30-58.

G. Scoring Social Participation

The items which together constitute the SP index of the present research have already been discussed. Table 16 shows the eight areas of activity comprising the index and the scoring procedures for each item. Although the scores assigned represent rather arbitrary weights, some precedence for part of the present scoring system has been established by prior research.[12]

All the respondents in the present study were scored on each SP item resulting in three sub-scores (one each for formal, semi-formal, and informal activities) and one grand SP total score.

One method of developing a more rigorous index (scale) of SP is to insure that the items chosen discriminate between respondents. According to Hay, "Items which have the greatest discriminating power contribute most to the dispersion of the total scores; therefore, they enhance the reliability of the scale in showing differences between low and high participants in group activities." If the items discriminate well one should find a significant statistical difference between mean scores on each set of corresponding items in the extreme quartile after the distribution of grand SP total scores for all respondents are arrayed from highest to lowest and divided into approximately equal quartiles. Such an operation was carried out with respect to the present SP data. To test for the significance of this difference a critical ratio test was

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[12]Donald G. Hay, "A Scale for the Measurement of Social Participation of Rural Households," Rural Sociology, 13:3 (September, 1948), pp. 285-294; Chapin, op. cit.; J. Gilbert Hardee, "Social Structure and Participation in an Australian Rural Community," Rural Sociology, 26:3 (September, 1961), pp. 240-251.

TABLE 16

SP ITEMS AND SCORING PROCEDURES

Item	Interview Schedule Location	Score
1. Membership in professional Org.	Sec. C 1,2	1 point/org.
Regular attendance	Sec. C 1,2	2 points/org.
Offices and/or Committee Holding	Sec. C 1,2	5 points/office, comm.
2. Membership in Local Org.	Sec. C 3	1 point/org.
Attendance	Sec. C 3	2 points/interval value[a]
Offices and/or Committees Ever Held	Sec. C 3	5 points/office, comm.
3. Membership in Meta-local Org.	Sec. C 4,5	5 points/off., comm. ever held
4. Participation in Community-wide projects	Sec. C 6	5 points/affirmative response[b]
5. Addresses to H. S. Age Youth	Sec. B 5A	2 points/interval value[b]
6. Participation in Community Events	Sec. C 25	1 point/interval value for each event[c]
7. Community Contacts at Visiting Places	Sec. C 21	4 points affirmative response
8. Number of Different Families visited	Sec. C 24	2 points/interval value[d]

[a]Intervals	Interval Values
00-09	- 1
10-19	- 2
20-29	- 3
30-39	- 4
40-49	- 5
50-59	- 6
60-69	- 7
70-79	- 8
80-89	- 9
90-100	- 10

[b]Intervals	Interval Values
Less than 1 yr.	- 1
One yr.	- 2
2-4 yrs.	- 3
5 yrs. - more	- 4

[c]Intervals	Interval Values
Less than 1 yrs.	- 1
1 yr.	
2-5 yrs.	- 2
6-11 yrs.	
1 mo.	- 3
2 mo.	
3 mo.	- 4
1 week	

TABLE 16 (continued)

[d]Intervals	Interval Values	
0	- 0	
1	- 1	Those respondents who reported that they
2	- 2	visit in a "professional capacity only"
3-5	- 4	were given the modal interval value, 8
6-10	- 8	(6-10 different families visited in the
11-15	- 13	last month).

performed for each set of items.[13] Table 17 shows the mean score on each item in the two extreme quartiles, the difference between quartile mean scores and the significance of that difference. Using the "at or beyond the .05 probability value" for the rejection of the null hypotheses that the mean difference of x magnitude could have occurred when the means come from the same population or from different populations having identical means, we find that only one item (those semi-formal activities solicited under the heading "other" in the interview schedule) fails to meet or exceed the level of rejection. We are, therefore, fairly confident that the items constituting the SP index in the present research discriminate adequately.

Table 18 compares the five professions with respect to their average activity in the areas constituting the SP components. It will be noted that doctors rate highest in professional associational

[13] Critical Ratio = D/σD where D is the difference between sample means and σ_D is the standard error of that difference. A similar test which might have been used is the t test. The critical ratio test seemed to be appropriate here since we are dealing with a "saturated" finite universe and the number of cases involved exceeds 30 which represents an arbitrary number below which sample sizes are sometimes said to be small. For brief discussions of the critical ratio test and its relationship to the t test see: Quinn McNemar, Psychological Statistics, pp. 109, 110 (John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1949), and Hagood, op. cit., pp. 450-452.

TABLE 17

CALCULATION OF DISCRIMINATIVE VALUE OF SOCIAL PARTICIPATION ITEMS BY COMPARISON OF MEAN SCORE OF LOW AND HIGH QUARTILES OF DISTRIBUTION OF THE PROFESSIONALS

Social Participation Item	Mean Score of Low Quartile	Items High Quartile	Difference Between Quartile Mean Scores	Critical Ratio of Differences Between Quartile Mean Scores	Significance Level
Professional Organizations	3.79	15.41	11.62	7.90	P < .05
Local Community Organizations	7.92	27.30	19.38	10.94	P < .05
Meta-Local Organizations	.09	2.54	2.45	3.46	P < .05
Community Project	.66	4.06	3.40	9.49	P < .05
Addresses to H.S. Age Youth	2.00	4.19	2.19	3.91	P < .05
Community Events					
Athletic	1.21	2.60	1.39	4.82	P < .05
Card games	.49	1.58	1.09	3.78	P < .05
Dances	.26	1.66	1.40	6.76	P < .05
Movies	.51	1.51	1.00	4.69	P < .05
Musicals	.75	1.54	.79	4.15	P < .05
Plays	.70	1.17	.47	2.61	P < .05
Fairs	.57	.98	.41	2.81	P < .05
Picnics	1.11	1.98	.87	4.28	P < .05
Supper-dinners	1.51	2.58	1.07	5.45	P < .05
Parties	1.19	2.98	1.79	7.81	P < .05
Other[a]	.04	.11	.07	1.09	P > .05
"Koffee Klatch" Visiting	1.36	2.26	.90	2.36	P < .05
Family Visiting	4.15	9.40	5.25	5.62	P < .05

[a]This critical value had no discriminatory power but since it was in the expected direction, the item was retained in the total score.

TABLE 18

SOCIAL PARTICIPATION ITEMS BY PROFESSION

Profession	Professional Associations[a]			Local Associations			Meta-Local Assn's.	Community Projects	Addresses to HS Youth	Community Events	Visiting Places	Family Visiting
	Mem.	Attend.	Off.	Mem.	Attend.	Off.						
Teachers	2.32	3.54	1.35	2.75	8.62	5.55	1.20	2.70	1.54	33.60	1.56	3.10
Lawyers	2.41	3.64	1.20	4.29	10.59	9.70	2.05	3.80	1.88	10.00	2.36	3.47
Dentists	2.36	3.82	1.45	2.27	10.00	5.90	1.35	2.75	.18	5.33	.72	3.55
Doctors	3.48	5.92	2.20	3.04	9.93	7.20	1.30	3.35	.81	9.53	1.48	2.33
Clergy	1.00	1.96	1.75	.94	9.33	1.75	0.00	1.25	1.78	6.30	1.64	3.76

[a]Arithmetic means for each professional group is multiplied by the points given this activity according to the scoring system devised in Table 16.

memberships, attendance, and office or committee holding. Locally, lawyers rate highest in local associational memberships, attendance, and office or committee holding together with meta-local associational office holding, community projects, and addresses to High School age youth. Teachers exceeded all other professionals in attendance at community events. Lawyers exhibited the greatest informal visiting in public places while clergymen excelled in family visiting activity.

H. Operationalizing Community Satisfaction

There are several reasons that would tend to support the notion that community satisfaction (CS) can be determined and measured. Firstly, most people hold certain expectations of the type of area in which they reside. Certain values accrue which ideologically support what it is the community is thought to offer. Correspondingly, people speak of the advantages of living in small or large communities, industrial or non-industrial. Secondly, rural areas (in terms of trade territories) are usually small enough so as to become objects of direct personal experience to its residents. In addition, the community has a definite locus in time and space enabling the individual of average intelligence to become knowledgeable of a number of its features and identify with it as a unit. Lastly, because individuals usually evaluate their experiences, we might expect that community members will respond to a selected set of opinion statements regarding common aspects of the community in which they reside. When taken collectively, these responses may be viewed as an estimate of an individual's CS.

Such a set of opinion statements was compiled by Vernon Davies[14] in an attempt to develop a scale to rate attitude of CS. Items for the scale were selected both on the basis of conformity to cultural patterns (i.e., Euro-Christian values of progressiveness, industriousness, etc.) and on the basis of exclusiveness (judges agreed on those items which were redundant). Each item was therefore intended to tap a separate area of the CS attitudinal configuration of the respondents.

In order to obtain some measure of the respondent's CS in the present study, a set of 21 statements (called items) about various aspects of the community were read to the respondent.[15] The inventory used was an abridged and revised form of the Vernon Davies instrument mentioned above. Alterations of the instrument were made so as to make the items more applicable to the respondents in the present study. After the reading of each item, the respondent was asked to indicate how he felt about it. The alternative foils or categories he was offered in answer to the item were the following: strongly agree, agree, undecided, disagree, strongly disagree. In the coding of the completed interview schedules a score was assigned (following the Likert technique of scoring) to the responses to each item. An item such as "B" on the inventory was considered a positively-worded item, while one such as "C" was considered to be negatively-worded. The following values were assigned to the categories of the positively-worded items: strongly agree - 0,

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[14] Vernon Davies, op. cit.

[15] Two-hundred five such inventories were completed in the present study. The last two items on the inventory, T. and U., were not used in the procedures described below since they were not applicable for all respondents. The inventory used will be found on the last two pages of the schedule in Appendix A.

agree - 1, undecided - 2, disagree - 3, strongly disagree - 4. Negatively worded items were scored inversely. Therefore, one received a 0 for a "strong agreement" response to a positively-worded item, and, therefore, the higher the respondent's score (or scale type after the scalogram analysis) on the CS inventory, the lower or less his CS. Approximately 12 items of 3,895 (19 items times 205 respondents) were responded to by "no answer." Since this number (12) is so negligible when compared to the total responses solicited, it was decided to code these 12 responses as undecided (2).

To test whether the 19 items were each part of a scaleable universe, they were subjected to a Guttman scalogram analysis.[16] Some of the advanced steps in this procedure are found in Appendix B. The Guttman scale is built upon former scales, such as the Thurstone, Likert, and Bogardus. One does not assume that between the response points or categories of each item there exists equal intervals.

The concept of scaleability implies an attempt to arrange the order of responses of individuals in such a way that the items will exhibit a level of difficulty to a greater or lesser extent. The success of this arrangement is found in the coefficient of reproducibility (sometimes referred to simply as "rep" or "c of r") of the finished scale. The more closely the coefficient of reproducibility approximates 100, the more accurately can one, given the order of arrangement and the marginal totals for any individual or item, predict in retrospect the corresponding responses of the individual or item.

After inspection of the response patterns of each item, it was decided to eliminate nine items because of an excessive number of "errors"

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[16] See Samuel Stouffer, et al., Measurement and Prediction.

in them. Two more were eliminated because their "breaking points" (the best cut-off point above and below which the fewest number of "unfavorable" responses appear) duplicated the breaking points of two other items and, thus, they would have contributed nothing to the over-all scale in terms of distinguishing respondents from one another.

Two of the primary advantages of a set of scaled items is: (1) the fact that one is guaranteed a certain unidimensionality of the items constituting the scale (assuming that the items are initially judiciously selected and the "rep" value sufficiently high), and (2) the fact that the equivalence of categories is determined by the response patterns of the respondents themselves. It is this latter point which perhaps deserves emphasis for it is sometimes construed from the apparent "illicit manipulation" of responses by the researcher, that he can get nearly anything out of the operations that he wishes. It should be noted that the "goodness" of a scale is a function of the responses of the subjects, the sample, and the adherence to certain methodological rules of test construction. Similarly, the generalizability of a scale (or the transference of it from one population to another) can be justified only when we have good reason to believe that the factors affecting the responses are similar in the two populations.

One of the basic difficulties in scalogram analysis is the assumption of rational consistency of verbal expressions of attitudes and inferences to those attitudes from those verbal expressions. That is, it may be the case with human behavior and cognitive orientations that individuals either do not recognize inconsistency in their attitudes or, even if consciously recognized, they (inconsistent attitude sets) cause little or no malaise to the individual or generate energy to bring

them into consonance. Furthermore, it may be the case that what lies "behind" an "agree" response of two people to the same item is a quite dissimilar attitudinal complex. Failure to take the latter point into consideration may commit us to the logical fallacy known as "the fallacy of asserting the consequent" where, from a given material conditional statement form (containing an antecedent and a consequent member), and the consequent of that form, we deduce the antecedent.[17]

The "rep" value in the Guttman scale resulting from the "most scaleable items" was .88.[18] This falls 1.12 points below a very arbitrary .90 acceptance level. This measurement of reproducibility is a measure of the success attained when reproductions are made on the hypothesis of perfect scaleability. A more realistic and accurate measure (the coefficient of scaleability) is proposed by Menzel.[19] Its rationale derives from the fact that regardless of scaleability, there is always a minimum number of successful reproductions for any individual or item. That is, if we take a dichotomous item to which 90 per cent of the respondents have agreed and 10 per cent have disagreed, the maximum reproduction error cannot exceed

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[17]John C. Cooley, A Primer of Formal Logic, p. 8.

[18]An interesting methodological point should be noted at this point. The present researcher began his scalogram analysis by selecting a random sample of 100 of the completed inventories from the 206 total. A check with certain outside criteria led him to believe that the sample was very representative. Yet the "rep" value of the scale resulting from the sample was higher (.903) than that of the residual 105 (.856). The reasons for this may be twofold: (1) that slight sampling variations result in gross scale variations and/or (2) modeling the scale on the randomly sampled inventories imposed some disadvantage on the residual when scale types of the latter were interpreted in terms of "cutting points" in the former. It might be noted that five of these scaleable items were the same items found most scaleable by Schulze, op. cit., with high school seniors in these same counties.

[19]Herbert Menzel, "A New Coefficient for Scalogram Analysis," Pub. Op. Qr., Vol. 17, pp. 268-280.

simply predicting every person to be in the largest (modal) category we will be correct 90 per cent of the time. The coefficient of scaleability measures "only that portion of the reproduction which could not have been obtained without that ordering (of categories and individuals) . . . (and at the same time) makes it impossible spuriously to attribute high scaleability to a universe on the basis of a sample containing many extreme items or many extreme individuals."[20] In effect, then, the coefficient of scaleability gives us a measure of the improvement in reproducibility which results from arranging categories and individuals and yet avoids some of the disadvantages in the Guttman "rep." The coefficient of scaleability for the items used in the present scale was .61, a value which lies within a tentative level of acceptance which is somewhere between .60 and .65.[21]

I. Hypotheses

The statements to follow hypothesize certain expected relationships involving the variables. In consonance with the problem of the study SP will be used as the pivotal variable in each of the hypotheses.

Since it has been suggested that demands on the allocation of one's time and the style of life one exhibits often vary with situational, social structural, and social stratificational characteristics, the following set of hypotheses are advanced:

1. SP varies with residence. Specifically the total SP scores of respondents residing in places of less than 1,000 population will be less than respondents residing in places of 1,000 or more.

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[20] Ibid., p. 277.

[21] Ibid., p. 279.

2. SP is directly related to age up to approximately 45-49 years of age and inversely related thereafter. That is, total SP scores will gradually rise with age until the 45-49 years of age bracket is reached and decline as age continues to rise beyond that point.

3. SP varies with sex. Specifically, males will have significantly higher total SP scores than females.

4. SP varies with marital status. Specifically, married persons will have significantly higher total SP scores than unmarried persons.

5. SP is directly related to family size up through approximately three children and inversely related thereafter. That is, the greater the total SP score the larger the family size up through three children. Beyond that, total SP scores will decline with larger family size.

6. SP is directly related to level of educational achievement. Specifically, as level of educational achievement rises total SP scores will rise also.

7. SP is directly related to income. Specifically, individuals having high income will have higher total SP scores than individuals having low income.

8. SP varies with type of birth place of the respondent. Specifically those respondents born in non-metropolitan areas will have higher SP scores than those born in metropolitan areas.

9. SP does not vary with length of residence. Specifically those respondents having resided in their communities a long period of time will not differ in SP from those residing short periods of time.

Certain hypotheses seek to investigate the relationships between SP and certain attitudinal and subjective perceptions of the respondents. The following set of hypotheses pertain to these characteristics.

1. SP varies with the type of reasons which influenced the respondent's decision to locate within the community. Specifically, professionals who locate in their communities for non-occupational reasons will have higher total SP scores than those locating for occupational reasons.

2. SP is directly related to the frequency with which the respondent perceives his advice to high school age youth as being influential in their decisions regarding career and residence opportunities in the future. Specifically, professionals who perceive their advice as being influential

in a majority of cases will have higher total SP scores than those who do not perceive their advice as influential or have not advised such youth.

3. SP is inversely related to the size of the community in which the professional would prefer to live. Specifically, professionals who prefer a residential community of less than 2,500 population will have higher total SP scores than those preferring a community of more than 2,500.

4. SP is directly related to CS. Specifically, the lower the CS scale type the higher will be the total SP score of the respondents.[22]

Certain hypotheses pertain to the relationship of SP to certain characteristics in part the result of the occupation and the social structure thereof.

1. SP is directly related to the prestige level of father's occupation. That is, the higher the prestige level of the father's occupation, the higher will be the respondent's total SP score.

2. SP is inversely related to the number of inter-community moves made since 1945. Specifically, the greater the number of moves the respondent has made, the lower the total SP score.

Because the social helping professions appear to differ from the technical helping professions in the study with respect to certain social organizational characteristics, such as type of work commitment, clientele, and organizational enterprise setting, it may be hypothesized that:

1. SP of the clerical and teaching professions will differ from that of the legal and medical professions. Specifically, the former will have higher total SP scores than the latter.

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[22]The reason for the awkward phraseology of this hypothesis is that the scoring procedures to the CS items resulted in the fact that a higher score meant more affirmative responses to negative items and more non-affirmative responses to positive items.

CHAPTER IV

TEST OF HYPOTHESES AND ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

A. Introduction

In order to enable the researcher to more easily analyze the data it was necessary to employ an amenable number of categories in which values of respective variables could be preserved. Although the number and "width" of such categories is somewhat arbitrary (some writers say "no fewer than 10 and no more than 20") desired precision of the predictions and initial precision of scoring or observing the different units of the variables should guide the categorization procedures. The categories constructed should also preserve the basic inflections or contours of the distribution of variable values and result in few if any empty categories after all observed or measured values of the variable are recorded in the set of categories. Since the association of types of SP to other factors is of primary concern to the present research, the categories used to code values of grand total SP (the combined formal, semi-formal, and informal SP totals) were compared with the result obtained by the "interval-finding formula" suggested by Mills.[1] Computation of the interval value, according to this formula, yielded a suggested interval value of 15.331.

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[1] $i = \frac{\text{range}}{1 + 3.222 \text{ Log } N}$. See Frederick Cecil Mills, Introduction to Statistics, p. 46.

The interval "spread" used in the categorization was 15. Figures 1 and 2 give a picture of the number of cases in each coding category on all four types of SP and the approximate median of each distribution. Further computation on the basis of the median revealed that formal SP contributes 57 per cent of the weight to the grand total SP score while semi-formal and informal SP contribute only approximately 27 and 16 per cent, respectively.[2]

After all variable values were coded the information was punched on IBM cards and cross-tabulations were made of 66 selected variables on the 101-statistical machine.[3] The cross-tabulation tables printed by this machine showed the column by column frequencies for each interval value of each of the four types of SP (grand total, formal, semi-formal, and informal) with another variable. These tables could then be collapsed into a hi-lo dichotomization on SP and a similar dichotomization on the other variables. The dichotomization resulted in an equal or nearly equal number of intervals on each side of the "breaking point" with respect to types of SP. Since the significance of difference obtained in a contingency table could possibly result from the way in which the dichotomization is made, several test cases were run in which a slightly different breaking point for the dichotomization was used in an effort to determine the difference which would result to the chi-square value. In all cases the effects were not appreciable.

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[2] $\frac{\text{md. of each SP sub-type}}{\text{md. of grand total SP}}$

[3] All variables included in the above hypotheses were so processed and, in addition, certain others for exploration.

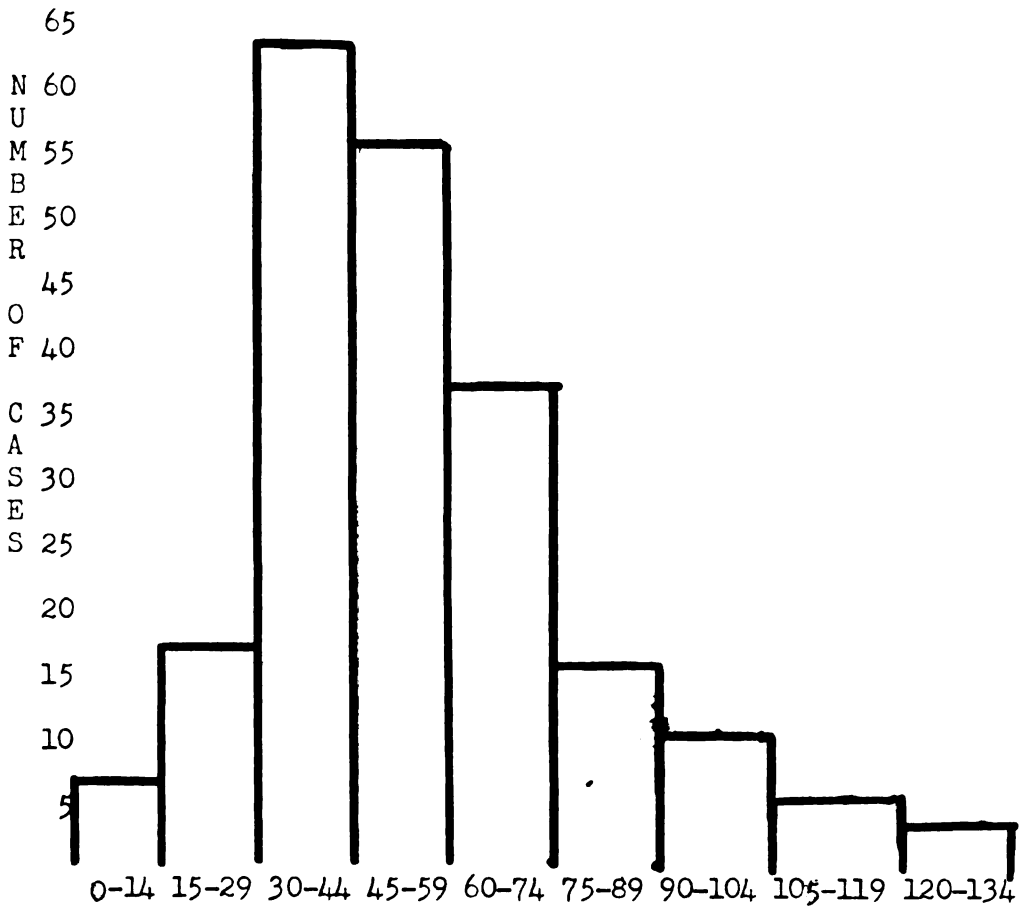

Figure 1. SP All Types[a]

[a]Md. = Approximately 49

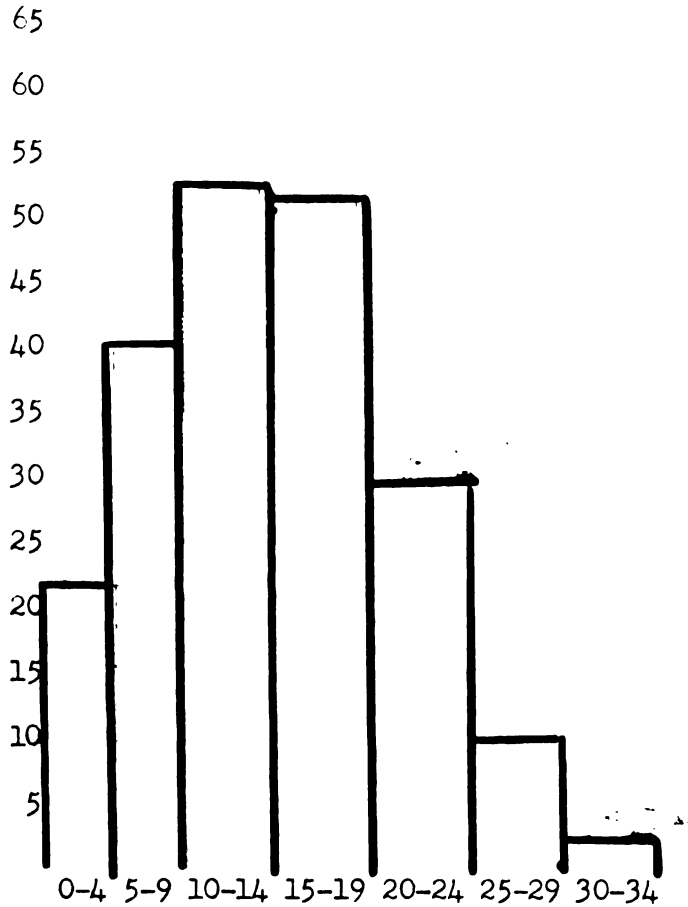

Figure 2. Semi-formal[a]

[a]Md. = Approximately 13

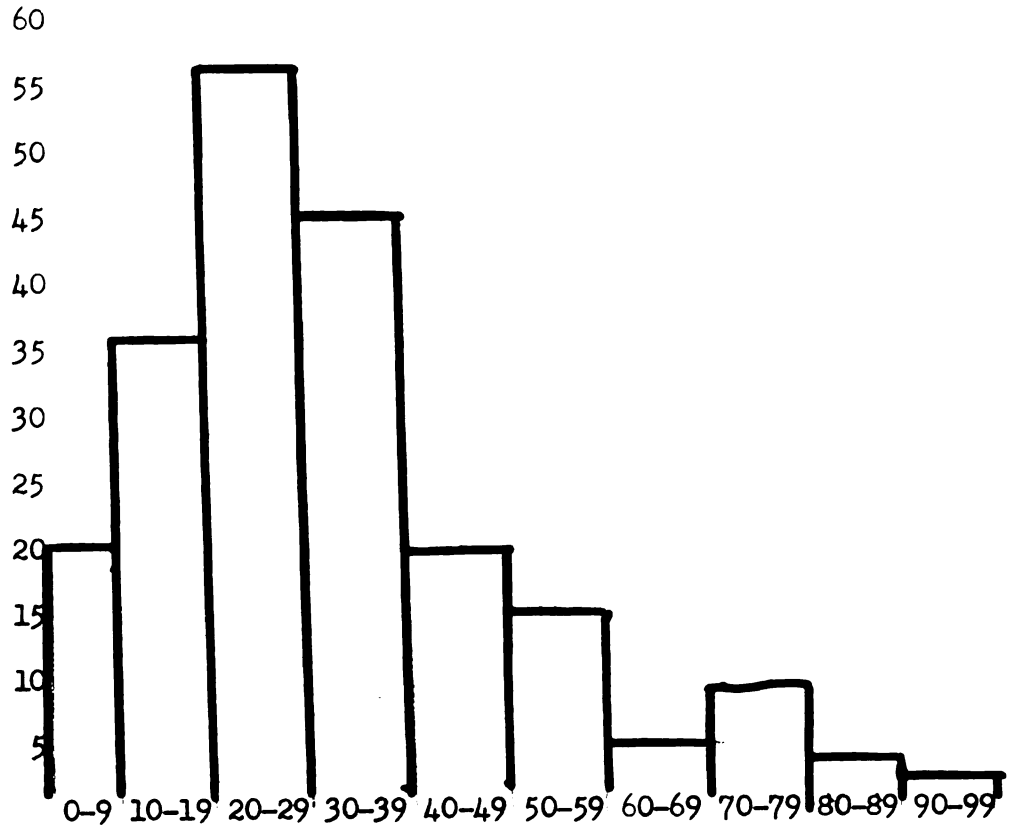

Figure 3. Formal SP[a]

[a]MD.= Approximately 28

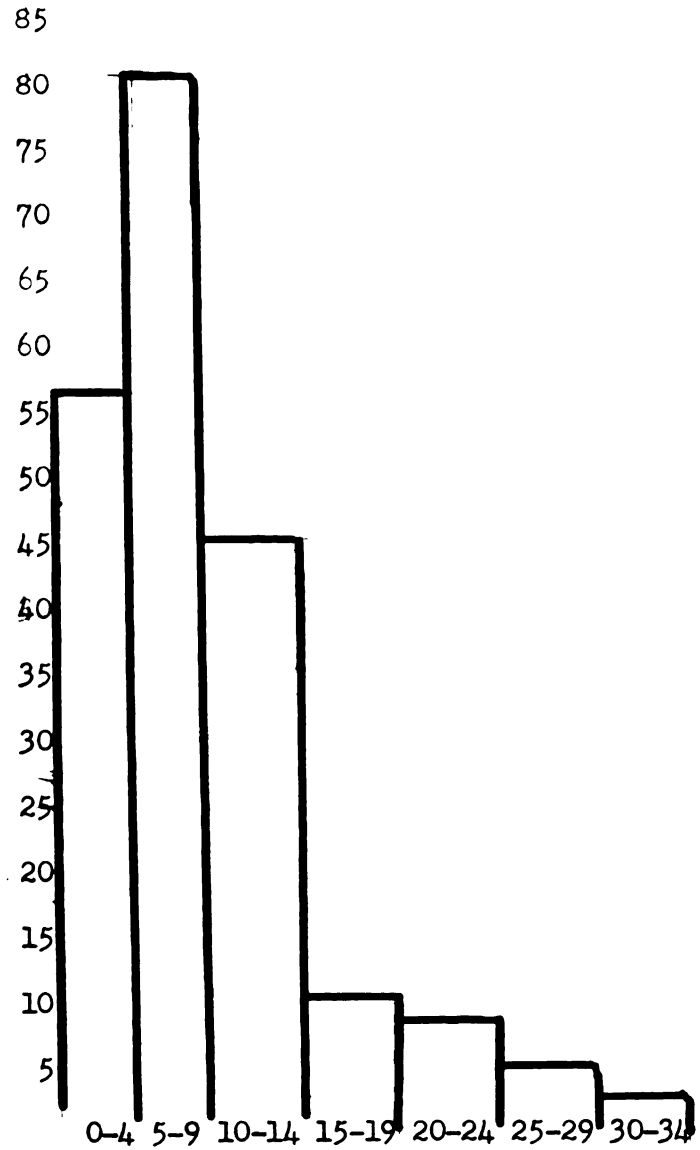

Figure 4. Informal SP[a]

[a]Md. = Approximately 7.5

B. Statistical Considerations

It will be noted that the above hypotheses are succeeded by a statement of the expected direction of the association. In some cases the predicted direction was based upon some theoretical formulation which "rationalize" or lend plausibility to this directionality. In other cases no such support for the predicted direction can be claimed. It is therefore desirable to test the null hypothesis of no association in all cases. When testing in this fashion, we cannot take advantage of correct aforehand predictions of directionality by halving the significance level obtained for the chi square value.[4] That is, if the .05 level for rejection (alpha) of the null hypothesis is chosen (as is the case in this research), and if the table of probabilities for the chi square distribution is entered at the .05 level and if our value of chi square is equal to or greater than the appropriate table value, then we can halve the rejection level if we have aforehand correctly predicted the direction of the association. If, however, the aforehand predicted direction is incorrect, nothing further can be said about the significance of the association since one cannot "reverse his field" and proceed to test at the other end (tail) of the distribution. All the chi square tests in this research are tests against the null hypothesis of no difference. The direction of association (although predicted aforehand) will not be part of the test, but rather the direction will be determined in a rough observational way from an inspection of the chi-square contingency table.

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[4]Hubert M. Blalock, Jr., Social Statistics, p. 218.

Two other topics should be briefly discussed before the findings are presented. The first pertains to the appropriateness of inferential statistics and the other to a consideration of the type of statistical inference to be used in this research.

The question may be raised as to the meaning of standard errors (the standard deviation of the sampling distribution of a summarizing measure) and appropriateness of statistical tests of hypotheses in research in which all the cases or units in some finite universe (we may refer to this universe as a "saturated sample") have been measured or enumerated. This question is pertinent to the present research since all of the "established" professionals in the selected four county study area, with the exception of a few refusals, were interviewed and reported on in the present study.

A consideration of this question demands, of course, that one review the logic and intent of statistical inference in general. Such a discussion would, however, carry the present statement far afield. It would, of course, include the nature of different research designs and the way in which certain variables are controlled within these designs, the nature of random sampling, and probability.[5]

Although few statistical texts discuss the methodological problems connected with the use of a "saturated sample" and complete consensus is lacking on the part of those addressing themselves to the issue, it

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[5]See for example Hannan C. Selvin, "A Critique of Tests of Significance in Survey Research," American Sociological Review, 22:5 (October, 1957), pp. 519-527; Leslie Kish, "Some Statistical Problems in Research Design," American Sociological Review, 24:3 (June, 1959), pp. 328-338; Santo F. Camilleri, "Theory, Probability, and Induction in Social Research," American Sociological Review, 27:2 (April, 1962), pp. 170-178.

appears that there is a general feasibility for the employment of inferential statistics in this type of sample. The employment of such techniques may be justified chiefly on the basis of the "universe of possibilities." That is, we may regard our research of professionals as one observation at one point in time or as a study purporting to apply to similar professionals in other situations or counties similar to those of the present study.[6] By regarding this study in either manner, we are implicitly positing the existence of some "super or hypothetical universe."[7] One is, therefore, led to say that, "If the conditions or factors affecting the responses to the interview items in the present study were repeated, similar results would obtain." Such a view draws for its underpinning upon the fact that human behavior exhibits certain general regularities. The "saturated sample" must therefore represent the hypothetical universe if inferential techniques are to be used and if reliable results are to be attained. It is therefore important that conditions prevailing in the study area be noted together with the atypical conditions which might have greatly influenced the findings of the study and limit the generalizability of these findings.

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[6]The generalizability of the findings are in great part also dependent upon the nature of the hypotheses tested and the extent to which a wide range of the phenomena researched has been observed (e.g., John W. Whiting, "The Cross-Cultural Method," Handbook of Social Psychology, Vol. I, pp. 523-525) shows how failure to observe the relationship between age of weaning and neuroticism on a wide age spectrum in several different societies has resulted in inadequate and sometimes erroneous generalization.

[7]Margaret Jarman Hagood, Statistics for Sociologists (New York: Henry Holt and Co.), pp. 423-433. Also see Blalock, op. cit., pp. 269-271, and E. F. Lindquist, Design and Analysis of Experiments in Psychology and Education, pp. 73-76.

Since several writers find sufficient bases for the appropriateness of statistical tests of inference given the present sampling conditions, the next question asks which type of statistical tests should be employed. Two considerations are primary in answering this question: (1) Type of measurement scale used, and (2) assumptions of the statistical test.

Most parametric statistical tests require measurement at or beyond the interval level (a known ratio of any two intervals).[8] The assumptions of the model upon which this type of statistical inference is based also entails equinormality which is related to the measurement requiement. Equinormality implies that the variables being measured are normally distributed and that underlying them are continua (which implicates the homogeneity of variance assumption). Non-parametric statistical tests, on the other hand, require a relatively lower level of measurement and make relatively weaker assumptions about the distribution of the variables in the population.

Aside from these differences, however, the merits of non-parametric tests appear nearly as great as parametric. Anderson argues that non-parametric tests, with a few, sometimes minor, qualifications, compare favorably with parametric in terms of power[9] and effect of lack of equinormality on significance level.[10] Although existing non-parametric tests are less versatile, efforts are being made to successfully expand

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[8]Sidney Siegel, Nonparametric Statistics, p. 30.

[9]Power of a test is defined as 1 - p. of accepting the null hypothesis when in fact it is false (type II error) and increases with a sample size.

[10]Norman H. Anderson, "Scales and Statistics: Parametric and Non-parametric," Psychological Bulletin, 58:4 (July, 1961), pp. 306-308.

their utility.

It will be recalled that in the present research integers have been assigned to CP items for number and frequency of such activities. These integers are, however, quite arbitrary, symbolizing at most a "more than, less than" SP difference. In view of the measurement scale of most of the variables incorporated in the hypotheses of this research it would seem that non-parametric tests of significance are most appropriate. Only in a few cases will the assumptions of parametric tests be made (in the case of the correlation-ration and product moment correlation).

Whenever the terms "significant or significant association" are used statistical significance at or beyond the .05 probability level is meant. Since the chi-square value cannot be construed as exhibiting the strength of association[11] the coefficient of contingency[12] was computed for certain contingency tables. In the analysis to follow we will test the null hypothesis for each of the following relationships: Total SP by postcedent variables; formal SP by postcedent variables; semi-formal SP by postcedent variables; and informal SP by postcedent variables (df = 1 for all the following X^2 tests).

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[11]The magnitude of a chi-square value is a function of the size of the N and power of the test in addition to the obtained differences between two groups.

[12]See Blalock, op. cit., p. 230. $C = \sqrt{\frac{X^2}{X^2 + N}}$ and $C \leq .707$ which is the upper limit of C for 2 X 2 tables.

C. Test of the Group I Hypotheses

1. SP and Residence

Since one would suspect that SP (especially formal SP) is contingent upon the size and density of population aggregates and the type of social organization necessary to sustain larger communities of people, we may test the null hypothesis of no relationship between total SP (hereafter referred to as simply SP unless otherwise specified) scores and size of place of residency. Such a test yields a chi-square value significant beyond the .05 level. Further analysis of this relationship results in chi-square values significant below the .05 level for formal SP scores by size of place of residence and semi-formal SP by size of place of residence. The tables are however consistent in indicating higher formal and semi-formal SP scores for respondents residing in places of 1,000 population or more. A test of the null hypothesis of no association between informal SP scores and size of place of residency yielded a chi-square value significant beyond the .05 level and an inspection of the table reveals a tendency for this type of SP to accompany residency in places of 1,000 population or more.

2. SP and Age

It will be noticed that the hypothesis relating age and SP posits a curvilinear type of association. As a preliminary step we may simply test the null hypothesis of no relationship. The dichotomization point with respect to age was suggested by the literature.[13] The chi-square

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[13]Selz Mayo and C. Paul Marsh, "Social Participation in the Rural Community," American Journal of Sociology, 57:3 (November, 1951), pp. 243-248; and Wilensky (in Kleemeier, op. cit.)

TABLE 19

SP AND SIZE OF PLACE OF RESIDENCE ('60)

SP	Size of Place of Residence 1,000+	-1,000	Total	X^2	Level of Signif.	Coef. of Cont.
Hi	42	24	66	7.16	P<.05	C = .026
Tot. SP						
Lo	60	80	140			
Total	102	104	206			
Hi	20	10	30	3.68	.05<P<.10	
Formal SP						
Lo	84	92	176			
Total	104	102	206			
Hi	51	40	91	2.01	.10<P<.20	
Semi-For. SP						
Lo	53	62	115			
Total	104	102	206			
Hi	7	16	23	4.16	P<.05	C = .020
Inform. SP						
Lo	97	86	183			
Total	104	102	206			

test yielded a very low value for this relationship.

Since the contingency table will preserve only a very slight amount of curvilinearity when the data exhibits this relationship, it would seem wise to seek a test designed in such a way that it is sensitive to such a relationship. Apparently such a test does not exist among the current

TABLE 20

SP AND AGE

SP	Age: 50 Years	Age: Under 50	Total	X^2	Level of Signif.	Coef. of Cont.
Hi	22	44	66	.02	.80<P<.90	
Tot. SP						
Lo	48	92	140			
Total	70	136	206			
Hi	12	18	30	.57	.30<P<.50	
Formal SP						
Lo	58	118	176			
Total	70	136	206			
Hi	21	70	91	8.64	P<.05	C = .028
Semi-For. SP						
Lo	49	66	115			
Total	70	136	206			
Hi	7	16	23	.14	.70<P<.80	
Informal SP						
Lo	63	120	183			
Total	70	136	206			

stock of "pure" non-parametric tests. The correlation ratio test (which is partly parametric and partly non-parametric in nature) was therefore chosen since the two variables under analysis seem to fulfill the assumptions for this test. The value yielded by this test was again extremely low (.014).

In order to determine more accurately the nature of the relationship between SP scores and age, some computations were made on the non-collapsed table containing this information. The approximate mid-point of each interval was multiplied by the row frequencies. These products were then summated by columns and the result divided by the number of respondents in the columns resulting in a type of mean for each age bracket. Such computation revealed only small variation by age categories. There is, however, a slight tendency for SP to increase with age to approximately 40-44 years and gradually decrease thereafter.

When the formal SP component was separated from the informal and semi-formal SP components, a significant relationship was obtained between informal and semi-formal SP (taken together) and age, but not between formal SP and age separately (although there was a slight tendency for those 50 years of age or over to have higher formal SP scores). A further separation of the informal from the semi-formal SP components revealed an association significant at or beyond the .05 level between age and semi-formal SP but not between age and informal SP. That is, respondents 49 years of age or less had significantly higher semi-formal SP scores than did those who were 50 years of age or more.

3. SP and Sex

On the basis of the literature we find that single-sex associations far exceed those for which both sexes are eligible.[14] However, it is difficult to predict for professionals (and perhaps for other categories of workers also) which sex will have the greater SP scores. Females

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[14]Robert Bierstedt, The Social Order, p. 335.

TABLE 21

SP AND SEX

SP	Sex: Male	Sex: Female	Total	X^2	Level of Signif.	Coef. of Cont.
Hi	54	12	66	1.35	.20 < P < .30	
Tot. SP						
Lo	123	17	140			
Total	177	29	206			
Hi	26	4	30	.03	.80 < P < .90	
Formal SP						
Lo	151	25	176			
Total	177	29	206			
Hi	67	24	91	20.37	P < .05	C = .042
Semi-For. SP						
Lo	110	5	115			
Total	177	29	206			
Hi	22	1	23	1.22 (Yates correc.)	.20 < P < .30	
Informal SP						
Lo	155	28	133			
Total	177	29	206			

tended to have higher SP scores than males although the test of the null hypothesis yielded a chi-square value significant below the .05 level. Similarly a low chi-square value was obtained when males and females were compared on formal SP scores.

When males and females were compared with respect to combined informal and semi-formal SP scores, females had significantly higher scores

than males. However, when the informal and semi-formal components are separated and each compared by sex the chi-square value reached the accepted significance level only for the semi-formal SP scores-sex relationship indicating significantly higher semi-formal SP for females. Males tended to have higher informal SP scores than females although this tendency may be due to the fact that a higher percentage of the females were unmarried.

4. SP and Marital Status

It was noted earlier that the SP items selected might "disadvantage" unmarried professionals since informal SP was in part operationally defined in terms of family visiting. For this reason the comparison between marital status and informal SP was omitted from the following analysis.

The chi-square value yielded when marital status is compared with respondents' SP scores reaches the accepted significance level. It appears that being married attends higher SP. However, since neither of the chi-square values obtained from the other two contingency tables (relating formal and semi-formal SP scores to marital status) was significant, it is quite probable that the significance of the first chi-square value is due largely to the effects of informal SP scores. It also appears that unmarried respondents are appreciably excluded from formal SP activities.

5. SP and Family Size

The hypothesized relationship between SP and family size hinges on the effect which childlessness or the presence of children has on SP. The hypothesis advanced predicted a curvilinear relationship between

TABLE 22

SP AND MARITAL STATUS

SP	Marital Status: Married	Marital Status: Unmarried	Total	X^2	Level of Signif.	Coef. of Cont.
Hi	64	2	66	4.45	$P < .05$	C = .020
Total SP						
Lo	123	17	140			
Total	187	19	206			
Hi	30	0	30	2.40 (Yates correc.)	$.10 < P < .20$	
Formal SP						
Lo	157	19	176			
Total	187	19	206			
Hi	82	9	91	.80	$.70 < P < .80$	
Semi-For. SP						
Lo	105	10	115			
Total	187	19	206			
Hi						
Informal SP	NO ANALYSIS MADE					
Lo						
Total						

the variables. As an initial step we may test the hypothesis of no relationship. Such a hypothesis may be construed as either no difference in SP between families with one to three children and families with four or more children or as no difference in SP between childless families (sometimes referred to as "arrested families") and families having or

TABLE 23

SP AND FAMILY SIZE

SP	Number of Children: 1 - 3	Number of Children: 4 or more	Total	X^2	Level of Signif.	Coef. of Cont.
Hi	47	8	55	3.24	$.05 < P < .10$	
Total SP						
Lo	84	31	115			
Total	131	39	170[a]			

NO ANALYSES MADE FOR FORMAL, SEMI-FORMAL, OR INFORMAL SP

[a]Single or childless respondents omitted.

having had children. Although test of the first hypothesis fell somewhat short of the accepted significance level the table indicates a tendency for higher SP scores to accompany families with one to three children. The test of curvilinearity resulted in a small value, however (well below the .05 significance level).

A test of the second null hypothesis (that married respondents with children would not differ with respect to SP scores from married respondents without children) revealed a difference significant beyond the .05 level. Here it appears that childless respondents have higher SP scores than those with children.

Closer scrutiny of this hypothesis reveals that there is very little difference in formal SP scores when these two groups (married respondents with children and married respondents without children) are compared. There seems to be some tendency, however, for childless

TABLE 24

SP AND MARRIED, WITH OR WITHOUT CHILDREN

SP	No Children	Children	Total	X^2	Level of Signif.	Coef. of Cont.
Hi	10	55	65	3.87	$P < .05$	C = .019
Tot. SP						
Lo	8	115	123			
Total	18	170	188[a]			
Hi	3	27	30	.01	$.90 < P < .95$	
For. SP						
Lo	15	143	158			
Total	18	170	183			
Hi	13	68	81	6.89	$P < .05$	C = .026
Semi-For. SP						
Lo	5	102	107			
Total	18	170	188			
Hi	1	22	23	.28 (Yates correc.)	$.50 < P < .70$	
Informal SP						
Lo	17	148	165			
Total	18	170	188			

[a]Single respondents omitted.

respondents to have higher combined informal and semi-formal SP scores. As in the case of single persons, married persons without children had significantly higher semi-formal SP scores than respondents with children, while there was a slight tendency for persons with children to have higher informal SP scores.

6. SP and Education

Professionals have been traditionally characterized by the mastery of a body of knowledge during a stringent training period. Yet it is difficult to compare the educational levels of practitioners in different professions. It was finally decided to compare those respondents having the B.A., B.S., or B.L. (Bachelor of Laws, also written LL.B.) degree or less with those having attained a graduate degree on the Master's or Ph.D. level or having had some special graduate or professional training in their field. This meant that the latter group contained virtually all respondents with the B.D., M.D., D.O., D.D.S., or LL.D. degree plus certified ministers leaving, for the most part, high school teachers and clergymen without graduate, B.D. degrees or certification.

A test of the null hypothesis yielded a chi-square value which was slightly below the .05 level of significance. There was some tendency for the more highly educated respondents to exhibit higher SP scores. The chi-square values for the combined informal and semi-formal SP scores and separate informal and semi-formal SP scores were all also slightly below the .05 significance level. With respect to formal SP and educational level, the chi-square test yielded a value significant well beyond the .05 level. The table suggests that higher formal SP is significantly associated with higher educational achievement while there appears to be a tendency for lower educational attainment to be associated with higher informal and semi-formal SP scores.

7. SP and Income

Amount of income is perhaps both a prerequisite and an entre symbol to SP. It is, in addition, often reflective of one's status and power and is related to one's career and life cycle.

TABLE 25

SP AND EDUCATION

SP	C. Deg. or less	W or W/O Deg. Grad., Prof.	Total	X^2	Level of Signif.	Coef. of Cont.
Hi	12	54	66	2.25	$.10 < P < .20$	
Total SP						
Lo	39	101	140			
Total	51	155	206			
Hi	2	28	30	9.96	$P < .05$	C = .030
For. SP						
Lo	49	127	176			
Total	51	155	206			
Hi	26	65	91	1.27	$.20 < P < .30$	
Semi-For. SP						
Lo	25	90	115			
Total	51	155	206			
Hi	8	15	23	1.39	$.20 < P < .30$	
Informal SP						
Lo	43	140	183			
Total	51	155	206			

The dichotomization of income level was based on a rather arbitrary decision. It is perhaps one of the points beyond which an income is considered comfortable or adequate in distinction to one which is considered prestigeful. The test of the null hypothesis of no difference in

TABLE 26

SP AND ANNUAL INCOME

SP	$6,900 or less	$7,000 or more	Total	X^2	Level of Signif.	Coef. of Cont.
Hi	43	21	64	6.27	$P < .05$	C = .024
Tot. SP						
Lo	112	23	135			
Total	155	44	199[a]			
Hi	13	16	29	21.54	$P < .05$	C = .044
For. SP						
Lo	142	28	170			
Total	155	44	199			
Hi	71	19	90	.09	$.70 < P < .80$	
Semi-For. SP						
Lo	84	25	109			
Total	155	44	199			
Hi	20	3	23	1.24	$.20 < P < .30$	
Informal SP						
Lo	135	41	176			
Total	155	44	199			

[a]Seven respondents did not answer the income question.

SP between those whose yearly income was $6,900 or less and those with a yearly income of $7,000 or more yielded a chi-square value significant beyond the .05 level. The table suggests that higher income is associated with higher SP. The product moment correlation coefficient on these

two variables was also significant well beyond the .05 level for a two-tailed test. Upon closer analysis of this relationship it was found that formal SP exhibited a very striking association to income while the chi-square values obtained when comparing individuals on informal and semi-formal SP scores (together or separately) and income all fail to reach the accepted significance level. One of the tables indicates some tendency for lower income respondents to have higher informal SP scores.

8. SP and Type of Birth Place

The test of the null hypothesis that no significant differences in SP scores exists when respondents born in metropolitan areas are compared with those born in non-metropolitan areas yielded a chi-square value which was significant beyond the .05 level. An inspection of the data reveals that respondents born in metropolitan areas tended to have higher SP scores than respondents born in non-metropolitan areas. Tests of the null hypotheses that respondents' formal, semi-formal, and informal SP scores do not differ when compared by type of birth place all yielded chi-square values below the accepted level. However, there is some tendency for high formal and informal SP scores to go together with respondents born in metropolitan birth places.

9. SP and Length of Residence

The chi-square value resulting from the SP-length of residence null hypothesis suggests that the variables are not statistically independent. Respondents residing in their communities ten years or more tended to have higher SP scores. Such was also the case with respect to the relationship between formal SP and length of residence. The chi-square value resulting from a test of no relationship between semi-formal and

TABLE 27

SP AND TYPE OF BIRTH PLACE

SP	Metro.	Non-Metro.	Total	X^2	Level of Signif.	Coef. of Cont.
Hi	22	44	66	8.33	$P < .05$	C = .028
Tot. SP						
Lo	21	114	135			
Total	43	158	201[a]			
Hi	10	20	30	2.99	$.05 < P < .10$	
For. SP						
Lo	33	138	171			
Total	43	158	201			
Hi	20	71	91	.03	$.80 < P < .90$	
Semi-For. SP						
Lo	23	87	110			
Total	43	158	201			
Hi	7	16	23	1.26	$.20 < P < .30$	
Infor. SP						
Lo	36	142	178			
Total	43	158	201			

[a]Five respondents did not answer the question.

and informal SP and length of residence did not, however, reach the accepted significance level.

D. Test of the Group 2 Hypotheses

1. SP and Locating Reasons

Considerable overlap occurred with respect to responses to the question, "How did you happen to locate here?" and the question, "What aspects of the community, if any, entered into your decision to locate here?" Since all respondents answered the first question but not the second, an analysis of the relationship between reasons given for locating and SP will now be made. An analysis of the varied responses to this question suggested that a rather simple classification in terms of "pure" occupational reasons and "non-occupational or mixed" reasons could be made without losing a great deal of the extensional and intensional meaning of the responses.

Tests of the four null hypotheses all yielded chi-square values considerably below the .05 level with the exception of the case in which respondents are compared with respect to their locating reasons and their informal SP scores. There was a slight tendency for higher informal SP scores to attend occupational locating reasons.

2. SP and Perception of Advice to High School Age Youth

Since some professionals had been confronted by all five[15] of the advice situations mentioned in the interview schedule and others had not been exposed to any in the last five years, it was necessary to formulate some criteria by which one could judge whether the professional

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[15]See page 73 for the areas included in the interview schedule. One of the question areas, viz., "Have you ever discussed occupational choices" and the perception of advice thereon was inadvertently omitted from some of the schedules and could not be included in the present analysis.

TABLE 28

SP AND LENGTH OF RESIDENCE

SP	9 Years or less	10 Years or more	Total	X^2	Level of Signif.	Coef. of Cont.
Hi	36	30	66	5.70	P < .05	C = .023
Tot. SP						
Lo	100	40	140			
Total	136	70	206			
Hi	12	18	30	10.60	P < .05	C = .031
Form. SP						
Lo	124	52	176			
Total	136	70	206			
Hi	56	35	91	1.46	.20 < P < .30	
Semi-For. SP						
Lo	80	35	115			
Total	136	70	206			
Hi	18	5	23	1.73	.10 < P < .20	
Infor. SP						
Lo	118	65	183			
Total	136	70	206			

generally perceived his advice as being influential or not influential. Those who had been confronted with one or no such situations were omitted from the analysis since it was not determinable from the data whether or not they perceived their advice as influential. Advice was termed influential if it had been given on at least two of the four areas and

TABLE 29

SP AND LOCATING REASONS

SP	Occupational	Non-Occup. or Mixed	Total	X^2	Level of Signif.	Coef. of Cont.
Hi	45	31	66	.48	$.30 < P < .50$	
Tot. SP						
Lo	102	38	140			
Total	147	59	206			
Hi	19	11	30	1.11	$.20 < P < .30$	
Form. SP						
Lo	128	48	176			
Total	147	59	206			
Hi	65	26	91	.0003	$.98 < P < .99$	
Semi-For. SP						
Lo	82	33	115			
Total	147	59	206			
Hi	20	3	23	3.08	$.05 < P < .10$	
Infor. SP						
Lo	127	56	183			
Total	147	59	206			

perceived as influential at least twice in the case of confrontation with two or three different advice situations and at least three times in the case of four advice situations.

The tests of the null hypotheses relating total, formal, and informal SP to perception of advice yielded chi-square values which were

TABLE 30

SP AND PERCEPTION OF ADVICE

SP	Perceives Advice as Influential	Does not Perceive Advice as Influential	Total	X^2	Level of Signif.	Coeff. of Cont.
Hi	35	4	39	.51	.30 < P < .50	
Tot. SP						
Lo	50	9	59			
Total	85	13	98			
Hi	15	1	16	.82 (Yates correc.)	.30 < P < .50	
Formal SP						
Lo	70	12	82			
Total	85	13	98			
Hi	49	4	53	3.28	.05 < P < .10	
Semi-For. SP						
Lo	36	9	45			
Total	85	13	98			
Hi	13	1	14	.09 (Yates correc.)	.70 < P < .80	
Infor. SP						
Lo	72	12	84			
Total	85	13	98			

significant below the .05 level. There appears to be a somewhat stronger tendency for high semi-formal SP to accompany perception of advice as generally influential although the chi-square value obtained does not reach the .05 level.

3. SP and Size of Preferred Community

SP proclivity might conceivably be influenced by the extent to which one prefers to live in a community larger or smaller than his present place of residence. Tests of the null hypotheses, however, indicate that there is no significant difference at the .05 level between respondents preferring places of 2,500 population or more and less than 2,500 population. It, therefore, appears that size of preferred community does not consistently discriminate between respondents with high and low SP scores.

4. SP and CS (scale types)

One might suspect that a more "immediate" operating factor affecting SP would be a respondent's CS. Two measures of community satisfaction were used in the present analysis. The first was comprised of the respondent's scores on all the items (with the exception of "T" and "U," which were not in all cases applicable) of the CS inventory. The second was comprised of the respondents on all the scaleable items resulting from the Guttman scalogram analysis. The test of the null hypothesis incorporating the first measure of CS and SP scores resulted in a chi-square value which was significant somewhat below the .05 level. However, when the second measure is used, a chi-square value results which is significant beyond the .05 level. The product moment correlation coefficient with respect to the scale types and SP was also significant beyond the .05 level.

Pursuing this relationship further, we find that a chi-square value significant beyond the .05 level obtains between CS scale types and formal SP scores but not when the other three types of SP are related to CS scale types.

TABLE 31

SP AND PREFERRED COMMUNITY SIZE

SP	Less than 2,500 Pop.	2,500 Pop. or More	Total	X^2	Level of Signif.	Coef. of Cont.
Hi	32	34	66	.20	$.50 < P < .70$	
Tot. SP						
Lo	71	66	137			
Total	103	100	203[a]			
Hi	16	14	30	.09	$.70 < P < .80$	
Formal SP						
Lo	87	86	173			
Total	103	100	203			
Hi	44	47	91	.38	$.50 < P < .70$	
Semi-For. SP						
Lo	59	53	112			
Total	103	100	203			
Hi	13	10	23	.35	$.50 < P < .70$	
Infor. SP						
Lo	90	90	180			
Total	103	100	203			

[a]Three respondents did not answer the question.

E. Test of the Group 3 Hypotheses

1. SP and Father's Occupational Level

It is difficult to defend the dichotomization point made with

TABLE 32

SP AND COMMUNITY SATISFACTION (scale types)

SP	Lo (5,6, 7,8)	Hi (0,1,2, 3,4)	Total	X^2	Level of Signif.	Coef. of Cont.
Hi	17	48	65	8.12	P < .05	C = .027
Tot. SP						
Lo	66	74	140			
Total	83	122	205[a]			
Hi	5	25	30	8.23	P < .05	C = .028
Form. SP						
Lo	78	97	175			
Total	83	122	205			
Hi	37	53	90	.03	.80 < P < .90	
Semi-For. SP						
Lo	46	69	115			
Total	83	122	205			
Hi	8	15	23	.35	.50 < P < .70	
Infor. SP						
Lo	75	107	182			
Total	83	122	205			

[a]Community Satisfaction Inventory was not completed for one respondent.

respect to the occupational level of the respondent's father even considering the acknowledged need to study more carefully the bases for classificational systems in current use by sociologists. The two

TABLE 33

SP AND FATHER'S OCCUPATIONAL LEVEL

SP	"Other White Collar and Above"	"Farm Prop. or Op. & Below"	Total	X^2	Level of Signif.	Coef. of Cont.
Hi	33	33	66	6.08	$P < .05$	C = .024
Total SP						
Lo	45	95	140			
Total	78	128	206			
Hi	16	14	30	3.57	$.05 < P < .10$	
Formal SP						
Lo	62	114	176			
Total	78	128	206			
Hi	38	53	91	1.05	$.30 < P < .50$	
Semi-For. SP						
Lo	40	75	115			
Total	78	128	206			
Hi	7	16	23	.61	$.30 < P < .50$	
Infor. SP						
Lo	71	112	183			
Total	78	128	206			

classes of occupations resulting from the dichotomization do, however, differ with respect to such traditional criteria as skill, responsibility and prestige. A test of the null hypothesis stating that there would be no relationship between these two occupational groups with respect to SP

yielded a chi-square value which was significant beyond the .05 level. An inspection of the table suggests that high occupational level of father's occupation is associated with high SP.

A more detailed analysis of this hypothesis in terms of a test of the relationship between formal SP and father's occupational level yields a chi-square value slightly below the .05 level. A test of the relationship between informal and semi-formal SP scores (separately or together) fails in any case to yield a chi-square value which approximates the .05 level.

2. SP and Number of Inter-Community Moves

Test of the null hypothesis that there is no relationship between number of inter-community moves since 1945 and SP scores yielded a chi-square value which is significant at the .05 level. That is, a greater number of moves is associated with lower SP scores. However, the product moment correlation between these two variables does not reach the accepted significance level. Significant differences between informal and semi-formal SP scores (separately or together) and number of moves do not obtain. There is some tendency for greater number of moves to attend lower formal SP scores.

F. Test of the Profession Hypothesis

1. SP and Type of Profession

On the basis of the dichotomy suggested in Chapter II, we may test the hypothesis that no relationship exists between type of profession and SP scores. The chi-square value obtained from the test was significant beyond the .05 level. Closer analysis reveals a large chi-square value

TABLE 34

SP AND NUMBER OF INTER-COMMUNITY MOVES

SP	3 or More	Less than 3	Total	X^2	Level of Signif.	Coef. of Cont.
Hi	7	59	66	3.97	$P < .05$	C = .019
Tot. SP						
Lo	31	109	140			
Total	38	168	206			
Hi	3	27	30	1.66	$.10 < P < .20$	
Formal SP						
Lo	35	141	176			
Total	38	168	206			
Hi	14	77	91	1.01	$.30 < P < .50$	
Semi-For. SP						
Lo	24	91	115			
Total	38	168	206			
Hi	4	19	23	.02	$.80 < P < .90$	
Informal SP						
Lo	34	149	183			
Total	38	168	206			

(significant beyond the .05 level) as a result of the test of no relationship between formal SP scores and type of profession. The table shows a marked tendency for high formal SP scores to accompany the technical-helping professions (doctors, lawyers, and dentists). The test of the null hypothesis of no relationship between informal and semi-formal SP and type of profession yielded chi-square values significant

TABLE 35

SP AND TYPE OF PROFESSION

SP	Med-Legal	Teacher-Clergy	Total	X^2	Level of Signif.	Coef. of Cont.
Hi	25	41	66	6.20	$P < .05$	C = .024
Tot. SP						
Lo	30	110	140			
Total	55	151	206			
Hi	18	12	30	19.98	$P < .05$	C = .042
Formal SP						
Lo	37	139	176			
Total	55	151	206			
Hi	19	72	91	2.82	$.05 < P < .10$	
Semi-For. SP						
Lo	36	79	115			
Total	55	151	206			
Hi	4	19	23	1.15	$.20 < P < .30$	
Infor. SP						
Lo	51	132	183			
Total	55	151	206			

below the .05 level. There is, however, a fairly strong tendency for higher informal and semi-formal SP scores to attend the social helping professions. This tendency seems to be most marked with respect to semi-formal SP scores.

TABLE 36

SUMMARY OF CHI-SQUARE VALUES

	Variables	Total SP	Formal SP	Semi-Formal SP	In-Formal SP
1.	Size of place of residence	7.16*	3.68	2.01	4.16*
2.	Age	.02	.57	8.64*	.14
3.	Sex	1.35	.03	20.37*	1.22
4.	Marital Status	4.45*	2.40	.08	
5.	Family Size	3.24			
6.	Mar., w or w/o children	3.87*	.01	6.89	.28
7.	Education	2.25	9.93*	1.27	1.39
8.	Income	6.27*	21.54*	.09	1.24
9.	Type of birth place	8.33*	2.99	.03	1.26
10.	Length of residence	5.70*	10.60*	1.46	1.73
11.	Locating reasons	.48	1.11	.0003	3.08
12.	Perception of advice	.51	.82	3.28	.09
13.	Preferred community size	.20	.09	.38	.35
14.	CS	8.12*	8.28*	.03	.35
15.	Father's Occupational level	6.08*	3.57	1.05	.61
16.	Number of inter-comm. moves	3.97*	1.66	1.01	.02
17.	Profession	6.20*	19.89*	2.82	1.15

*$P < .05$.

G. Decisions Concerning the Hypotheses

On the basis of the magnitude of the chi-square value (and in some cases the correlation coefficient) and the accepted level of significance for the present research we would tentatively accept the following null hypotheses with respect to individuals' SP scores:

1. Respondents 50 years of age or older do not differ significantly from those less than 50 years of age (the small value also indicates that there is little curvilinearity in the relationship).
2. Male respondents do not differ significantly from female respondents.
3. Respondents having one to three children do not differ significantly from those having four or more.
4. Respondents having a college undergraduate degree or less do not differ significantly from respondents who have graduate or professional degrees or special professional training.
5. Respondents locating in the community for occupational reasons do not differ significantly from those locating for non-occupational or mixed (occupational and other) reasons.
6. Respondents who have been confronted with some advice situations vis-a-vis high school age students and who generally perceive the advice given as being influential on those youths' subsequent decisions do not differ significantly from those not perceiving their advice as influential.
7. Respondents preferring a place of residence of less than

2,500 population do not differ significantly from those preferring a place of 2,500 population or more.

The null hypotheses which were tentatively accepted above would be tentatively rejected for the following variables when the particular type of SP specified is considered: (I.e., the following relationships were significant beyond the .05 level.)

1. Age and semi-formal SP.
2. Sex and semi-formal SP.
3. Education and formal SP.

On the basis of the chi-square tests of significance (and in some cases the correlation coefficient) we would be led to tentatively reject the following null hypotheses with respect to individuals' SP scores:

1. Respondents residing in population centers of less than 1,000 do not differ significantly from those residing in centers of 1,000 or more.
2. Married respondents do not differ significantly from unmarried respondents.
3. Childless respondents do not differ significantly from respondents with offspring.
4. Respondents with $6,900 annual income or less do not differ significantly from those with $7,000 or more.
5. Respondents born in metropolitan areas do not differ from those born in non-metropolitan areas.
6. Respondents residing in their communities for nine years or less do not differ from those residing for ten years or more.
7. Respondents characterized by high CS do not differ significantly from those having low CS.

8. Respondents whose father's occupational level was classified as "other white collar or above" do not differ significantly from those whose father's occupational level was classified as "farm operator or owner or below."
9. Respondents having moved three or more times since between communities do not differ significantly from those characterized by less than three inter-community moves since, 1945.
10. The "social helping" professions do not differ significantly from the "technical helping" professions.

The null hypotheses which were tentatively rejected above would be tentatively accepted when the particular type of SP specified is considered:

1. Size of place of residence and formal and semi-formal SP.
2. Marital status and formal and semi-formal SP.
3. Married, with or without children and formal and informal SP.
4. Income and semi-formal and informal SP.
5. Type of birth place and formal, semi-formal and informal SP.
6. Length of residence and semi-formal and informal SP.
7. CS and semi-formal and informal SP.
8. Father's occupational level and formal, semi-formal, and informal SP.
9. Number of inter-community moves and formal, semi-formal, and informal SP.
10. Type of profession and semi-formal and informal SP.

In the absence of any general theory by which to systematize the major classes of variables of the present research, it is not surprising that aforehand predictions of directionality of specific relationships

sometimes failed to materialize since the rationale for the predicted directionality hardly exceeds intuitive grounds when no explicit deductions from theory can be made. In some cases fragmentary theories and prior research provided some bases for some of the present predicted directions of relationship. The following "successful" predictions of directionality were obtained (referring to total SP scores in each case). In some cases the directionality is much less marked than others.

1. SP and size of place of residence.
2. SP and marital status.
3. SP and family size.[16]
4. SP and education.
5. SP and income.
6. SP and locating reason.
7. SP and perception of advice.
8. SP and CS.
9. SP and father's occupational level.
10. SP and number of inter-community moves.

The following relationships obtained in the opposite direction predicted:

1. SP and age.
2. SP and sex.
3. SP and married with or without children.
4. SP and type of birth place.
5. SP and length of residence.
6. SP and preferred community size.
7. SP and profession.

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[16]However, childless married respondents had significantly higher SP scores than married respondents with children.

H. Controlling Variables

Controlling for the effects of certain variables on the relationship between two focal variables has the merit of more accurately locating the variables which strengthen or weaken the purported association and serves to qualify the hypothesized relationship.[17] It is quite apparent to social scientists that the latter function of controlling is important since the charge that too many "sweeping generalizations" are allowed is often justified. Since the social scientist often concerns himself with phenomena entailing an apparent multiplicity of factors, determining the relative effects of certain variables may prove heuristic and contribute to parsimony.

A problem often encountered when simultaneously controlling the effects of several variables is the appearance of small cell frequencies. For this reason it was not possible to control for more than one variable at a time in the present research. Our procedure will be to systematically control the effects of those variables, which in conjunction with SP scores, yielded the highest chi-square values and coefficients of contingency.

In effect then our analytic strategy has been to "explain away" all significant differences found in the present research firstly by qualifying the significant differences found with respect to certain variables and SP scores by specifying for which type of SP these relationships hold, and secondly, by attempting to determine the relative effects on certain relationships when a third variable is held constant. The variables to be held successively constant are the following: (1) Size of place of

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[17]See Blalock, Social Statistics, pp. 234-241.

residence, (2) type of profession, (3) length of residence, (4) type of birth place, (5) father's occupational level, (6) income, and (7) community satisfaction (using scale types). Table 37 summarily presents the results of the chi-square tests of significance when the seven relationships (in the left column) are investigated while holding the seven variables constant in succession. The table calls for some preliminary discussion.

The relationship between SP and size of place of residence showed that respondents with higher SP (total SP) scores tended to reside in places of 1,000 population or more. This relationship is especially marked for respondents residing in their communities for nine years or less and having higher incomes. This relationship is, however, attenuated in all cases by the controlling variables.

The relationship between SP and profession showed that medical-legal professionals tended to have higher SP scores than did teacher-clerical professionals. The magnitude of the chi-square value pertaining to this relationship is attenuated least by residency in places of 1,000 population or more and high CS. On the other hand, the chi-square value is considerably reduced when income and length of residence are controlled. The chi-square value remains significant or nearly significant when the following conditions are considered: (1) Place of residency of 1,000 population or more, (2) non-metropolitan birth place, (3) father's occupational level being farm owner or operator or below, and (4) high CS.

Those respondents with long periods of residency (ten or more years) tended to have higher SP scores than those of shorter residency. It will be noted that the chi-square value is decreased considerably when type of profession and income are controlled. It also appears that non-

TABLE 37

SUMMARY OF CONTROL RESULTS

	Controlled Variables and Resultant X^2 Values													
	Size of Res.		Profession		Length of Res.		Type of B. Place		Fa. Occu.		Income		CS	
Relationship	1,000/	1,000-	Med.- legal	Teach. Cler.	9 yrs.	10 yrs./	Met.	N-Met.	Wh't. Col./	Farm & -	6,900-	7,000/	Low	High
1. SP & size of place of res. (X^2 = 7.16)	--	--	3.58	.49	4.31*	.47	.56	2.62	2.13	1.81	.76	4.73*	.33	3.29
2. SP & prof. (X^2 = 6.20)	5.45*	.08	--	--	1.22	1.30	1.05	3.76	.89	3.38	.15	small cells	.77	9.26*
3. SP & length of resid'n. (X^2 = 5.70)	1.62	3.94	.87	1.74	--	--	.24	9.49*	3.31	1.88	1.73	.48	.10	7.28*
4. SP & type of B. place (X^2 = 8.33)	3.79	4.45*	2.16	4.50*	11.22*	.51	--	--	.33	8.11*	7.14*	2.12	3.14	6.09*
5. SP & fa.'s occupat'n (X^2 = 6.07)	3.20	1.44	.06	3.79	2.12	3.26	.22	6.41*	--	--	4.15*	.42	.01	9.10*
6. SP & income (X^2 = 6.27)	6.34*	.25	1.32	small cells	1.97	2.05	1.30	4.51*	1.33	3.31	--	--	.32	8.80*
7. SP & CS (X^2 = 8.11)	5.01*	1.92	9.88*	1.23	4.47*	6.10	3.91*	6.69*	9.94*	.81	1.43	7.74*	--	--

*P < .05.

metropolitan birth place and high CS contribute to this association.

The relationship between SP and type of birth place showed that respondents born in metropolitan areas had significantly higher SP scores than those born in non-metropolitan areas. There appear to be no pair of controls among those considered here which is such that both members reduce the chi-square value below the .05 significance level. The chi-square value increases or remains nearly the same when the following conditions are considered: (1) 9 years of residency or less, (2) father's occupational level at or below farmer, and (3) $6,900 or less annual income. The chi-square value decreases markedly when separately viewing those respondents who have resided in the community ten years or more and whose father's occupational level may be classified as "other white collar or above."

Three factors appear to appreciably reduce the chi-square value relating to SP and father's occupational level, size of place of residency, type of profession, and length of residency. It will be recalled that this relationship revealed that respondents whose fathers' occupation was classified at a high level also tended to have higher SP scores. The relationships are most markedly reduced, however, by the following conditions: (1) Medical-legal profession, (2) metropolitan birth place, (3) $7,000 or more annual income, and (4) low CS.

Only two factors significantly reduce the chi-square value obtained when comparing SP by respondent's income level (higher SP scores tended to be associated with higher income levels). These are length of residence and type of profession (control for father's occupational level also reduces the chi-square value considerably). The relationship between income and SP failed to develop as markedly for respondents residing in

places of 1,000 population or less and respondents characterized by low CS, while this relationship persisted for those residing in places of 1,000 population or more and those having high CS.

Earlier it was noted that respondents having higher SP scores also tended to have higher CS scores. No pair of controls among these considered here served to obliterate the significant differences found between respondent's SP scores and CS level. Three sets did, however, serve to emphasize the relationship toward both extremes. These were types of profession, father's occupational level and income. The relationship between SP and CS (in terms of the coefficient of contingency derived from the chi-square table) was strongest for the medical-legal and high income professionals, and those whose fathers' occupation was classified as "other white collar or above."

It is difficult, perhaps even hazardous, to interpret the findings resulting from the controlling operations just completed. There appears to be much interdependence. If it were found, e.g., that the difference between medical-legal and teacher-clergy professionals with respect to SP scores disappears when length of residence is controlled, we would perhaps be led to suspect that length of residence is important (perhaps a necessary but not sufficient condition) to the actualization of this relationship. If after controlling for length of residence on all the other significant differences found these differences are obliterated, we might espouse the importance of length of residence to the occurrence of all the significant relationships herein under analysis.

However, no variable, when controlled, consistently "explains away" all significant differences presently under investigation. A few seem to reduce the effects more often than others, however. These are type of

profession, income, and perhaps father's occupational level.

If, after controlling a certain variable for all the significant differences under question, we find that its effects are always or nearly always consistent with or supportive of the relationship under scrutiny we might attribute to it a position of high relevancy in the analysis of SP. Such a variable is CS. When analyzing all relationships within the limits of high CS, the differences remain significant at or beyond the .05 level for all chi-square values except one (SP and size of place of residence) and when analyzing all relationships with the limits of low CS, the chi-square values fall far below the accepted probability level in nearly all cases. It is, therefore, appropriate to state that the degree of relationship between SP and the other seven "postcedent" variables usually depends on level of CS.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS, DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, AND LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

A. Conclusions

The present research revealed the following results:

1. Residence in places of 1,000 population or more was significantly associated with high total SP and exhibited some tendency to accompany high formal and informal SP. Residence in places of less than 1,000 population was significantly associated with informal SP. Respondents less than 50 years of age did, however, have higher semi-formal SP scores.
2. Similar findings occurred with respect to sex. Males did not differ from females on total, formal or informal SP. Females exhibited a greater amount of informal SP.
3. Being married seemed to be associated with higher total and formal SP. Small cell frequencies prompts one to report this result with caution, however. Little difference was found between married and unmarried semi-formal participators and, since being unmarried severely disadvantaged respondents in family visiting, no analysis was made of marital status and informal SP.
4. Since the product-moment correlation coefficient (and coefficient of determinacy) relating total SP to number of children resulted

in such a low value, it seemed more feasible to compare childless respondents with those having children. Such a comparison showed that childless respondents had significantly higher semi-formal SP scores. Little or no difference was found between those respondents in their formal and informal SP activities.

5. Amount and type of education distinguished respondents only on formal SP. As expected, more highly trained respondents exhibited higher formal SP scores.
6. High income respondents had especially high formal SP scores while there was little difference in semi-formal and informal SP between low and high income respondents.
7. The slight tendency for respondents born in metropolitan areas to have higher formal and informal SP scores than respondents born in non-metropolitan areas was sufficient to result in a difference between these two groups with regard to total SP scores.
8. Longer residence in the community was significantly associated with higher formal SP activity while long and short lengths of residence did not differentiate between high and low semi-formal and informal social participators.
9. Other than a tendency for high informal SP to characterize respondents locating in their communities for occupational reasons, type of locating reason did not differentiate between high and low semi-formal and informal social participators.
10. Some tendency for respondents perceiving their advice to high school age youth as influential to have higher informal SP

scores was noted. However, perception of advice as influential or uninfluential did not distinguish between formal and informal social participators.

11. Respondents preferring communities of residence of less or more than 2,500 population did not differ with respect to total, formal, semi-formal or informal SP.

12. High CS was significantly associated with high formal SP, but not semi-formal and informal SP.

13. The moderate tendency for respondents whose father's occupation was classified at a relatively high level to have higher formal and semi-formal SP scores than respondents whose father's occupation was classified at a lower level was sufficient to result in a significant difference between these two groups as total SP. (The former group had higher total SP scores.)

14. Again, the moderate tendency for respondents who had experienced less than three inter-community moves in the last thirteen years to have higher formal and semi-formal SP scores than those having moved three times or more resulted in a significant difference when these two groups were compared on total SP scores. (The former group had higher total SP scores.)

15. Medical-legal professionals had significantly higher formal SP scores than did teacher-clergy professionals. Somewhat the reverse obtained with respect to semi-formal SP, however.

The controlling of variables process revealed the following results:

1. Differences in SP scores between respondents residing in places of 1,000 population or more and less than 1,000 population are greatly attenuated when profession, type of birth place, father's occupational level, and CS are controlled successively.
2. Differences in SP scores between the "technical" and "social helping" professionals are greatly attenuated when length of residence, type of birth place, father's occupational level, and income are controlled successively.
3. Differences in SP scores between relatively short and long time residents are greatly attenuated when profession, father's occupational level, and income are controlled successively.
4. Differences in SP scores between respondents born in metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas are not greatly attenuated by any of the control variables except to some extent by size of place of residence and profession.
5. Differences in SP scores between respondents whose father's occupational level was high and respondents whose father's occupational level was low are greatly attenuated when size of place of residence, profession, length of residence, and father's occupational level are controlled successively.
6. Differences in SP scores between respondents of high and low incomes are greatly attenuated when profession, length of residence, and father's occupational level are controlled successively.
7. Differences in SP scores between respondents having high and low CS are not greatly attenuated by any of the control variables.

It may be well at this point to briefly review some of the preliminary planning and problems of this research and the direction which the analysis has taken.

The study began with the question, "How do rural professionals participate socially?" Since the usage of certain terms contained in the question varies, it was necessary that a brief inquiry into the meaning of "professional" and "social participation" be made. Three aspects of SP were then suggested for research and operationally defined. Most writers agree that membership and participation in voluntary associations constitutes an acceptable measure of formal SP. This type of activity takes place within a visible and continuing organizational framework. A definition of informal SP is, however, more difficult to formulate. Furthermore, the importance of both informal and semi-formal SP is problematical in sociological literature since adequate conceptualization and research incorporating them is lacking. All SP items except one did, however, retain a significant discriminatory power in terms of the critical ratio test of difference between scores of upper and lower quartiles.

Like most research, the problem specified raised broader areas of theoretical consideration. The importance of the SP of occupational groupings relates in a broad manner to the problem of a growing division of labor of society and integration of individuals to society. It was felt that professionals might provide a very interesting case with respect to this problem since they are considered by many writers as the sine qua non of occupations due to such features as ethics, training, organization, and theoretical pursuit.

Normatively, a great deal of the significance attaching to SP

derives from the values accompanying conceptions and expectations of democratically committed societies and governments. It is held by many that the multiplicity of voluntary associations (especially those predominating in instrumental rather than convivial functions) on intermediate levels of the society serve to bring a heterogeneous populace into more direct participation in community, regional, and national processes and decisions and articulate the views of minorities.

A search for a fairly well developed theory by which the major classes of variables accessible in the data gathered could be related revealed only rather vague, unsystematized notions. The hypotheses of this research could not be shown to follow in a rigorous logical manner from the theoretical considerations inspiring the broad outlines of the present research.

Because of the small number of individuals found in certain professions (such as lawyers and dentists) in rural areas a sound inter-occupational analysis was impossible. Therefore, one of the most fruitful lines of attack seemed to be an analysis of some factors presumed to affect SP. One of these factors was type of profession which was based on certain characteristics of the professions.

The factors herein analyzed were selected largely on the basis of accessibility (in terms of their inclusion in the interview schedule) and prior research. Of special interest here is the fact that little such research exists regarding professionals and even less has been done with respect to the SP of professionals in rural areas. Indeed, the existence of the large stratum of voluntary associations is often explained as a response to urban complexity and specialization.

As the analysis progressed it became more apparent that the three components (types of SP) comprising the total SP index should be investigated separately so as to determine which variables are associated with what types of SP. The merit of such a separate analysis is illustrated by the case of the SP-profession relationship. It was found that the "technical-helping" professions clearly exceeded the "social-helping" professions in formal SP, yet the latter tend to exhibit higher semi-formal SP than the former.

Perhaps the most consistent results were found within the framework of formal SP. Since considerable interrelationship seems to exist with respect to the matrix of variables associated with formal SP, we might begin an inspection of the chain at any point. We shall take the SP-profession relationship as a point of illustration. It will be recalled that medical-legal professionals showed significantly higher formal SP than teacher-clergy professionals. This finding is interpretable in terms of others when it is noted that these professionals also had the following characteristics all of which were also significantly or near significantly associated with high formal SP.

1. Sixty per cent of them had fathers whose occupational level exceeded our "other white collar" category (30 per cent for "social-helping" professionals).
2. Seventy-three per cent of them had high CS scale types (55 per cent for "social-helping" professionals).
3. Sixty-five per cent of them had resided in their communities ten years or more (23 per cent for "social-helping" professionals).

4. Twenty-nine per cent of them were born in metropolitan areas (18 per cent for "social-helping" professionals).
5. Seventy-six per cent of them had an annual income of $7,000 or more (7 per cent for "social-helping" professionals).
6. Ninety-eight per cent of them had completed professional degrees involving a large amount of formal education (33 per cent for "social-helping" professionals).
7. Ninety-three per cent resided in villages and towns (73 per cent for the "social-helping" professionals).

A sociological methodologist recently stated that, "The statistical tests merely answer the question: "Is there a big enough relationship here which needs explanation (and is not merely chance fluctuation). . . . Is there a relationship here worth explaining?"[1] In other words, what is meant is that statistical tests of significance (or "statistical estimation" as Kish terms it) are merely a preliminary or ancilary step in research. There remains the task of scrutinizing the research results and accounting for those findings which invite explanation. Again it must be noted that explanation is expedited when the hypotheses tested derive from systematic theory. Although such theory (as an inclusive codification of the major classes of variables of the present research) appears to be lacking we may raise some questions regarding some of the results which were either contrary to expectations or in other ways pose some consternation and attempt some explanations of such findings.

In attempting some speculative explanations for these "implausible truths" we need not err by resorting to the "coziness" of post factum

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[1]Leslie Kish, op. cit., p. 337.

explanation or advance "going and coming" (unfalsifiable) hypotheses. We may simply state that such and such might account for the anomalous findings. Indeed scientific explanation would require that we seek and test generalizations which would subsume disparate-appearing findings.

It was expected that if SP was somehow related to life cycle and job career, significant differences would result when age and formal SP were related.[2] Failure to substantiate the age-formal SP hypothesis may have been the result of the particular dichotomization break for the contingency table. Mayo[3] found that his (respondents showed) relatively high SP in the manner of the Chapin SP scale, from ages 10 through 24, lowest SP at 30 to 34, climbed to a high peak at 45 through 49 and declined thereafter. Our non-collapsed table indicates this kind of relationship also. Our dichotomies then each contained about the same amount of low and high formal SP, thus canceling out these differences.

One might have expected females to exhibit less formal SP than males to such an extent as to result in a signficant difference between the two sexes. Such, however, was not the case. It may be the case that the female professional is indeed an "emancipated" type of individual (making the somewhat tenuous assumption that emancipation [whatever that may be] is a pre-requisite to high SP). Upon additional analysis of voluntary association activity, it was seen that teachers predominated in literary-educational and religious associations.

Why do females score much higher than males on semi-formal SP? An answer does not readily suggest itself. Perhaps if each activity

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[2] Especially since it was found that length of residence was associated with formal SP and since age parallels the former.

[3] Mayo and Marsh, op. cit., pp. 244-245.

included in this component were analyzed we might find that they more often attend or take part in such events as musicals, plays, supper-dinners, and card games. Perhaps some of these activities call for "segregation of the sexes" or are considered "more appropriate" for females. Furthermore, attendance and participation in semi-formal events may be such that they are considered "optional" or open choice as far as established prescriptions or expectations are concerned.

The finding that childless married respondents had higher semi-formal scores than married respondents with children is somewhat enigmatic. Firstly, it was thought that respondents with children would be drawn into activities sponsored by the school system or as a consequence of interest and attendance in children-associated activities. Perhaps this is the case, but other situational factors may well assume more importance. For example, due to the hypothesized "optional" nature of semi-formal events, they may be the first to be dropped or cut out of a busy family time schedule. Perhaps two other reasons are more important. Firstly, small children in the home greatly reduce the freedom of the parents and, secondly, some of these semi-formal activities (especially evening events) call for the attendance of both husband and wife (reminiscent of "dating") and require that a baby-sitter be brought into the home.

It was reasoned that if skills (mainly social) and predispositions learned in one area of type of residence were transferable to others of similar type, then respondents born in non-metropolitan areas would tend to have higher SP scores than respondents born in metropolitan areas. Yet type of birth place was not significantly associated with SP. It appears that type of profession and its concomitants override this supposition. That is, medical-legal professionals (more of whom are born in

metropolitan areas) have the higher SP, a point to which we shall return below.

NORC findings (based largely on urban samples) showed no relationship between length of residence and participation in voluntary associations. Yet the present study revealed significant differences in formal SP between long and short length residents. One explanation that suggests itself is that in rural areas this result may be due to a slower acceptance process of leaders and a more gradual and deepening commitment process.

It was expected that individuals preferring centers of 2,500 population or greater would exhibit significantly lower SP scores than those preferring centers of less than 2,500. Such was not the case. It appears that either preferred community size in terms of hypothetical possibilities is not an indication of CS or, if such an indication, it does not point to actual migration considerations or possibilities and withdrawal from SP. We shall have more to say regarding the effects some of these "attitudinal" variables have below.

The fact that respondents with high CS also had high formal SP but not high semi-formal and informal SP suggest several speculations. The nature of formal SP is perhaps such that it represents a more "public" type of commitment and involvement. An individual with an articulated and crystallized sense of negative CS might experience considerable dissonance in these kinds of activities. Yet it must be cautioned that to characterize low CS respondents as pessimists or social pariahs may constitute a misconstrual of the term. Low CS may reflect that degree of criticalness enjoyed and appreciated by fellow-men.

Number of inter-community moves in the last thirteen years did not

clearly distinguish between high and low social participators although the relationships obtained in the expected directions. Chapin[4] found that when people moved to new locations, net gains and losses were greatest in "extensive" SP (a term which he defines as monetary contributions to and office holding in such associations). Although the present analysis did not discern between extensive and intensive aspects of SP it was felt, via somewhat the same reasoning, that net losses in formal SP would be significantly greater for individuals having moved more often. It may be the case, however, that Chapin's respondents moved more often and/or that professionals' formal SP is not as greatly curtailed by moves since their occupations are among those with which most people espouse familiarity. They might therefore represent more interchangeable occupational groups.

Finally, we expected, after the SP items such as political office holding which gave advantage to medical-legal professionals were withheld from the analysis, that the social-helping professionals would exceed the technical-helping in SP scores. We based our hypothesis on the different type of work commitments we expected of the former type of profession. The opposite was the case and appeared especially marked for formal SP.[5] It appears that the hypothesis rationale should have been drawn from the fact that medical-legal professionals are characterized by higher status, power, and income. The prestige gained by and reflected in political assignments seems to "spill over" to the other formal SP activities and

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[4]Chapin, op. cit.

[5]The more detailed analysis of voluntary association membership by profession revealed the following results in terms of the following classification of these associations (the occupations are ranked for each type of association).

Type of Association	Profession				
	Dentists	Doctors	Lawyers	Ministers	Teachers
Civic-service	4	2	1	5	3
Economic	3	2	1	4	5
Fraternal	3	2	1	5	4
Literary-educational	*	*	2	2	1
Political	Very little activity reported				
Religious	*	*	2	*	1
Recreational	*	*	1	3	2
Social or convivial	*	1	*	*	2
Veterans-military	2	1	3	*	*

*Ranks were not computed when the number of organizations of a given type for a particular profession reached two or less. For convenience, tabulations for the present analysis were based on all the dentists and lawyers in the study and approximately a 50 per cent random-sample of doctors, ministers, and teacher; N = 102.

result in greater activity in the latter. It may also be the case that the social helping professions, being part of a school and church system, respectively, expend a considerable amount of time and energy into the maintenance of these systems.

Two questions might be raised at this point: One, "Are the factors affecting SP in urban areas (for professionals or different occupational groupings) coincident with those affecting SP in rural areas?" and, two, "Do we really know what influences or determines SP?" The first question might be answered if (research) already existed which would allow a comparison or if a control group of professionals in urban areas had been included in the present analysis. Unfortunately, no control group of the type suggested above was included in the study design. Except for the few comparisons with prior research discussed above it must be conceded that the present research cannot answer this question. These comparisons indicate that some of the present findings deviate appreciably from those

of prior research (almost all of which did not investigate the SP of professionals in any major way). These findings showed that: length of residence, size of place of residence, sex, CS, father's occupation, and type of profession were all significantly associated with SP; age and family size were not.

All of these findings were somewhat anomalous. Education and income, in consonance with prior research, were significantly associated with SP. It therefore appears, according to the present findings, that generalizations relating SP to other factors require qualifications when occupation, particularly professions, and type of residence are considered.

The second question prompts some discussion. It is assumed that the question does not ask for the existence of some entelechy or hidden forces. Some observers of human behavior might argue that SP is a function of certain personality types, such as the individual seeking recognition or power or the "extrovertish, outgoing" individual. Others might say that individuals are "pressured" into such participation. The latter locution may imply a perspective more consonant with the type taken in the present research. One of the basic assumptions of sociology is that the individual comes to behave according to group expectations and that certain social structures "require" (or individuals in social systems select) or "encourage" the activity of individuals having certain characteristics.

A serendipidous pattern (detected late in the analysis) would tend to support the relevance of sociologically dubbed variables in the explanation of SP. It will be recalled that the Group 2 hypotheses included the attitudinal and "subjective" characteristics of individuals. With the important exception of CS none of these variables exhibited a high degree of relationship to SP. The chi-square values obtained were

consistently low and therefore it can be maintained that these variables did not discriminate between high and low social participators. If the attitudinal variables are thought of as being more immediate (in their effect on behavior) and the Groups 1 and 3 variables as intermediate, then we are faced with the paradox of the more intermediate variables exhibiting a greater degree of association with SP behavior, even though it be granted that there are psychological processes and mechanisms not herein researched which mediate between behavior and social structure. It may be the case, on the other hand, that the attitudinal variables (with the exception of CS) were not carefully conceptualized and rigorously measured.

Finally, among the intermediate variables there are at least two which seem more removed than the others. These are father's occupational level and type of birth place. Perhaps it is the case that it is not these characteristics in and of themselves, but rather the characteristics concomitent with them which account for their being highly associated with SP.

Yet it must be granted that if explanation is conceived of as the process of finding the variables which account for the greatest amount of variance then the present research cannot boast great explanative claims concerning SP. The amount of the total variance accounted for by any single factor in the present study is extremely small. We are led to arrive at a conclusion very similar to one arrived at by Goldhamer in his analysis of participation in voluntary associations:

> It seems pretty clear from the data . . . that we have to do with an aspect of behavior whose determinant is the consequence of a relatively large number of factors whose influence on participation depends very much on the particular combination

of values of each variable that exists in the case of each individual.[6]

Future research might attempt to conceptualize other classes of variables (e.g., family background, personality, and situational variables, such as type of pressures or inducements) and interrelate them.[7] Such a program could be abetted by advances in unified social science. Theoretical developments in the future would also seek to bring together lower level sets of statements of association and "reduce" them to more general (theoretically implicating) propositions for test (such strategy would circumvent the problem of "spurious" correlations).

It is the final task of this thesis to discuss some of the limitations of the research. Such a discussion may note the alternative and supplementary types of analyses that might have been made as well as shortcomings of the present design and analysis.

Firstly, operating on the assumption that peer interactions and references have some effect on SP one might have tried a modest sociometric analysis of, e.g., visiting choices and determine whether high social participators visit with other high social participators. However, since names of persons visited or other identificatory markings were not solicited on the schedule this aspect of analysis was precluded.

Secondly, it might have been of interest to analyze more closely the effects which, e.g., a wide range of associational memberships have

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[6]Goldhamer thesis, op. cit., p. 122.

[7]Howard E. Freeman, Edwin Novak, and Leo G. Reeder ("Correlates of Membership in Voluntary Associations," American Sociological Review, 22:5 (October, 1957), pp. 528-533) stated in their research that "The use of a number of variables to measure social class fails to increase the power of class as a predicator of membership in voluntary associations." If this is indeed the case then it is important that other types of variables be explored.

on some of the intensive aspects (e.g., attendance) of such formal SP. One might suspect that the more associations belonged to, the less often does one attend each single one. An inquiry might also have been made as to whether the same individuals high on formal SP also tend to be high on semi-formal and informal SP also.

Thirdly, one might have attempted to analyze out certain professional types (by, e.g., professional involvement, orientation, or background) and determine whether or not such types account for a greater amount of SP variation or bring new insights into the dynamics of such participation.

Some of the shortcomings more "internal" to the research analysis are as follows. Firstly, a strict random sample from some finite universe some of whose characteristics were known might have enhanced the generalizability of the findings. The universe might have been selected due to its containing some characteristics or conditions thought to affect the behavior of professionals and as a result of the findings advance our knowledge in the area of social structure and behavior.

Secondly, some further attempts might have been made to establish the validity and reliability of the SP items used (i.e., both their selection and scoring). The present index could be commended for its inclusion of new areas of SP (especially formal SP) yet their reliability was not established. That some findings were significant for one type of SP but not others, suggests that the SP types used refer to somewhat differently determined modes of behavior and orientations.

Thirdly, though the present research goes beyond the social class variables (which are nearly always associated with SP in other research) in attempting to determine other factors associated with SP, the test of certain hypotheses although significant were nevertheless quite low. The

employment of new statistical techniques, such as factor analysis, correlation matrices, or multiple regression analysis[8] might have revealed more inter-relationship between both the variables of social class and others explored in this research. The result might have been that more of the variance was explained.

Lastly, the analysis of the CS variable might have been pursued further since it was associated with SP. Individual items of the inventory might have been related to separate professional groups or types of professionals cutting across professional affiliation. It might also be the case that in seeking to retain only those items meeting the unidimensionality criterion, we discarded valuable information. It is plausible that an analysis of all the items by way of other statistical techniques such as factor analysis might have revealed significant, distinct and heuristic loadings.

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[8] Suggested also by Freeman, Novak, and Reeder, op. cit.

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APPENDIX A

MICHIGAN MIGRATION STUDY
SCHEDULE C - RURAL PROFESSIONALS SURVEY

MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY
Department of Sociology and Anthropology

County Number _____
Town number _____
Schedule number C ____
Bud Bur. Number _____
Apprival expires _____

Many counties of Michigan are experiencing heavy out-migration from the rural population. Out-migration rates are particularly high among young people who have just completed high school. In many areas, it is almost a foregone conclusion that a large proportion of the young people of a community will leave soon after graduation. Therefore, most young people graduating from high school are faced with making decisions as to whether or not they will leave their home communities.

You may have heard that we have been in the schools in your county giving a questionnaire to seniors. We asked whether they planned to remain in or leave this community after school is out. If they plan to go to college, we asked questions about where they would go. If they planned to go to work, they told us where they had a job or would be looking for a job. If the boys will be in the military service, we asked about their plans after military service as to education and job aspirations.

Now, we'd like to ask you and we will be asking other _____ (profession) like yourself in several counties in Michigan, some questions about your contacts with young people of this community. What we are trying to determine is the influence professional people in communities such as this have on young people's decisions to stay or leave after they finish high school. To appraise this fully, we should like to ask you, also, some questions about yourself, your professional and community activities, and your feelings about the community in which you live, to give us a picture of the roles played by professional people in rural communities.

SECTION A - IDENTIFICATION

1. Your name _____ (First) (Middle) (Last)

2. Do you:
   Live on a farm? _____
   Live in the country, but not on a farm? _____
   Live in a village or town? _____

3. What is your mailing address? _____

4. Check:
   Male _____
   Female _____

5. What is your profession? _____

SECTION C - PROFESSIONAL AND COMMUNITY ACTIVITIES

Now we would like to ask some questions about your professional and community activities and about your occupational and other background.

Present Professional Organizations:

1. As a professional person you may have membership in professional organizations. Some examples, drawn from various professions, might be: The Michigan Educational Association, the American Medical Association, The American Bar Association, or honorary societies. Will you tell me the professional organizations to which you belong and the way in which you participate? If not a member of any such organization, check _____ here.

2. IF YES, fill in

Name of Organization	Length of membership	Offices you hold if any	Do you attend meetings?	Do you hold committee membership?

Local Community Groups or Clubs:

3. In addition to your professional affiliations you may also belong to or attend some local community groups or clubs. Examples might be the Chamber of Commerce, Kiwanis, Elks, literary groups, church groups, Veteran's groups, farm organizations, school groups, Country Club, winter sports club, etc. Will you please tell me the community organizations to which you belong and describe your participation. If you don't belong to any, check here. _____

Name of organization	Offices held or Committees		Times attended during past year
	Name	Approximate date	

4. Some of these organizations have county, state, and national organizations as well as the local group. Have you ever served on a committee or held office in the larger organization of any of these?

   Yes _____
   No _____

5. IF YES, fill in:

Name of organization	Office or committee	Approximate date

Community Projects:

6. Have you ever participated in the initiation or carrying out of community-wide projects (for example, school bond drives, attempts to get local industry, fund drives to build a recreational area in the community, etc.)

   Yes _____
   No _____

7. IF YES, list instances and describe how you participated.

_____

_____

_____

8. Do you feel that a person in your profession should do more, less, or about the same amount of community work that you do?

   More _____
   Less _____
   About the same _____

9. IF MORE OR LESS, why?

_____

_____

_____

10. In your opinion, how does the amount of community work done by people in your profession in this area compare with the amount of community work done by people in your profession in this area twenty years ago?

More _____
Less _____
About the same _____
No experience _____

11. IF MORE OR LESS, why?

_____

_____

_____

12-19. Do you feel that people in the other professions (Medical-Dental, Teaching, Ministerial, Legal) should do more (less, about the same amount of) community work as you do? (Ask only for other professions here.)

12.	14.	16.	18.
_____	_____	_____	_____
(Enumerator: Write in profession to which each column refers.)			
More _____	More _____	More _____	More _____
Less _____	Less _____	Less _____	Less _____
About the same _____	About the same _____	About the same _____	About the same _____
13. If more or less, why? _____	15. If more or less, why? _____	17. If more or less, why? _____	19. If more or less, why? _____
_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____

Local, State or National Offices or Activities:

20. Do you now, or have you in the past, held any elective or appointive office in local, state, or national government (for example, have you ever been mayor, member of school board, member of town council, member of legislature, judge, etc.)

Office held	Political unit*	Elective or Appointive	Dates held
_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____

*Township, County, State, National

Community Contacts:

21. During the course of the day most of us usually go to a particular place (coffee shop, post office, restaurant, or some other place) where we talk with several persons informally. These may not be the same people every day, but perhaps you see many of the same people there during the period of, say, a week.

Do you go to any such place?

Yes _____
No _____

22. Can you think of several persons whom you ordinarily see and talk with during the day at such a place?

Yes _____
No _____

IF YES, could you mention the occupations of a few of the persons you frequently talk with in such places? We are thinking of the informal type of contacts, rather than any you would have in the administration of your professional duties.

Occupation

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

4. _____

5. _____

23. About how many times a week do you go to these places to talk informally with people? _____

24. Besides visiting with other persons, most of us visit as a family group with other families. Could you tell us the occupations of the heads of any families with whom your family visited last month? If single, check here and go on to question 25. _____

Occupation of Family Head	Number of Visits per Month

Informal Group Activities:

25. Do you attend or take part in any of the following in your community?

Activity	Participation: Attend	Participation: Frequency
Athletic events (include local sport organizations)		
Card games		
Dances		
Movies		
Musical programs		
Plays		
Fairs		
Picnics		
Supper-dinners		
Parties		
Other (indicate type)		

26. How long have you lived in this community?

Years _____

27. How did you happen to locate here?

_____

_____

28. Did any aspects of the community enter into your decision to locate here?

Yes _____
No _____

29. IF YES, describe these aspects.

_____

_____

_____

30. As a place to live, how well do you like this community?

_____

_____

I like _____
I am indifferent _____
I dislike it _____

31. Which of the following best indicates the kind of community in which you would prefer to live? (Please check only one)

a. _____ In the open country

b. _____ In a village under 2,500
c. _____ In a city of 2,500 to 10,000
d. _____ In a city of 10,000-100,000
e. _____ In a city of over 100,000
f. _____ In a suburb outside a large city

Do you prefer the location to be hear a big city? Yes ___ No ___ If yes, how near? _____

Do you have any specific place in mind? No ____ Yes ____ (Where? _____)

If yes, why have you chosen that particular place? _____

_____

(SECTION D TO BE USED AT THIS POINT)

SECTION B - YOUTH AND MIGRATION

1. On the average, how frequently do you come into personal contact with young people of high school age (other than members of your immediate family)?

   Every day _____
   Not every day but at least once a week _____
   Less than once a week _____

2. Are these contacts resulting from your profession, apart from your profession, or both?

   Professional contacts _____
   Non-professional contacts _____
   Both _____

3. In the past five years, have you ever addressed groups of high school age? (For teachers - Have you addressed groups of high school age in other than the classroom situation?)

   Yes _____
   No _____

   A. IF YES, about how many times? _____

   B. IF YES, what was the general nature of these talks? _____

   _____

   _____

   _____

   C. Did you discuss opportunities and satisfactions of your own profession at all?

      Yes ____
      No ____
      Don't remember ____

   D. Did you point out any of the following in these talks?

	Yes	No	Don't recall
Advantages of living in this community	___	___	___
Disadvantages of living in this community	___	___	___
Occupational advantages here	___	___	___
Occupational advantages elsewhere	___	___	___

Now we would like to ask some questions about personal contacts you may have had with individual students and advice you may have given directly to them.

4. In the past five years have you ever discussed with individual high school students their possible occupational choices?

   Yes _____
   No _____

   A. IF YES, how frequently has this been? _____

   B. IF YES, please describe the last instance and tell briefly what your advice was _____

   _____

   C. After you advised this person, did he do as you advised?

      Yes _____
      No _____
      Don't know _____

   D. Do you think your advice influenced this person's decision?

      Yes _____
      No _____
      Don't know _____

5. In the past five years, have you ever advised a high school student to enter your profession?

   Yes _____
   No _____

   A. IF YES, about how frequently has this been? _____

   B. IF YES, would you tell us about the last instance, and tell briefly what your advice was _____

   _____

   C. After you advised this person, did he do as you advised?

      Yes _____
      No _____
      Don't know _____

   D. Do you think your advice influenced this person's decision?

      Yes _____
      No _____
      Don't know _____

6. In the past five years, have you ever advised a high school student not to enter your profession?

   Yes _____
   No _____

A. IF YES, about how frequently has this been? _____

B. IF YES, would you tell us about the last instance, and tell briefly what your advice was _____

_____

C. After you advised this person, did he do as you advised?

Yes _____
No _____
Don't know _____

D. Do you think your advice influenced this person's decision?

Yes _____
No _____
Don't know _____

7. In the past five years, have you ever advised high school students to go to college?

Yes _____
No _____

A. IF YES, about how frequently has this been? _____

B. IF YES, please cite the last instance and tell briefly what your advice was _____

_____

C. After you advised this person, did he do as you advised?

Yes _____
No _____
Don't know _____

D. Do you think your advice influenced this person's decision?

Yes _____
No _____
Don't know _____

8. In the past five years, have you ever advised high school students not to go to college?

Yes _____
No _____

A. IF YES, about how frequently has this been? _____

B. If YES, please cite the last instance and tell briefly what your advice was _____

_____

C. After you advised this person, did he do as you advised?

Yes _____
No _____
Don't know _____

D. Do you think your advice influenced this person's decision?

Yes _____
No _____
Don't know _____

9. In the past 5 years, have you ever advised high school students to leave this community for any reasons other than to go to college?

Yes _____
No _____

A. IF YES, about how frequently has this been? _____

B. IF YES, please cite the last instance and tell briefly what your advice was _____

_____

C. After you advised this person, did he do as you advised?

Yes _____
No _____
Don't know _____

D. Do you think your advice influenced this person's decision?

Yes _____
No _____
Don't know _____

10. In the past five years, have you ever advised high school students <u>not</u> to leave this community?

Yes _____
No _____

A. IF YES, about how frequently has this been? _____

B. IF YES, please cite the <u>last instance</u> and tell briefly what your advice was _____

_____

C. After you advised this person, did he do as you advised?

Yes _____
No _____
Don't know _____

D. Do you think your advice influenced this person's decision?

Yes _____
No _____
Don't know _____

SECTION E - INFORMATION ABOUT YOURSELF

Now, if you will supply some personal information about yourself, this interview will be completed.

1. (a) What was your age at your last birthday?

   (b) What was your place of birth? City _____ County _____ State _____

2. Where did you reside during the major portion of your childhood?

   On farm _____
   In open country, but not on farm _____
   In town, under 2,500 _____
   In town, 2,500 to 25,000 _____
   In city, 25,000 to 50,000 _____
   In city, 50,000 or over _____

3. What is the highest number of years of school you completed?

High school	College	Graduate or Professional School
1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	Yes _____ No _____

4. Will you tell me about any schooling or special training you have had beyond the high school level. For instance, where did you go to: College, Junior College, Business School, Graduate and Professional School, Correspondence School, Night School.

Name of Institution	Your Major	Degree you Received?	Year degree received?

Family Composition

5. What is your present marital status?

   Single _____
   Married _____
   Other _____

6. If ever married, how many children do you have? _____ (number)

7. How many of these children are . . . (write number)

   Of preschool age _____ In college _____
   In grades 1-8 _____ Employed _____
   In grades 9-12 _____ Other _____

8. Now we would like to know something about your occupational history since 1945. Starting with your present position, use the following table to describe positions you have held.

Job Title	Duration of Job From	To	Size of Community (Population)	State, or County if Michigan

9. What were the important influences on your decision to enter this profession?

For field coding by interviewer.

a. ___ Encouraged by family
b. ___ Advised by friends
c. ___ Suggested by school study
d. ___ Suggested by motion pictures
e. ___ Suggested by TV or radio
f. ___ Suggested by magazines or books
g. ___ Same occupation or business as my father
h. ___ Interest developed from experience
i. ___ Most profitable work I could get
j. ___ Suggested by counselor
k. ___ Admired someone in this job
l. ___ Other (indicate) _____

10. If any persons were indicated as being influential, ask who were most influential in your decision to enter your present profession?

Person	Occupation	If relative, give relation

11. In what ways or how did these persons influence your decision?

12. What is your father's occupation? (If retired or deceased, indicate his major occupation during his lifetime.) _____

13. Could you tell us in which of the following classes your 1957 gross income fell?

a. ____ Less than $3,000
b. ____ $3,000 - $3,999
c. ____ $4,000 - $5,999
d. ____ $6,000 - $6,999
e. ____ $7,000 - $9,999
f. ____ $10,000 - $14,999
g. ____ $15,000 - $19,999
h. ____ $20,000 and over

SECTION D - COMMUNITY YOU LIVE IN NOW

All of us have feelings about the community in which we live; there are things in it that we like and things that we do not like. We should like to have your honest opinion about the following questions as they apply to the community you live in.

1. Below is a list of statements that express opinions about any given community. Read each item carefully. Then quickly check the phrase that most nearly represents <u>your personal belief about the community</u> in which you live. In each statement, think in terms of the <u>majority</u> rather than any single exception you may have about it.

	Strongly agree	Agree	Un-decided	Disagree	Strongly disagree
A. Anything of a progressive nature is generally approved.	___	___	___	___	___
B. With few exceptions the leaders are capable and ambitious.	___	___	___	___	___
C. It is difficult for the people to get together on anything.	___	___	___	___	___
D. The people as a whole mind their own business	___	___	___	___	___
E. Everyone helps to decide how things should be run.	___	___	___	___	___
F. The future of the community looks bright.	___	___	___	___	___
G. The clergymen in the community exert strong spiritual leadership.	___	___	___	___	___
H. The high school teachers in the community are equal to teachers anywhere.	___	___	___	___	___
I. No one seems to care how the community looks.	___	___	___	___	___
J. It will never seem like home to me.	___	___	___	___	___

	Strongly agree	Agree	Un-decided	Disagree	Strongly disagree
K. Quite a number of the residents have really amounted to something.	____	____	____	____	____
L. Persons with real ability are usually given recognition.	____	____	____	____	____
M. Not much can be said in favor of a place this size.	____	____	____	____	____
N. The church services as a rule are well worth attending.	____	____	____	____	____
O. The community is not located in a very desirable place.	____	____	____	____	____
P. A person has to leave town in order to have a good time.	____	____	____	____	____
Q. There are not many families you would care to marry into.	____	____	____	____	____
R. Few, if any, of the neighboring towns are able to surpass it.	____	____	____	____	____
S. People have to do without adequate shopping facilities.	____	____	____	____	____
T. The doctors in the community are well-trained and competent.	____	____	____	____	____
U. The lawyers and attorneys in the community are equal to those anywhere.	____	____	____	____	____

GUTTMAN SCALE-TYPES, SAMPLE 1

Res. I D.	Response Pattern 87654321	Scale-Type	Errors	Res. I D.	Response Pattern 87654321	Scale-Type	Errors
168	xxxxx xx	8	1	004	xxxx	4	0
207	xxxxx xx	8	1	200	x xxxx	4	1
110	xxxxxx x	8	1	098	xxxx	4	0
123	xxxxxxxx	8	0	196	xxxx	4	0
106	xxxxxxxx	8	0	104	x xx	4	1
190	xxxxx xx	8	1	055	x xx x	4	2
182	xx xxxxx	8	1	037	x x	4	2
060	xx xxxxx	8	1	045	x x xxx	3	2
111	xxx xxx	7	1	006	xxx	3	0
069	xxxx xx	7	1	011	xxx	3	0
105	xxxxxxx	7	0	073	x xxx	3	1
222	xxxxxxx	7	0	126	xxx	3	0
129	xxx x	7	3	074	xxx	3	0
101	xxxxxx	6	0	121	x xx	2	1
184	x xxxx	6	1	203	xx	2	0
131	xxxxxx	6	0	195	xx	2	0
080	x xxxxx	6	1	173	xx	2	0
155	xxxxxx	6	0	021	x xx	2	1
116	xxx xx	6	1	112	xx	2	0
100	xxx xx	6	1	041	xx	2	0
031	xx xx	6	2	221	xx	2	0
147	x xxxxx	5	1	050	x	2	1
064	x xxxxx	5	1	051	x x x	1	2
135	xx xx	5	1	175	x	1	0
102	x x xxx	5	2	128	x x	1	1
144	x xx xx	5	2	148	x x	1	1
077	x xx xx	5	2	136	x x	1	1
218	xx xx	5	1	039	x x	1	1
142	xxxxx	5	0	054	x x	1	1
088	x xx xx	5	2	177	x	1	0
079	x xxxxx	5	1	154	x	1	0
149	x xxx x	5	2	186	x x	1	1
159	x xxx	5	1	134	x x	1	1
143	xx xx	5	1	165	x	1	0
038	x xxxxx	5	1	191	x	1	0
030	xxxxx	5	0	164	x	1	0
056	x x xxx	5	2	019	x	1	0
044	xxxxx	5	0	018	x x	0	2
156	xx xx	5	1	076	x x	0	2
140	x x xxx	5	2	172		0	0
042	xx xxxx	4	2	036		0	0
091	x xxxx	4	1	009	xx	0	2
053	x xxxx	4	1	008	x	0	1
113	xxxx	4	0	079		0	0
012	xxxx	4	0	193	x	0	1
202	xxxx	4	0	150	xx	0	2
087	x xx	4	1	118		0	0
083	xxxx	4	0	058		0	0
075	xxxx	4	0	151	x	0	1
072	x xx	4	1	049		0	0

GUTTMAN SCALE-TYPES, SAMPLE 2*

Res. I D.	Response Pattern 87654321	Scale Type	Errors	Res. I D.	Response Pattern 87654321	Scale Type	Errors
023	xxxxxxx	8	0	067	xx	2	0
022	xxx xx	7	1	014	x xxx	5	1
152	x xxxxx	7	1	153	x xx	2	1
124	xx xx x	8	3	176	xx x	5	2
210	xxxxxx	7	0	163	xx xxx	3	2
035	xxxx xxx	8	1	127	xxxxx	3	0
119	xx xxxxx	8	1	125	xxx	3	3
117	xx x x	6	2	114	xxxxx	5	0
211	xxxx x	7	2	061	xxxxx	8	3
183	x x xx	2	2	028	x xxx	3	1
166	xx x xxx	8	2	017	x xx	2	1
217	xxx xx	6	1	201	x xx	4	1
170	xx xxx	3	2	178	x x	1	1
097	xx x	4	1	167	xxxxx	5	0
063	xxxxx	5	0	115	xxxxx	5	0
095	xx x xx	7	2	109	xx xx	5	1
043	x x xxx	5	2	048	x xx	4	1
145	xx x x	3	3	040	x xxx	3	1
065	xx xxx	6	1	214	x xx xx	5	2
033	x xxxxx	5	1	096	xxxxxx	6	0
212	xxx	3	0	089	x x x	3	2
198	x x xxx	5	2	204	xxx	3	0
138	x x xxx	5	2	085	xx x	5	2
068	x xx	2	1	034	xx x	4	1
220	xxxxxx	7	0	216	x x	1	1
188	xxxx	4	0	199	xx x x	2	4
174	x xxx	5	1	192	xx	3	1
161	xxxx x	6	1	187	x xx	2	1
146	xx xxx	4	2	158	xxx	5	2
066	x x	1	1	133	xxx	3	0
013	x x xx	4	2	130	x	1	0
219	x x x xx	4	3	059	xxx	3	0
195	xx xxxx	7	1	029	xxxxx	5	0
157	xxx xx	6	1	162	xxx	3	0
081	x xx	2	1	103	xx	2	0
213	x xxxxx	5	1	223	xx x	5	2
194	x xxxxx	5	1	205	x xx x	5	3
062	x xx	4	1	189	x x	3	1
181	x x	0	2	141	xxx x	5	1
137	x x x	3	2	078	xx	3	1
120	xx x	0	3	025	xx	2	0
082	xx x	5	2	226	x	1	0
016	x x	1	1	122	xx x x	7	3
224	x xxxx	4	1	180	xxx	3	0
215	xxxxxx	6	0	160	xx x	1	2
090	xx x x	3	3	057	x	1	0

*Scale types are not ranked as they are in Sample 1.

Res. I. D.	Response Pattern	Scale Type	Errors
	87654321		
024	xx	4	2
036	x	1	0
052	x x	1	1
026	x x	4	2
010	x	1	0
007	x	0	1
002	xx	2	0
171	xx	2	0
107	x x	1	1
027	xxx	3	0
139	x x	0	2
001	x x	1	1
020		0	0

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