EDUCATION AND THE SOCIAL MEANING OF DEVELOPMENT: A PRELIMINARY STATEMENT

by

K. H. Silvert and Frank Bonilla

of the

American Universities Field Staff

With the professional collaboration of:

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Virginia Ktsanes
Frieda M. Silvert

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1961

ERRATA

The following are corrections of errors in text:

Page 20, line 16 --
agent of change. At the same time every education-

Page 27, line 8 --
three aspects of orientation to nation

Page 33, line 18 --
this transverse cut from the very top to the lowest levels

Page 43, line 10 --
of response is far less typical among favelados, who tend

Page 103, line 3 --
ascend to 82 per cent among those in the stable group as

Page 129, line 15 --
substantiated once again throughout these eight samples.

Page 309, footnote --
We acknowledge our indebtedness to the work of Robert North and Paul K. Hatt in this respect.

Page 317, lines 18 and 19 --
A. Church versus State (affirmative answers "positive" for index except in the case of Mexico)

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INTRODUCTORY NOTE

This study was undertaken both for the purpose of contributing materially to policy discussions by responsible Latin American governmental officials on the subejct of education and economic and social development, and in order to make an academic contribution to theory and information concerning the social problems and processes of development. This presentation discharges only the first of these obligations, consisting in a preliminary statement only of data which will need more detailed analysis and longer and more subtle discussion before final presentation in the future.

Preliminary planning for this research began in the early months of 1960 upon the initiative of UNESCO-Western Hemisphere, concerned then as now with the furtherance of its far-ranging work on educational problems within Latin America. The Carnegie Corporation of New York also then interested itself in this matter through the agency of the American Universities Field Staff; the Corporation's action was consistent with its encouragement of studies of education, the general problems of emergent nations, and their possible influence upon the United States. Subsequently the United Nations' Economic Commission for Latin America and the Organization of American States joined with UNESCO-Western Hemisphere in the joint sponsorship of an international meeting on Education and Economic and Social Development planned for the last month of 1961 for which this study has been specifically prepared. This research, although of course not formally sponsored by these international agencies, was aided in

its undertaking by the official assistance of responsible officers both of UNESCO and ECLA, to whom we offer our thanks at this time.

The purpose of this study is primarily to present an operational definition of social development, to suggest patterns of relationship among the economic and social aspects of development and the educational institution, and to present sufficient original data in support of the several basic hypotheses to permit of some extended discussion on a subject as yet little studied anywhere in the world, let alone Latin America.

The accomplishment of the research on which this report is based could not have been realized without the assistance of many persons in the four Latin American countries in which thw work was undertaken. We wish to thank the university and government officials concerned for their permission to work within the institutions and offices for which they are responsible, as well as for their many and unfailing courtesies in facilitating the necessarily bothersome procedures involved in the taking of surveys. The Atlas Elevator Company of Sao Paulo, Brazil, must also be thanked for its great generosity in allowing some of its skilled workers to be interviewed during normal working hours.

We are grateful to Mr. William Marvel of the Carnegie Corporation of New York for the imagination which impelled him to initiate and continue to support this work, and for the consummate courtesy of his relations with us throughout.

Tulane University also assisted with the free giving of computer time, and the American Universities Field Staff has been generous in encouragement and indulgent in permission to adjust to the necessities imposed by this work.

K.H.S. and F.B.

PART I

THE STUDY DESIGN

National development -- the growth of national societies out of traditional to modern forms of social organization -- is a total phenomenon involving a coherent set of adjustments among economic, social, and political institutions in which the whole cannot be expected automatically to prosper as the result of the stimulation of one or more of the parts. The awareness of the all-embracing nature of development has grown with the repeated failure of Latin American economic institutions to reach that self-sustaining level which alone can satisfy the widespread and pressing aspirations for the material benefits of industrial society. Even such old economic leaders as Argentina, Uruguay, and Chile have failed to transmute their sometimes striking economic advances into social and political stability and growth, and consequently have relapsed into grave economic crises as well. These ills of the economically better-off countries have given rise to doubts about the coming course of events in such nations as Mexico, Venezuela, and Brazil, whose rapid economic expansion is of more recent date but in which major problems of social and political adjustment have arisen to threaten the future course of internal economic development.

The consciousness of this economic frustration and the necessity for taking total social phenomena into account have often given rise to a certain intellectual petulance, evidenced in the desire to consider social and political facts only as they may be impediments to economic development. The view is often easily taken that economic measures undertaken to stimulate growth have been good "in themselves" but have failed because of rigidities or irrationalities or sheer stubborness from "outside" the economic "system." The pressure of international events has also pushed governments into promoting social development as a defense against tendencies toward unwanted political change. Both attitudes are negative; it is as though we were saying that the naked and easily understandable ends of economic development or political reliability can be pursued in undisturbed tranquillity if only other social factors were not around to create disturbance.

One of the reasons for our relative inability to include broad social questions in economic developmental plans is the presumption that economic factors are "basic" to other social change, and "primarily" causative of other social happenings. The practice of presuming that social factors do not have to be taken into more than marginal account has become deeply implanted for certain

kinds of social change are thought to flow automatically from economic development. Now that it has become abundantly clear that such a one-to-one correlation does not exist, and that economic development can grind to a halt with seeming independence of the intensity of the economic stimuli being applied, a more realistic view of the full complexity of the total concept of development is beginning to emerge.

Interest in what is now popularly called "social development" is not, of course, really new either to Latin America or to the world's developed nations. What is novel is the attempt to integrate social with economic planning. Increased literacy, extended educational systems, higher levels of consumption, access to the sites of political power, and a general extension of social services for long have been quite generally accepted as vital to the Latin American public welfare. These criteria of social development are certainly relevant indices of social development in a diagnostic sense, but they are not entirely satisfactory from the viewpoint of the practical as well as theoretical demands of the scholar and the social programmer. Their insufficiency lies not in a lack of pertinence, but rather in that they are separate indicators of social gains and do not constitute a set of concepts necessarily related inherently one to

another or to basic features of social structure. The existence of one indicator at a high level (literacy, for instance) does not indicate the necessary existence of any other (access to the sites of political power, for example). These measures of social conditions, then, gain analytical significance only when systematically linked to the dynamics of individual and group behaviour within the interplay of the institutional structure.

At a minimum, standard social statistics can serve in developmental analysis as a statement of either a set of goals to be followed or a number of steps to be taken to assure the requisite levels of social equality and acceptance required to maintain complex economic systems. The necessity for the construction of theoretical hypotheses naturally enters with the attempt to define that very minimum level of social sharing and commitment. But a general conceptual theory of social development must depart from an understanding of the play of cohesive and divisive forces at work in the total society -- that is, from the primary facts of the changing nature of social class and of the emergence of new supra-class loyalties. We have chosen to emphasize social structure and normative change in the belief that this approach to a definition of social development is of higher predictive value, yields more rational bases for the determination of priorities in programming,

and is less liable to the skewing of ideological belief and disciplinary conviction than a more selective and necessarily less generalizable formulation based on existing social statistics or commonly pronounced policy objectives.

If we choose not to center our interest on immediate policy, it does not follow that we are seeking the other extreme by advancing questions of ultimate social causation. We have started with the simple assumption that a fundamental change in any one social institution must affect all the remainder. We thus do not address ourselves to the question of whether an economic shift -- or a social or a political one -- is basic to others, or whether the social process is a result of the actions of great men or of historical accident. This reduced focus emphasizes the necessity for seeking out inter-institutional links and for studying social relationships and change.

If we are not searching for the first causes of institutional change, we are also not advancing a universal definition of social development. Our data and conclusions and thus our theory are all related to the Latin American scene.

Social and Economic Development Related.

In the fullest sense we understand the ultimate aspiration of Latin America for economic development as being no less than the rationalization of all production in accordance with available resources at the technological level characterizing the already developed world. The gap between Latin America's present economic position and that stated aspiration is not nearly so great as in many other parts of the non-industrialized world. We are not speaking of jumping straight from hunting-and-fishing societies to automation, but rather from partial development and partial integration of the techniques of modernism into the stage of self-sustained movement toward those production and consumption goals which can rationally be expected from the relationship of advanced technology and the available human and material resources of Latin America. If the yardstick is the presently developed world, then we may also expect the following universal characteristics of that stage of economic growth to come increasingly to apply to Latin America:

(a) Rationalization of industrial, agrarian and management Techniques. Accompanying this change is the growth of bureaucratization, bringing order into the complex productive and distributive functions and creating new interest groups that

further complicate the political and social class structures.

(b) The growth of industrial urbanization and the increased interdependence of city and countryside.

(c), Devices for the encouragement of the accumulation of capital and its rational investment, a parallel development of a free labour market for the ordered movement of that factor of production, and the widespread acceptance and legal guarantee of contract to stabilize capital and labour investments through time.

(d) A higher order of complexity at all levels: increased occupational specialization, round-about production, diffused markets, and so forth.

(e) And, on the consumer side, higher consumption standards and a greater variety of consumer's goods, the strictly economic rewards of deferring consumption for the sake of educational or other capital investment purposes.

The fact must be underscored that these economic processes fragment and divide society, but that they also order society in new ways. In addition, new constraints produce new freedom of choice. These economic innovations in Latin America in-

evitably create new powers, give rise to wider choices in training, occupation, living place, and consumption habits, and increase the need for human interdependence, mutual understanding, and the common acceptance of a complex set of implicit social rules.

The economic events of development affect the primary facts of social development at their two most basic points:

(a) Increased occupational specialization and new economic powers contribute to changing the nature of class and other social divisions;

(b) Increased and simultaneous fragmentation and interdependence demand a new set of social values to maintain conflict within bounds in order to permit sustained forward movement.

Social Development and Social Structure in Latin America. If we accept the Weberian assumption that class position is defined by a composite of tacit or overtly expressed economic, social, and political powers, then it follows that new sources of economic influence force a redefinition of the relative weights of the other constellations of power involved in this trinity. Persons whose economic power is raised by industrialization, for example, are notorious for their wish to bring their social and political positions into line with their new occupational status. The same complex

pressures for adjustment rise among newly formed industrial workers' groups whose drive for unionization everywhere is a response to new occupational stimuli. A society poised for development in a class sense, then, is one whose social structure responds to the changing nature of power in one area with a reasonably ready reflection in the others. If the increased economic power of a given group is not met with a fitting rise in the effective political and status expectations of that group, then social tension and instability is certain to result. This imbalance may also flow from a change in the conceptualization of political ideology which may give added persuasive power to certain groups already possessed of some measure of either formal or informal access to the political institution. Intellectuals, for instance, may gain added potential political power by their capacity to formulate ideology. If they are forbidden access to the formal political institution itself or denied economic gratification, they may (and indeed on many occasions do) become a revolutionary force.

We may expect to find in Latin America examples of three types of relationships between social change and the social structure:

(a) Societies in which the traditional structure remains dominant because of the paucity of

stimuli for change and their absorption by members of an elite holding a virtual monopoly of economic, social, and political powers. These elites may be closed or open in terms of access, but their most important characteristic in this respect is their ability to contain what change has occurred and to absorb or destroy potential oppositions, at least for the time. (Honduras, Nicaragua, the Dominican Republic, Haiti, and Paraguay come immediately to mind; El Salvador is the marginal case of such a traditional structure under strong attack from new aspirant groups.) Subordinate elements in these societies, whether distinguished racially or not from the superordinate groups, tend to be alienated from the "national" society or indeed to be totally unaware of its existence as an integrated and organized entity.

(b) Dual and partially competing social structures, in which new groups have grown up alongside the old. Persons of great economic power in such double systems may be either landowners or factory owners, often competing for political and social supremacy. Middle groups tend to divide between those in traditional service and professional occupations, and those employed in the new industries and services; and lowers divide sharply between those persons rooted to the soil or engaged in menial

urban occupations, and others identified with the new industries. This kind of dual structure provides some social felxibility and an effective channeling of conflict, but it is essentially a transitional form. Although highly characteristic of such physically large nations as Mexico and Brazil, where regional factors indubitably influence favourably the chances for such a double system, even relatively centralized Chile demonstrates some aspects of this duality, as evidenced most clearly, for example, in the history of its political party structure.

(c) Quasi-industrial class systems showing strong imbalances among the social, political and economic constituents of class position. These situations are inherently highly unstable, defining as they do cases of extreme resistance to the opening of the social structure to new groups clamouring with strength derived from an already important postion in at least one area of social activity. The recent political history of Argentina has been described in these terms, as involving the denial to an industrial proletariat of reasonable life-chances for themselves and their children in the social and political spheres after they had already consolidated their positions as upwardly mobile and productive in the economic arena. The drawing of very sharp class

distinctions, based almost invariably on status and political lines once economic advance has begun, is to introduce a caste-like resistance into mobility and to invite disturbance.

This view of class is also necessary to a full understanding of the psychological components of social mobility, a movement which may be satisfied on only one front in the short run, but which in the long run must be gratified on all fronts. Several other cautions must be interpellated here concerning social mobility in Latin America before we turn to the discussion of mobility and education in more detailed fashion:

(a) Demographic class growth and upward mobility should be distinguished clearly as two distinct manners of increasing the sizes of newly growing groups. In the first case, Latin America's present demographic explosion serves to increase the physical size of social groups, thus at least partially obviating the necessity for recruiting from other almost invariably lower social levels. This quantitative expansion very often has been so great as to work a real qualitative change in the groups affected, of course, but does not lead to the result of social mobility itself in fomenting interclass understandings.

(b) Individual life experience and group mobility should also be distinguished. The first describes the change in social position of an individual, an event possible in most societies. The second refers to a movement of large groups which changes the nature of society. The incidence and quality of this mass mobility are of the essence of social development.

Social Values and Social Development. We have noted some of the major differences defining structural development in the economic and social areas. Since we are speaking of a higher order of specialization of function and thus of a greater complexity, we also have assumed the existence of a greater number of possible divisive factors in a developed than in an underdeveloped society. Logic suggests that these occurrences also will be accompanied by certain types of apposite social understandings. Despite the apparent increase of conflict areas, all social systems also include clusters of values defining the terms of social cohesion. In the case of developing societies, the questions we must ask concern the nature of these ties, their fragility or strength and flexibility, and the ease with which they may adjust in the face of increasing complexity.

Most social loyalties are extended to a given group or groups occupying a physical area of one or another kind. Although not all identifications concern contemporaries within physically defined limits, the most important practical developmental values are of this type. The site of industrial society is, for most practical purposes, the nation-state; within that arena occur the primary changes in economic structure commonly defined as "development," as well as changes in the nature, number, and relationships of social classes.

> "The nation is today the largest community which, when the chips are down, effectively commands men's loyalties, overriding the claims both of the lesser communities within it and those which cut across it or potentially enfold it within a still greater society, reaching ultimately to mankind as a whole. In this sense the nation can be called a 'terminal community,' with the implication that it is for present purposes the effective end of the road for man as a social animal, the end point of working solidarity between men... Within it there is the assumption of peaceful settlement of disagreement, based on the

supreme value of human unity ,[1]......"

This empasis upon the effective scope of societies undergoing development is crucial to development theory in establishing the quality and limits of the interacting cohesive and divisive factors which undergo fundamental change in the process of development. The role of the state in the total process of development also cannot be adequately analyzed without understanding the full extent of the relationship between "government" and "nation-state."

Common to all already developed countries is the implicit assumption that the state is the ultimate institutional repository of worldly loyalty, and thus also the last resort for the settlement of human dispute. This premise of conduct is further based upon the acceptance of the value that certain areas of human endeavour can be rationally assessed best in terms of total social interest rather than of only class interest. Nationalism, viewed thus in its very broadest sense, is the key value of social cohesion related to industrial development as it has historically occurred.

1. Rupert Emerson, From Empire to Nation: The Rise to Self-Assertion of Asian and African Peoples, Cambridge: 1960. pp. 94-95

Because the term "nationalism" is employed in so many senses and with so many overtones, we must be very precise in our usage. The concept may be subdivided into the following categories:

(a) Nationalism can be defined in legal terms alone, especially those referring to questions of sovereignty and nationality. These aspects of the matter do not concern us.

(b) Nationalism is sometimes defined in symbolic terms alone, especially with relationship to the symbols of nationhood, the love of geographical area, and the other affective aspects of identification with objects. We consider these symbols of the nation as levers for the discovery of functional elements more centrally concerned with the process of development.

(c) Nationalism can be defined as a loyalty value with two faces: identification with all the fellow-citizens involved in explicitly recognized common activities; and acceptance of the state as the highest institutionalized secular authority. This sense of the term is the most important for our purposes, for it is this function which brings order into the complexity of development and submits class conflict to the stronger control of social loyalty in general and to the organized power of the political institution specifically. While in the last century these feelings of cohesion mobilized only

upper and middle groups, the "massification" of society and new technology have combined to force a redefinition of the "social nation" as including substantially all nationals as genuine citizens embraced within the system of mutually extended loyalties and mutually recognized basic rights and duties.

The presence or absence of this value may be determined operationally in the testing of attitudes toward social conflict, in the ability of individuals to project themselves into the situations of others at a relatively far remove socially, and in the acceptance of an area susceptible to empirical and rational human decision through the agency of a political mechanism viewed as at least partially neutral and objective. This mutual loyalty also must evidence itself, to be truly effective, in the recognition of minimum rights considered as common to all in the extended society. This base involves not only juridical equality before the law as a living ideal, but also the belief in a reasonably adequate educational platform for all and the general provision of those social services that may provide a cushion against hardship and a springboard to progress for persons from all walks of life. These aspects of the matter are

not mere reflections of political ideology or hortatory statements, but are integral to a working mechanism which erases caste divisions, permits identifications across class lines, and prevents the growth of social distance which may inhibit that continued minimum of loyalty to the normal operations of the social system. We also suggest, of course, that it is at this point that we may best include standard indices of social development (such as literacy, number of radios, etc.) within a theoretical framework so that they may gain fuller meaning.

(d) Nationalism may also be defined as ideology, the most common usage of all and the one which has given the term its bad odour. The ideologies of nationalism tend to be emulative, romantic, and formalistic in the early stages of development when elite groups are usually in singlehanded control. These ideologies usually become very harsh, exclusivistic, and xenophobic when colonial regimes are being overthrown or during the process of the incorporation of large new masses into the effectively operating nation. Once economic and social structural stability has been achieved, the ideologies of nationalism once again tend to become blunted except when the nation is threatened from within by social dissolution (as in the case of Nazi Germany) or when threatened from abroad. It may be stated

as a generalization that the ideologies of nationalism lose their harshness and repressiveness to the extent that the acceptance of the role of the state as a mediator becomes an implicit value guiding social action.

The internalization of the value of nationalism not only softens the ideologies of nationalism, but also serves to change the nature of political power as economic development changes the nature of economic power. The largely automatic and unquestioning role of the state as arbiter hugely increases the amount of anticipated obedience a government may expect as the result of its mandates, and implies a corresponding decrease in the sheer physical quantity of police power which must be brought to bear to enforce decisions. The result is not only a vastly increased range of possible political decisions, but also the heightened necessity on the part of the state to guarantee the at least tacit approval of the citizenry. This continued tacit acceptance may be gained in authoritarian or democratic fashions, but its necessity constantly increases with the emergence of modern complexity.

Great confusion often surrounds this point, for nationalism is readily identified with totalitarianism, and some advocates confound it as often with democracy. A fair degree of identifica-

tion and commitment is, of course, a necessary but insufficient condition for democracy, as well as for totalitarianism. It is the necessary condition for any modern, industrial society, and therefore the necessary (but insufficient) condition for any of the forms of governance which can characterize such modern, industrial societies.

Education as an Agent of Change. The faith in the possibility of producing fundamental social change through education is not new to Latin America, and there is no question that as a prime mover in the transmission of new skills and the modification and replacement of old values, education is potentially a most powerful agent of change. At the same time very educational system is a reflection of the society it serves; it has conservative as well as innovative functions. There is no justification for the assumption that "more" or "higher" education is in itself an unfailing good, invariably linked to the social values that promote change supportive of economic development. The affirmation of the need for planning implies a recognition that the insufficiency and inadequacy of present educational efforts is seriously inhibiting development. Insofar as an important element of that insuf-

ficiency is understood to consist of the failure to produce changes in attitude and commitment to new values, planners must perforce begin to grapple with the complexities of the relationships between particular kinds of educational experiences and the presence or absence of values associated with the process of change. Since that process is, as has been shown, inherently both integrative and disruptive, an important part of the task becomes one of identifying the extent to which educational systems are creating new bases of solidarity or cementing the existing forms of class division.

Without question the lack of education is an effective barrier shutting out large numbers in Latin America from the production and consumption opportunities opening up for the fortunate few already within the developed sectors. More is involved here than providing the requisite minimum of primary schooling that equips the individual to receive and follow instructions, to learn the simple routines and procedures indispensable for work within an organization. With this minimum of competence must go the minimum motivation and sense of self worth and importance to the society that make for individual mobility striving and a genuine sense of participation in the process of national growth. As long as the primary school fails to reach large numbers and

to inspire the kind of social commitment that can mitigate the tensions of existing inequalities, the chances for peaceful social change in Latin America increasingly diminish. Thus the primary school, while not a major contributor to individual mobility or structural shifts in class relationships, has a fundamental job of social promotion in the incorporation into the national community of heretofore marginal elements.

It is the secondary school and the university that have been generally regarded as principal avenues of social ascent, though the fragmentary evidence available indicates that in Latin America schooling at these levels has worked more often to certify inherited advantages than to expand social and economic opportunities. Again the problem is not simply one of assessing the extent to which higher education is opening the way to more rewarding occupations for some individuals or even one of weighing the capacity of the schools to produce the specialized technical and managerial manpower required by the advanced industrial economy. Motivation and competence are required for new political and social roles as well as for productive work at the higher levels of the industrial society.

Even if there were not so many competing and overlapping sources of normative change, it is no easy task to try to determine reliably just how effectively education at all levels in Latin America is functioning as a generator of new values and of new definitions of traditional standards of behaviour. But to pose the problem in terms less direct than these is to deny foundation to the belief in the efficacy of educational planning.

Research Strategy

Once the main lines of theory explained above were established, the task was to produce within the limits of the time and resources available a research design that would maximize opportunities to illustrate and test the capacity of the theory to organize and explain central aspects of social development - particularly the ways in which education might be promoting and hindering the general process of change at different levels. It is worth noting that the survey studies to be described here were explicitly designed to accompany and complement the work of other scholars. A major virtue of the conceptual approach taken was precisely that it provided for the systematic incorporation of historical and institutional information at all stages of the research that relied primarily on survey techniques.

Three major decisions had to be made in the initial planning; i.e.,

1. the choice of countries in which survey studies were to be carried out;

2. the choice of the populations to be sampled within those countries;

3. the choice as to the kinds of information to be sought from the groups sampled.

Argentina and Chile were included as representative of countries with the longest and most extensive industrial experience in Latin America. Both usually figure among the top three in any ranking of Latin American nations with respect to practically any index of economic or social development. Yet growth in both countries has lagged seriously in recent years; the advantage gained by their early start in industrialization has been gradually dwindling. Mexico and Brazil, the two other survey countries, are in the midst of a process of rapid industrial growth which shows especial vitality in the latter. In both countries the pace and nature of contemporary change is that of the newly industrializing nation, while Argentina and Chile have already moved into the kinds of social tensions and growth problems common in more mature, industrialized countries.

In Argentina the research focus was directed to individuals exercising and preparing for work in major professions - in medicine, the exact sciences, and the world of business. In Chile

the teaching profession at all levels - primary, secondary and university - was singled out for attention. Mexico provided one group influential in shaping national policy - the legislators. Under scrutiny in Brazil were the emergent professional industrial managers, skilled workers, and the pool of unskilled labour (favelados) driving the nation's burgeoning productive appartus. The choice of these widely divergent groups, it was felt, did not seriously magnify the theoretical and methodological difficulties that would have been faced if the same groups had been studied in every country. On the other hand, it made possible manifold gains in analytical leverage by enormously multiplying the opportunities for significant comparisons. The twelve groups looked at from different perspectives represent:

1. Upper, middle, and lower class elements in the Latin American class structure (e.g. in Brazil and Chile) as well as sectors within the same or contiguous class levels (Argentina and Mexico).
2. Groups with a different experience and outlook with respect to industrialization in terms of their backgrounds, jobs, and expectations as to the gains or costs to them of the changes in process.

3. Groups identified with different institutional sectors and bound in interests that in varying degrees rise above class (educators, workers and managers, official and informal policy-makers, university students).
4. Groups standing in different and distinct relationships to the educational systems in their countries (university students and professionals, teachers, policy-makers, the consumers of managerial and technical training for industrial occupations).

It may be noted finally that each set of groups within a country represents a compact, logically related unit allowing the individual country studies to stand alone independently of results elsewhere. Since comparisons between countries were to center upon the kinds of relations found among groups within each country and not on direct contrasts between one group and another in different countries, the problem of comparability and equivalence of groups became less critical.

A slightly modified version of the same basic questionnaire was used with all groups sampled. Questions were added, omitted, reworded and their order reshuffled to adapt to

the special requirements of each group, but the same areas were covered with all respondents.

1. The Complex of Nation Oriented Values: An important part of the questionnaire was given over to a battery of questions that would hopefully permit the construction of indexes for the three aspects to orientation to nation discriminated in the theoretical paradigm-patriotism, national identification, and nationalist ideology. "Patriotic" responses were expected to reflect strong elements of traditionalism and sentimental, ceremonial glorification of the nation, its people, territory, and culture. By contrast, attitudes of "national identification" were in theory associated with more practical and rationalized feelings of solidarity with fellow citizens and reliance on and confidence in the state as arbiter of social conflict as well as the elevation of trust in the state above other institutional loyalties. Nationalist ideology was to be tapped by questions investigating the acceptance of formalistic definitions of the internal and external

enemies of the state and the disposition to attack those seen as challengers and underminers of national unity or progress. Independent measures of these three facets of nationalism were to be obtained, for no unilinear relationship among them was presumed to exist.

2. Social Class and Social Mobility: Because in most cases respondent groups were selected on an occupational basis, they were by definition approximately located by class position. Nevertheless, a great amount of information relevant to their present class position, past, and potential future mobility was obtained in the questionnaires. This was of crucial importance since a major aim of the research was to document the play of integrative and tension-producing elements accompanying structural changes within and across class boundaries in the developing societies. Information about income, occupation, education, and nationality was obtained for respondents as well as their fathers and siblings. Subjective class identification, self-ratings on occupational prestige, sense

of political efficacy, perception of mobility opportunities, and feelings about competing with others were among the items examined.

3. Development Values: Another set of questions was designed to test acceptance of various changes associated with industrialization, primarily within the sphere of work but also touching on new consumption values.

4. Political Participation: Respondents were questioned about participation in a wide variety of activities of a political nature though not directly about their party affiliation or preferences.

5. Religiosity: An effort was made to measure the strength of religious identification, including the disposition to support the Church position on social and political issues.

PART II

THE FINDINGS

The Scope of the Present Report

Field work on all the studies was carried out between September 1960 and May 1961. The machine tabulation and analysis of results for this preliminary report were thus compressed into the weeks from June to September of 1961, when the report had to be submitted. Time did not permit the careful item analysis required for the rigorous construction and validation of the principal indices used, or to determine which among the many theoretically relevant items could be taken as the most powerful indicators of development values. The selection of items for preliminary analysis, the theoretical significance attributed to different responses, and the manners in which responses were grouped or items combined were all necessarily arbitrary to some extent. The considerations guiding the choices made were to provide as much material as possible of direct interest to the combined ECLA-UNESCO-OAS Conference on Education and Economic and Social Development, and to illustrate and test in a variety of situations the general theory spelled out in this report.

As noted in the discussion of the study design, since in almost every case the study groups are defined occupationally, their class position is by definition implied within broad limits. None of the groups studied represents a class, however, nor is the study aimed at uncovering or documenting class differences as such. On the contrary, it seeks to go beyond conventional class analysis and to search out sources of intra-class differences as well as values and loyalties that transcend or override class division. The choice of groups by occupation in itself narrowed and refined the analysis in this sense by providing opportunities to examine groups that, in spite of being in the same class stratum, stand in quite different relationships to the process of economic development and the educational institution. These differences, apart from occupation as such, relate to the institutional anchorage of the occupation in question (e.g. industry, the educational system, the free professions, the political system) and to the two other principal variables singled out for analysis here -- social mobility and degree of national identification. Three general hypotheses are thus under examination:

1. That degree of direct involvement in an institutional sphere closely linked to economic development is more significant than class -- at least in the short run -- in determining the acceptance of social values associated with development.

2. That upward social mobility is associated positively with the acceptance of social values linked to development primarily when that mobility is directed toward occupations where such values are of immediate relevance. Upwardly mobile industrial managers thus should be more "development minded" than those whose social status is stable, whereas upwardly mobile physicians will tend to absorb the traditional values of the profession and the class sector it represents.

3. That degree of national identification, as defined in the course of this exposition, will generally be positively associated with the acceptance of social values linked to development. The individual country studies presenting the findings relevant to these hypotheses follow.

A. BRAZIL

More strikingly than any other country in South America Brazil is a "developing" society. The country's economic growth as reflected in gross national product per capita has been substantial and consistent in recent years.[1] The recent expansion of industry and manufacture in Brazil both in volume and variety of production is probably unmatched in Latin America. These facts led naturally to the choice of managers and skilled operatives as two of the study groups in Brazil. As key figures in the process of economic development everywhere, managers and skilled industrial workers could justifiably have been made the focus of attention in all countries. But since the research interest went beyond the study of attitudes and behavior within the context most intimately touched by economic changes, groups less directly involved in the industrial process were studied in other countries. The choice of the third group in Brazil, Rio slum dwellers (favelados), not only completed this transversal cut from the very top to the lowest levels of Brazilian society, but also provided an opportunity to contrast elements already incorporated within the developed sector of the economy with a group having in large part only recent urban experience and participating only marginally in national life. As shall be seen, many of the skilled workers are in terms of their personal backgrounds only a step ahead

1. Pompeu Accioly Borges, "Graus de Desenvolvimento na America Latina," Desenvolvimento & Conjuntura, Ano V, No. 2, February, 1961.

of the favelados in the transition from the rural to the industrial world. The contrast in worker-favelado attitudes is thus suggestive of the changes that can be anticipated as ever broader segments of the population are brought within the orbit of the industrial economy.

Even with unlimited resources the technical difficulties involved in drawing acceptably representative samples of managers, skilled workers, and favelados in Brazil are almost insurmountable. Thus the samples in the study were not designed to be representative in the conventional sense. The objective was rather to define limited universes in such a way that the chances of finding the kinds of differences posited by the theoretical framework were deliberately enhanced. The sample of managers, for example, drawn from lists of active, top-level executives who in recent years have taken an intensive management course given in Sao Paulo by the Fundacao Getulio Vargas and Point IV, is presumed to represent the most professionally minded and technically oriented among Brazilian managers. The skilled workers sampled, all operatives in a single Sao Paulo plant, similarly represent a select group of Brazilian workers with a wide range of industrial skills, engaged in one of the most modern technological and organizational operations in the country. These workers and managers are presumed to represent in Brazil groups with the most intensive industrial experience and the strongest commitment to the values associated with work in a modern organization.

Only among favelados was an effort made to achieve representativeness in the standard sense. Though conditions in the favela do not allow the systematic application of probability sampling, the sample there was designed to provide a picture of the overall situation among favelados in Rio de Janeiro rather than among the most depressed and marginal elements in the favela population, who might have contrasted more dramatically with the managers and skilled workers.[2]

Composition of the Samples

In the present analysis only the 150 male favelados interviewed are compared with the managers (174 cases) and skilled workers (173 cases). The three groups vary slightly in age; the median for favelados is 30, among the skilled workers 33, and among managers 37. Considering the importance of the positions they occupy, the managers seem to be extremely young in comparison with equivalent groups of high level executives studied elsewhere.[3] The proportion of married men in each sample understandably parallels the age differences as does the proportion having children. However, fathers among the favelados have nearly twice as many children on the average (3.6) as do fathers among the skilled operatives and managers (2.0).

2. For details of sample design refer to Appendix A, Brazil. The effort to obtain a broadly representative sample within the favela was intended to ensure getting in that sample a sufficiently heterogeneous group to allow internal analysis according to the main analytical variables in the study, social mobility and national identification.
3. For Example, Mabel Newcomer, The Big Business Executive, 1900-1950, New York: Columbia University Press, 1955, found that United States executives during that period worked their way to the top at about age 52. Table BR-I shows the figures discussed in this section.

Though few of the skilled workers in the sample went beyond primary school, their educational achievement is still superior to that of favelados, good numbers of whom never got to school (about 21 per cent) or had only incomplete primary schooling (48 per cent). By contrast almost all of the managers finished secondary school and fully 60 per cent completed their university training. The managers thus are educationally in a world apart from the workers and favelados; there is practically no overlap between managers and the other two groups in terms of educational experience.

The managers are also in a world apart from the other two groups in terms of income. Three out of five managers in the sample earn 80,000 cruzeiros or more a month. The remainder cluster in the 60,000 to 80,000 cruzeiro range or just below it. Managers thus earn between four to ten or more times the minimum salary with a heavy concentration on the top end of that scale.[4] The median for workers falls at about two minimum salaries (18,000 cruzeiros) while favelados trail behind with a median very close to the minimum wage. This means, of course, that many of the favelados earn less than the legal minimum even though, as was noted, their families tend to be larger than those of skilled workers or managers.

4. At the time of the survey the minimum salary in Rio de Janeiro was 9,600 cruzeiros, in Sao Paulo, 8,400 cruzeiros.

Subjective Views of Class

Despite the sharp differences in education, income and occupation among the three groups--factors all generally believed to be decisive with respect to class--there is a fair amount of convergence with respect to self-identification on several scales of stratification. In general, though skilled workers would objectively appear to be considerably closer to favelados than to managers in terms of education, earning capacity, work situation, and family background, subjectively they evaluate their situation more like managers than these facts would lead one to expect.[5] About two-thirds of the skilled workers (as well as 42 per cent of the favelados) consider themselves "middle class" as do almost all of the managers. Similarly, more than half of the skilled workers (but only 22 per cent in the favelas) say they are "remediado" (tolerably well off) rather than rich or poor, as is also the case with almost all of the managers. Though the terms "aristocracy, bourgeoisie, and proletariat" were less familiar to respondents (more than half the favelados could not make a choice), this is interestingly the only scale on which the tendency to identify upward is reversed. Not only do few skilled workers claim bourgeois status but 14 per cent of the managers chose to designate themselves as proletarians.

5. The fathers of skilled workers show much the same educational and occupational pattern as those of favelados. The skilled workers like favelados are also predominantly of rural origin. Refer to Table BR-V. Table BR-II shows the figures for subjective views of class and political power.

By contrast none of the managers called themselves "workers," but were divided fairly evenly into those placing themselves within the professional and proprietary group and those who see themselves as functionaries. Though it may on the surface appear to be a truism, it is worth noting that it is the occupational designation of "worker" that brings the skilled operatives and favelados closer together.

Heterogeneity within the Samples

Though the samples can as wholes be characterized and contrasted in a variety of ways, there is obviously some overlap among them with respect to most of the socially identifying factors that have been mentioned. Some of the favelados are skilled workers in industry, a few have white collar jobs or own small businesses. Others have no regular employment or source of income. Among the skilled workers there are men with highly specialized skills and long experience earning top wages alongside newer hands just out of apprenticeship. The managers come from a wide assortment of enterprises; a fair number of them are still in second echelon jobs or work in small family firms. Later analyses will be able to capitalize on this internal variability to test the effects of a wide range of conditions and experiences on the attitudes under study. Two main points about this intra-sample heterogeneity are important for this report. The first is that the overlap between skilled workers and favelados is substantial both with respect to their objective social situation and self-identifications. On the

other hand, the objective social distance between managers and the two other groups clearly sets them apart in a class sense, despite the sizeable numbers of workers and favelados sharing the middle class identification with managers. The second point is that the principal fashion in which this internal heterogeneity of social origin and experience will be used in this analysis is as a way of locating and describing the socially mobile within each sample.

As has been noted, one of the central hypotheses of the present research is that the experience of social mobility, particularly upward movement into industrial occupations (e.g., managers and skilled workers), is a prime mechanism of attitude change within a society in the process of economic development. Appendix B describes the exact process by which individual respondents were classified as socially mobile. Essentially mobility was judged as movement into an occupation of a higher prestige potential than that occupied by the subject's father. The purpose here is to describe briefly in what respects the respondents classified as mobile (chiefly the upwardly mobile), according to the index based on inter-generational change in occupations, seem to differ from others within their samples.

These differences are not uniformly or conclusively revealed within all the samples but in general the upwardly mobile are somewhat older than others in their group, and perhaps as a consequence more likely to be married and have children. In educational achievement they are slightly below the non-mobile or those who have lost ground socially. Only

among managers do the climbers seem to be earning more than their fellows though they have fewer secondary sources of income than managers whose fathers had occupations of equal or higher status. Those persons who have risen occupationally are also, except among managers, more likely to have lived part of their lives in small towns or rural areas; their fathers had little education and especially among managers and skilled workers are likely to have been born outside Brazil.[6]

Social Mobility and National Identification

National identification is the second major independent variable that the theory outlined in this report links to value changes associated with economic development. This factor has been theoretically defined as "independent" of social mobility in the sense that the latter represents movement across class barriers while the process through which the individual acquires a sense of national identification can and does take place without such movement. In other words, a feeling of solidarity and of meaningful participation in a modern, complex society can be acquired without the individual experience of social ascent or occupational achievement. By the same token the experience of social mobility may produce attitude changes favorable to economic development (particularly in the sphere of work) without producing greater loyalty to the system or fellow citizens.

The Index of National Identification (see Appendix C) constitutes a first crude attempt to construct a measure of "loyalty or confidence in the system," defined as the national

6. These figures appear in Tables BR-III, BR-IV, and BR-V.

community and the state. The index builds on three items that tap the individual's willingness to accept the state as the arbiter of conflict in several spheres--family, occupation, the economy and a fourth that tests whether that acceptance is rational and pragmatic rather than emotional or "patriotic."

In Brazil the two measures--the index of social mobility and the index of national identification--show no significant relationship within any of the samples. They are thus empirically as well as theoretically "independent." (See Table BR-VI.) Nevertheless the several samples differ substantially, particularly with respect to mobility. There is more mobility among managers than among skilled workers and in turn among skilled workers than among favelados.[7] The index of national identification does not divide the groups as sharply; managers score significantly higher than favelados and workers, but the pattern of response among workers is close to that of the favelados. It remains to be seen then how the study groups differ on other behavioral and attitudinal dimensions connected with social development and whether such differences can be attributed to social mobility, or to degree of national identification as our theory postulates.

7. Refer to Table BR-VII. Naturally, the fact that favelados are at the bottom of the social scale limits the amount of upward mobility likely to be encountered in that sample. One of the more interesting study results is precisely the fact that the favelado sample proved so heterogeneous in composition, with substantial upward and downwardly mobile elements.

Attitudes toward Education

One of the more striking findings of the Brazil studies is the unanimously high valuation placed on education by all three groups that were sampled. (Table BR-VIII summarizes the principal results.) When asked to rank their rights as citizens in terms of importance, both workers and favelados rated the right to a free education as of first importance, alongside the right to equal treatment before the law. Only the managers, who have had the best in education the country offers, clearly put the right to a free education in second place, giving a higher value to equality before the law. The impressive point is that all three groups rate a free education well above such other rights as having an effective voice in politics, a minimum wage, and access to state social services.

Similarly, when asked whether the government should provide a university education for all capable persons desiring such training, managers and skilled almost without exception answered affirmatively. Only among the favelados was there an appreciable proportion of dissident responses. For some of those in the favelas the idea of a society in which all would have enough education to be "doutores" is simply beyond belief. "How could the nation function if everyone expected to be boss," they ask. One favelado explained, "If everyone becomes a "doutor" then no one will do anything. They'll stand around looking at each other's faces. People will go hungry because no one will want to

work on a construction job on account of being a "doutor."[8]

Just as important as the unanimity with which managers and operatives approve the ide of university education for all is the fact that they justify charging the government with responsibility for higher education primarily in terms of the collective benefits to the national community rather than as an expression of individual rights. That is, they link national economic and social progress directly to the expansion of opportunities for higher education. That kind or response is fall less typical among favelados, who tend simply to reaffirm the government's obligations toward citizens or the citizen's right to free access to higher education.

Strikingly different patterns emerge in the answers of the three groups to another question regarding the chief functions of the school. Forty-four per cent of the managers as contrasted with 23 per cent of the operatives and only seven per cent of the favelados consider the provision of technical and professional training as the school's most important job. The operatives, like the managers, give considerable emphasis to another "modern" educational function--the training of good citizens. Two traditionalist educational functions get scant attention from managers but are still highly rated by the other groups--one in three operatives affirmed that the most important school function is to form

8. "Porque se todo mundo estudar para ser doutor depois ninguem faz nada, fica um olhando para cara do outro. Passase fome porge ninguem vai querer trabalhar em uma obra de construcoes por ser doutor." (017)

cultured individuals while an even greater number of favelados (42 per cent) claimed that the most important thing the school can teach a child is love of country.

Two further questions touching on education were asked of managers and operatives. The first shows that despite the high value they give to education, relatively few managers or skilled operatives acquired their occupational skills through the school (Table BR-IX). Fully three-fourths of the workers and almost as many of the managers say they learned how to do their jobs in the course of their present employment or in a similar position elsewhere. A handful learned their jobs from their fathers or through another relative. Similarly, about three out of four of the managers and skilled workers interviewed feel their schooling gave them only a sketchy preparation for the kind of work they do now. Managers, especially, feel the gap between their formal training and the demands of their jobs. These results only confirm the well known fact that the educational system in Brazil as elsewhere in Latin America is only making a marginal contribution to immediate manpower needs. Worth noting is the fact that even though their own education has proved of limited practical use, education remains a prime value for these respondents.

According to the theory guiding this research, a high valuation of education, particularly education for modern work and citizen roles, should be associated with social mobility and national identification, our two main analytical

variables. In part because the response is so uniformly and overwhelmingly favorable to education, the data do not provide an unequivocal test of that hypothesis. Only among the favelados, who divided most sharply on matters of education, is there a statistically significant relationship in the expected direction between one of the education items and both mobility and national identification. The socially mobile (up) and those who score high or medium on national identification are significantly more likely than other favelados to have rated education as first or second among their citizenship rights. (Tables BR-X and BR-XI.) For the remaining items and among managers and workers, response is more or less the same regardless of national identification score or mobility. In short, while the differences that can be reliably demonstrated support the hypothesis, education, especially among managers and workers, seems to be such a generalized social value that more detailed qualitative analysis will be required to bring out the differences, if any, among the mobility and national identification groupings.

Work Related Development Values

Economic development is generally acknowledged inevitably to imply certain changes in the organization of work, some of them more easily assimilable than others into pre-existing patterns. All of the groups sampled in Brazil show a relatively high acceptance of many important changes in the occupational sphere generally associated with industrialization. But since each of the three groups is affected

intimately and in different ways by these innovations, some interesting and subtle variations in the relative acceptability of specific changes among all respondents as well as from one sample group to another appear in the results. (Table BR-XII.) This is a reminder that across-the-board acceptance of all such changes is not likely to occur, and that such items can only with great caution be used as indicators of "development mindedness" in any group or in any developing society.

Two such changes, the increase in specialization of work functions and the complementary need for more work in teams, are approved by solid majorities at all levels. Favelados lag somewhat behind the managers and skilled workers, who are of one mind on this point, in approving these major innovations. However, when it comes to the fact that with industrialization workers require more formal training and that standardized norms for promotion tend to be established, it is the operatives and favelados who give almost unreserved approval while the managers hang back somewhat. To close the circle, when the problem of the large, impersonal organization is introduced, favelados and managers join in deploring the loss of personal contact between employers and workers while a majority of the operatives approve this change along with all the others. In this way, the skilled operatives sampled emerge as even more unconditionally committed to the work and organizational values of the modern industrial enterprise than the managers.

Further analysis will be required to determine in what more specific ways this statement can be held to be true in Brazil, but the notion fits in with the general theoretical position taken in this research that no straight line correlation is to be expected among class position, education, and occupational prestige and development values.

The hypothesis that within the groups sampled the upwardly mobile and those with strong national identification would be more accepting of these work-related development values than other respondents gets only fragmentary support from the data in hand. There were no significant differences in response on any of these items according to social mobility (Table BR-XIII). By and large, the nationalism index also failed to show a reliable association with answers favorable to the changes in work organization that have been mentioned (Table BR-XIV). However, the only two statistically significant differences encountered by nationalism are in line with the hypothesis. Among managers, those scoring high on national identification are also more accepting of the idea of work in impersonal organizations as well as the fact that workers must study or train for longer periods.

Personal Development Values

The acceptance of certain conditions of work and forms of organization are only a part of the complex of values associated with industrial development. The individual is also expected to have a particular commitment toward his occupation and an expectation of rising within the occupation

or firm rather than looking forward to independent, small-scale endeavor as an ideal. The drive for achievement within an occupation presupposes as well some willingness to match personal job performance against that of others, a willingness to compete for advancement. The two questions touching on these values revealed dramatic differences among the three groups sampled (Table BR-XV). Three out of five managers said that they enjoy and seek competition while only 30 per cent of the operatives and 13 per cent of the favelados said the same. The most characteristic response among favelados (40 per cent) was that they dislike competition strongly. Similarly, the future plans of managers are oriented primarily toward getting ahead in their present jobs; substantial numbers of the skilled operatives share this expectation of advancement but they are more likely than managers to be planning to go eventually into some line of independent work. Not unexpectedly, the biggest difference between favelados and the fully and well employed managers and skilled workers is that far fewer favelados are committed to their present jobs--most are hoping for some change. The interesting thing is that more of them say they are hoping to work on their own than simply to find a better job. Further analysis will be required to weigh the true meaning of the differences observed. Do managers succeed because they are competitive or feel competitive because they are equipped to compete? Does the apparent inclination of faveldos to seek independent work as a

solution mean something basic about their attitudes toward work or simply that other job opportunities are closed to them? A tentative answer can be given to the first query. Occupational success, at least insofar as this factor may be measured by our mobility index, is not directly linked to competitiveness. Within none of the sample groups do the upwardly mobile claim to enjoy competition any more than other respondents. In fact, neither social mobility nor degree of national identification seem to be related to competitiveness or job commitment as measured by the two items discussed in this section (Tables BR-XVI and BR-XVII).

Miscellaneous Development Problems

Of the remaining questions available for analysis at this time, three may be considered current issues in development. One of these has to do with immigration, the second with planning, and the last with whether the benefits of industrialization are filtering down to the lower levels of the social order. The question on immigration was asked of all groups in Brazil, the item on planning was asked only of managers and skilled workers, and the final question on the benefits of industrialization only of favelados.

Here again managers, followed at a small distance by the operatives, show their tendency to give priority to practical, economic considerations in weighing issues. Two out of three managers say Brazil should admit only those immigrants who can prove useful to the national economy (Table BR-XVIII). Nearly half of the skilled workers agreed with the managers,

while only 16 per cent of the favelados gave that kind of response. The favelados, who were allowed a freer response than other interviewees, tended to give preference to specific nationality groups (Portuguese, Spaniards, etc.); one in five spontaneously suggest that all foreigners be excluded. Of course, many of the managers and skilled workers are themselves foreign born or the sons of immigrants. They may therefore have a personal stake in justifying their own presence in the country in terms of their contribution to the nation's economic growth. For the favelado the immigrant may appear as an intruder and a competitor who is given unfair advantage in the labor market. As with other questions, further analysis is needed to determine whether the differences in response with respect to immigration can be taken as indicative of a "development" orientation or are merely a reflection of other live issues in the Brazilian context.

Among the surprises in the Brazilian data is the unanimity with which managers acclaim planning as the only quick path to a solution of existing social problems. When offered a choice between two options, one affirming that planning offers the only quick way to achieve decent living standards for all in Latin America and another saying that planning cannot succeed because current knowledge is not up to the task, all except one of the managers accepted the idea that the only way to progress is through planning. About three out of four workers are in accord with the managers, thus placing planning along with education among the most

unanimously prized development values of the managers and skilled workers interviewed in Brazil.

Just as the managers and operatives seem to put great faith in planning, so do the favelados, by and large, believe that industrialization in Brazil is producing benefits for people like themselves. This question was not asked of managers or skilled operatives on the presumption that as central actors and direct beneficiaries of industrial expansion they could be assumed to have a sense of participation in the fruit of economic growth. For the favelados their response appears to be a genuine act of faith, for although two out of three say they think Brazil's many new industries are improving the life of people like themselves, even more (80 per cent) had said in an earlier question that in the last five years things had remained the same or become worse for them economically. The discrepancy in the two replies is explained by the fact that the favelados, while acknowledging no experience of benefit themselves, believe that others--friends, acquaintances, or simply other Brazilians--are in fact getting more out of life as a result of industrialization.

As with other questions related to development, response on these items is not consistently linked with social mobility or national identification (Tables BR-XIX and BR-XX). But again, the only two differences large enough to be accepted as statistically reliable are in the predicted direction. Among managers, the groups scoring high on national ident-

ification also more frequently choose to limit immigration to persons economically useful to the nation. On the planning item the unanimity of the managers' responses precluded any discrimination by either of the main analytical variables, though no differences were encountered among workers either, where the response was less one-sided. Understandably favelados who have been holding their own or have moved up in the social scale are more likely than others to feel that industrialization is benefitting people at their level.

Religiosity and Secularism

In Brazil the differences on questions linked to religion among the three groups studied are of lesser magnitude than those in almost any other question area. The response of favelados and workers is almost identical on most items; the managers are at a small distance from both groups. Though a majority (53 per cent) of the managers say they are practicing Catholics, a higher proportion of the managers than of the other sample groups practices no faith (Table BR-XXI). Majorities of both workers and favelados agree also that the Church is a positive force for national development and that having a religion helps the individual in the performance of his occupation. Managers are slightly more inclined to the response that the Church has nothing to do with national development. Despite this tendency managers even more than the other two groups find that religion helps men like themselves to do a good job. Thus at least some of the managers

are discriminating between the institutional impact of the Church on development and the help that a religious orientation can provide in dealing with the human problems of management.

Secularism, measured in this case by the tendency to separate and compartmentalize religious from economic and occupational issues, is another attitude that according to our theory should be linked to mobility and national identification. Within every sample there is in fact a tendency for the responses to discount the contribution of religion to national development and job performance to increase along with degree of national identification; in no case , however, are the differences large enough to be statistically significant. In addition neither favelados nor managers divided clearly according to mobility with respect to these questions. Again the single significant difference encountered supports the general hypothesis, however, for the secular response, setting occupation apart from religion, is markedly higher among upwardly mobile skilled workers than among others.

Political Attitudes and Activities

Two political attitude items and an inventory of political activities provide the raw material for this section. Of the attitude items one focused on the respondents' sense of political efficacy as reflected in the importance attached to personal political activities and opinions. The second focused on the respondents' image of

the national power structure, on political efficacy in the sense of access to meaningful participation in national decisions.

The three groups sampled differ little in the relative importance attached to political activity and opinions (Table BR-XXIV). Forty per cent of the managers and 48 per cent of the skilled workers say their political activities and opinions have fair or great importance. Thirty-five per cent of the favelados said that politics is a worthwhile activity (vale a pena). Only the difference between workers and favelados is statistically significant. The response of the operatives is interesting in that they are closer to the managers than to favelados in attaching importance to their political activities, but closer to the favelados than to managers in the proportion alleging that the nation is run by a small, closed clique. Though the workers thus seem to have greater confidence in the efficacy of individual political action, their vision of the power system is not different from that of the favelados.[9]

The inventory of political activity covers a wide range of participation, from conversation with friends and acquaintances to direct action in party work and street demonstrations. Direct participation in party activity is

9. The political attitude items show no differences by mobility (Table BR-XXV); tabulations by national identification were not available for this report.

low in all these groups and unexpectedly seems to be slightly higher among favelados than among managers--very few of the managers reported attendance at a party meeting or working actively in politics in the six months prior to the interview, though this period overlapped with the final months of the 1960 presidential campaign (Table BR-XXVI). The proportion of favelados who reported having worked actively for a candidate (15 per cent) though small was twice the proportion of managers or skilled workers who had worked actively in politics. The skilled operatives differ from the favelados chiefly in the high proportion reporting attendance at a union meeting. The operatives' greater sense of efficacy or confidence in their own political action is apparently more associated with participation in union activities than in party life. The managers, though they apparently attend fewer meetings of this kind than workers, are also active primarily within interest groups rather than in political parties. The managers emerge, moreover, as the great talkers of politics--the proportions among executives reporting heated discussions about politics with friends and acquaintances is two or three times larger than among the other two groups.

None of the political activity items by itself correlates within any of the sample groups with either social mobility or national identification (Tables BR-XXVII and XXVIII). The differences observed are generally too small to be taken as acceptable evidence of association. The elaboration of an index of political activity based on all of these items will materially sharpen subsequent analysis, providing more

conclusive evidence regarding the connections between political attitudes and behavior and other attitudinal and behavioral dimensions.

Summary

Within the context of the entire research, the Brazil results, touching as they do on the attitudes and values of two groups most intimately involved in the development process, provide not only a signpost of change but help toward a definition of devlopment values. If the differences among managers, operatives and favelados can serve as a rough model of variability in value orientations between the developed and traditional sectors of Brazilian society, one can say that the most dramatic differences lie in values related to the organization of work, in the uses ascribed to education rather than in the importance given to education as such, in a receptivity toward planning, and in a general inclination to weigh alternatives of national policy in terms of practical economic consequences. The disposition to seek and take pleasure in personal competition is another of the "indicators" of "development-mindedness" used in the study that decisively divided the sample groups. The studies in other countries reveal the play of these values and attitudes in other social strata and institutional spheres; they were not expected to throw into relief as boldly as do the Brazil findings the contrasts between those immersed in the development process and those less directly caught up in ongoing changes. Aside from this general

observation, the following among the Brazil findings seem of special relevance at this time.

1. There is practically no overlap in education and income between managers and the other two groups sampled, workers and favelados. In terms of their objective social situation, the skilled workers, though constituting a kind of labor elite, are much closer to the favelados than to the managers.
2. The subjective class distance is not as decisive as the objective facts suggest. There is substantial convergence with respect to self-classification on several scales of stratification, with a strong pull toward the middle position. The skilled operatives are considerably closer to the managers in subjective class identification and on many values associated with development than to the favelados, to whom they are closer in origins, income, and education.
3. Even though the samples were deliberately designed to represent well-defined occupational sectors and are more homogeneous with respect to generally accepted class indicators than most such samples, they show considerable heterogeneity internally. Two important ways in which the groups differ is in social mobility (the proportion present of elements recruited or newly arrived from other class strata) and in degree of national identification, which is

significantly higher among managers as contrasted with skilled workers and favelados. Though the present results are far from conclusive, insofar as statistically reliable relationships are present in the data, they support the general hypothesis that commitment to development values among the groups sampled in Brazil is associated with upward occupational mobility and degree of national identification.

4. Education, which is clearly seen as an element in national progress especially by managers and skilled workers, is one of the most highly prized social values for all sample groups. Workers and managers tend to emphasize the practical functions of preparation for occupation and good citizenship while more traditional ideas as to the functions of education, such as teaching love of country, are still fairly common among favelados.

5. The fact that the educational system is still making only a marginal contribution to immediate manpower needs is evidenced in the small proportions of managers and skilled workers who say they learned their jobs in school or were well prepared for their present jobs when they left school.

6. As has been noted, the three groups sampled differ sharply on a variety of development-related values, with managers usually giving the highest expression to those values followed by the skilled operatives

and favelados. However, since each group is differently affected by the changes associated with specific value shifts, this relationship is not constant or uniform. Every item must be examined carefully for meaning in context.

7. Political activity among all groups sampled in Brazil is very low. Managers differ from others primarily in how much they talk about politics rather than in their participation in party life as such. In fact, favelados are somewhat more likely to have worked recently for a party or a candidate than are skilled workers or managers. The political activity of the two latter groups are apparently almost entirely confined to interest groups (unions and trade and professional associations) as distinct from parties.

B. CHILE

A great many of the studies carried out by others in the program of research of which the present report is only a small part describe in vital detail the situation of educational systems at all levels throughout Latin America. Those studies deal with such concrete problems as the relation of facilities to educational needs in terms of school age population, the failure of the schools to reach and to hold pupils for a desirable minimum of years, and the difficulties of financing and staffing educational programs on the scale necessary to recoup ground lost through past failures. Most of that research has as an implicit criterion of performance for an educational system its capacity to satisfy the specialized technical, managerial, and professional manpower needs of economies pitched toward fast development. Another implicit criterion relates to the capacity of school systems to expand social and economic opportunities for increasing numbers, especially for the many persons formerly almost totally excluded from such opportunities.

The present research does not reject these criteria or deny their usefulness in organizing data gathering or estimating future educational needs and objectives. Our main interest, however, is with the somewhat more elusive question of how capable the schools are of providing the motivations and normative base for new political and social roles as well as for productive work in industrial society. How effectively is education at all levels in Latin America serving as a generator of new values and new definitions of

traditional standards of behavior? Part of the answer to that question lies in the attitudes and self-conceptions of teachers and professors. Their own attitudes toward development, the extent to which they identify with ongoing change or cling to traditional standards, the degree of their awareness and commitment to ideas of national progress--all of these determine whether the school can in fact create and transmit new values at the same time that it communicates new occupational skills.

The choice of Chile as the country in which to apply our questionnaire among teachers and professors was in line with the general procedure of selecting groups in such a way as to enhance the possibility of finding contrasting values crystallized within typical class and occupational sectors. Though Chile suffers from all of the chronic educational problems faced by other countries in Latin America, it has a long and respectable tradition in the field of education. Professional standards are relatively high, pay at the higher levels especially is comparatively remunerative, teachers are well organized in professional associations, and though little consensus exists on educational issues, they are at least highly articulated and the subject of continuous debate. In short, it was believed that Chilean educators would provide one of the most sharply defined testing grounds for observing the play of values associated with development within an educational system.

Composition of the Samples

The samples of primary and secondary school teachers were selected by probability methods from complete lists of teachers in Santiago public schools.[1] The listings of professors of the University of Chile were the most complete that could be provided by University officials: the sample excluded teaching assistants even if they had university degrees from faculties other than those in which they were engaged as assistants. Because of the marked decentralization of administrative functions in the Catholic University, the lists of professors obtained there were the least satisfactory. Still, there is no apparent basis for assuming that there was a systematic bias in the omissions from the lists made available to the research team. Approximately two hundred cases were obtained among primary teachers, the same number among secondary teachers, and about 75 each in the two universities.

The median age for all samples is very close to 36 years except for the University of Chile where the median is forty years. (Refer to Table CH-I.) The proportion of women in each sample is also very different with nearly 85 per cent at the primary level, 58 per cent in the lycees, 29 per cent in the national university, and only 7 per cent at the Católica. The proportion of married persons in each sample is very similar, just over three out of five in almost every case. The average number of children, however, is

1. Details of sample performance are given in Appendix A: Chile.

highest (2.9) among the primary school teachers and drops regularly among secondary school teachers (2.4), in the Catholic University (2.1), and the national university (1.8). Though there is a fair amount of overlap in income among the groups (there is a substantial range from high to low within each group), the median income differs sharply from one sample to another. The primary school teachers in the sample (whose salaries begin at 65 Escudos, roughly equivalent to 61 dollars in exchange value) reported average monthly earnings of 118 Escudos, almost entirely from teaching. The secondary school teachers averaged 181 Escudos, also mostly from teaching activities exclusively. The earnings of university professors are much higher but only in a minority of cases (3 in 10) do they stem from teaching alone. Most professors have other jobs and/or independent sources of income. The average earnings reported by the University of Chile professors was 380 Escudos, in the Católica 424 Escudos. In terms of objective indicators of class or status the samples are thus much what one would expect and hope to get; these results are presented here chiefly as collateral validation of the sample and to establish clearly for the reader the social characteristics of the samples obtained.

Subjective Views of Class

The nature of self-identification on various scales of stratification among the Chilean educators sampled is well in line with the social situation of each group as described above. (Table CH-II) Except for a small fraction , respondents almost without exception

think of themselves as professionals regardless of the level at which they teach. Practically all, except for a small number of Catholic University professors who claim upper class status, also think of themselves as middle class. It is worth noting that even though the proportion of professors in both universities who call themselves "wealthy" is about equivalent; far fewer in the national than in the Catholic University identify with the upper class. A sprinkling in the Católica accept the designation of "aristocracy" as describing their social situation. By contrast, though practically none of the primary and secondary school teachers consider themselves "poor," or workers, or "lower class," fully a third of the primary school teachers and one in ten of the secondary teachers prefer to number themselves among the proletarian rather than the bourgeois.

In a broad sense, then, all groups sampled share a generalized professional and institutional identification. They also share broadly an identification with the middle class. True, the university professors as a group not only have substantially higher incomes than other teachers but consciously think of themselves as rich in relation to other Chileans. Unquestionably, the prestige that goes with their positions in the university as well as from non-university functions places them in the very highest levels of Chilean society. Still there is a convergence of class identifications with lower groups, especially among the professors of the national university.

Without doubt this convergence is partly a reflection of heterogeneity within the samples but probably reflects as well a tendency among professors to underplay status.

Heterogeneity within the Samples

In comparison with samples generally available for the kind of analysis essayed here, the present samplings are relatively compact and homogeneous. Nevertheless, it is well to keep in mind that each sample contains individuals in a variety of situations even though all teach at the same level. The substantial range in incomes within each sample has already been noted. Thus, even though university professors generally earn three or four times as much as a primary teacher, some fledgling university professors earn no more than do primary teachers with many years of service. The overlap in income between professors and the secondary school teachers is even broader; involved as well is the matter of educational level -- that is, almost all the secondary school teachers have university degrees and are in some cases better prepared professionally than university instructors in newer, marginal schools within the university.

More importantly from the point of view of this analysis, the mobility patterns revealed in the four samples give further evidence of the extent to which there is a mingling of the full scale of middle class contingents within the ranks of teachers at all levels in Chile. Since social mobility is a central variable in the study, considerable care was taken in the identification of mobile elements among respondents (See Appendix B). In Chile there was a desire

as well to check the widely accepted notion that the normal school and teaching at the primary level represent a broad avenue of social ascent for lower class women.

If this belief has some foundation, it is not reflected in the population of primary school teachers in the capital. Of course, posts in the capital are the choice jobs in most school systems and much contested. Limiting the samples of primary and secondary teachers to the capital may have produced a bias against newly recruited, upwardly mobile teachers.

The fact is that in the universe from which the samples were drawn a majority of the teachers (70 per cent in the primary schools and 58 per cent in the liceos) had more than 10 years of service behind them. In any case, neither the primary nor the secondary school sample in Santiago provided enough cases of upwardly mobile individuals to allow independent analysis of this group. On the contrary, both produced substantial proportions who in terms of their fathers' occupations had moved down socially. This fact, coupled with the presence among university professors (especially in the national university) of individuals who have risen socially means that the overlap observed in terms of objective class indicators and subjective class identifications is compounded by the common social origins of many educators at all three levels.

The downwardly mobile primary and secondary school teachers are not consistently or markedly different from other respondents with respect to the social characteristics that have been discussed up to this point. (See Tables CH-III, IV, V). However, a considerably larger proportion of their fathers had university training as contrasted with the fathers of teachers whose social status has not changed. This serves as a partial validation of the mobility classification which was performed taking only father's occupation into account. The validty of the upward classification is similarly supported by the fact that the fathers of the upwardly mobile are less likely to have a university education than the fathers of other professors and are more likely to have been born outside Chile. The upwardly mobile in the university are not being recruited from rural areas; the data suggest on the contrary that rural individuals from high status families are moving into the city to occupy teaching jobs in the secondary and primary schools. The data show further that professors who have gained ground in the class scale also have fewer children, earn less, and depend more on their income from teaching than do the professors who began life in high status families. There are thus various independent checks that provide logical support for the index of mobility and at the same time underscore the importance of the distinction being made.

Social Mobility and National Identification

As has been seen the groups sampled in Chile differ substantially in the patterns of mobility they demonstrate (See Tables CH-VI and VII). First of all, fair numbers of the university professors in the sample have risen socially while the more typical movement among the primary and secondary teachers in the capital has been downward. Moreover, among professors those in the University of Chile are more likely to be newcomers to their present status than those in the Catholic university. Below the university, the movement downward is more promounced among secondary teachers than among the primary.

Differences among the samples are also sharp with respect to the second main analytical variable applied in this research, national identification (See Appendix C). The very high levels of national identification shown by these Chilean educators were expected both in terms of their occupational situation and of the generally acknowledged advanced political development of Chile itself. Majorities of the educators in the state system, whether at the primary, secondary, or university level, score high on national identification. On the other hand, professors at the Catholic University shear off sharply from all other educators sampled on the index of national identification. This polarization of attitudes is, of course, not unexpected in terms of the long standing and hard fought controversy over state control of education that is a central thread in

Chile's political history. More important for this analysis is the fact that though the various samples differ strongly on both mobility and national identification, there is no appreciable correlation between the two variables within any sample. Limitations of sample size will hamper the systematic testing of relationships of these two variables with other attitudinal dimensions with these samples of educators. Nevertheless, it is important that the two again prove to be empirically as well as theoretically independent.

Attitudes toward Education

The finding that Chilean educators value education highly is no surprise (Refer to Table CH-VIII) especially in view of the great importance given to education by groups in other countries less directly identified with educational institutions. All the teacher groups consulted uniformly placed the right to a free education as second in importance among citizen rights, just below equality before the law. Like respondents in other countries, they clearly rate the right to a free education as more vital to the citizen than a minimum wage, access to state social services, or an effective voice in political affairs. In the same way, professors and teachers in the samples almost unanimously affirmed the obligation of the government to provide to every intellectually capable individual an opportunity to attend a university.

Three main kinds of reasons were discriminated among the justifications offered for having the government assume thos broad responsibility -- reasons stressing the obligations of the government in the area of education, others stressing the rights of individuals to as much training as they can use, and a group emphasizing indirect gains to the society from measures designed to elevate the national educational level. Professors in the national university and the secondary school teachers showed some inclination to answer in terms of the first of these categories rather than the others. On a third question inquiring into the most important functions of the school, the primary and secondary teachers gave strong support to practical preparation for citizenship and an occupation, while the professors expressed as well a fair amount of concern for the transmission of a general cultural base.

Broadly, then, these educators are neither running far ahead of public opinion nor running counter to any strong trend in Latin America. For every group questioned in every country, no less than among teachers, education is among the most highly prized social values.[1] What remains is to make it also an available social goal.

1. Neither social mobility nor national identification are significantly correlated with the items touching on general attitudes toward education. However, upwardly mobile professors in the University of Chile are more inclined to stress preparation for citizenship and an occupation as central functions of education. (See Tables CH-IX and X).

In Chile, in addition to the general items probing attitudes toward education that were applied in all countries, a series of questions exploring problems of the teaching profession were presented to respondents. The most important of these questions sought to determine the relative importance for different educational levels of specific limitations in conditions of work or the state of the profession. (See Table CH-XI)

The rank order, or the relative frequency with which specific conditions of work are pointed out as "very important" problems for the teaching professions is more or less parallel for all samples, though in general teachers below the university level complain more often about such difficulties. Some four out of five primary and secondary school teachers, for example, say that the lack of material resources and low scales of pay are serious problems for teachers at their level. The proportion among professors at both universities who consider these factors a serious impediment to their work is just over fifty per cent. Still these grievances head the list for professors as they do for other teachers. Just below these two major limitations are ranged a series of other complaints, again generally more disturbing to teachers at lower levels than to those in the universities. These dissatisfactions include the limited opportunities for promotions, the lack of cooperation from parents, the intrusion of partisan politics into educational issues, and the incapacity of school administrators. Inter-

estingly enough, only a tiny minority (about one in twenty) of the professors in either university considers pressures from students of any real importance as a disturbing element.

With respect to problems growing out of failure within the ranks of teachers themselves, opinion was more uniform. Just over approximately half of the teachers -- regardless of level -- view as grave, present shortcomings the lack of a true vocation for teaching and the failure of their colleagues to keep up-to-date on subject matter. Of equal concern to professors, who alone were asked this question, is the lack of interest in research in university circles. Substantial but lesser preoccupation exists about the lack of more direct contact with students and the lack of unity within the profession, the latter being of slight interest in the university.

These results, of course, are not to be looked at as a studied or profound diagnosis of the problems of Latin American education. They do show, however, what teachers in one country view as the most pressing limitations on their work. It is worth noting that high among these failings are not only the lack of material means and fair rates of compensation, but also a recognition of the low levels of commitment and technical competence of fellow educators.

Work-Related Development Values

The educator can hardly be expected to accept all of the work values of the modern industrial organization as appropriate canons by which to guide his own professional

activity. Nevertheless many of those values in a generalized form have increasingly become standards for job performance and the efficient organization of activities far removed from the productive enterprise, teaching among them. The degree of acceptance that such values may have among educators may not only indicate how teachers themselves feel about general trends associated with economic development, but also whether the school experience is giving the student a chance to observe such values in action or not. As in Brazil, the differences among the samples in Chile as to the specific work changes seen as favorable or negative reflect the different perspectives of groups engaged at various levels in a particular sphere of work.

Four of the current tendencies affecting the teaching profession win majority approval from all Chilean educators -- the increase in specialization, the greater need for teamwork, the opening up of the profession to people with varied social backgrounds, and the establishment of stable social security programs. (Tables CH-XII, XIII, XIV). On the last of these choices, opinion is not only highly favorable but uniform. With respect to the other changes, opinion, though generally favorable, is more so in some groups than in others. University professors, for instance, approve the opening up of the profession in greater numbers than do those teaching at lower levels, especially the primary teachers who raise only a small majority in favor of this shift. At this point the data give no direct clue as to whether the attitude

of the primary school teachers is principally a defense of their present status or a true concern over the lowering of standards for the exercise of teaching. The primary teachers are also somewhat less wholehearted in approving the greater need for teamwork than those teaching at higher levels, though in this case the dissenting minority is fairly small (18 per cent). The need for more specialization, however, is applauded by a greater proportion of the primary teachers than of those at higher levels. There is apparently some internal tension concerning these two issues which is polarized in contrasting terms in the primary school as against the university and the secondary school. Though the two -- specialization and teamwork -- would seem to be necessarily complementary, the teachers at upper levels are more accepting of teamwork than of further specialization, while the primary teachers are inclined in the reverse direction.

A recent trend that meets with majority disapproval from all samples is the greater number of years the teacher must spend in preparing for the profession. Whatever the concern may be about increasing motivation and commitment to the profession, (refer to previous section) the hope apparently is that these can be obtained without adding to the required years of study. Similarly, the broad acceptance of social security programs by all teachers is not matched by equal acceptance of greater governmental control of professional standards. Here the university professors, especially in the Catholic University where opinion is dead set against

such controls, differ sharply from the primary and secondary school teachers who still show small, approving majorities.

In general, no clear link between social mobility and response on these development values is revealed in the data. In only two cases are there significant differences within samples, both with reference to the requirement for more years of study. The downwardly mobile among primary school teachers are much less likely to approve this tendency than are those teachers whose status is stable. By contrast, in the University of Chile the upwardly mobile professors are more likely than the stable to feel that the need for more years of professional preparation for teachers is a good thing.

Full tabulations for responses on all these items according to scores on national identification were not available for this analysis. For the tabulations on hand, no meaningful within-sample differences were found. However, when all the samples are grouped together according to degree of national identification, this factor is found to be positively associated with the acceptance of increased specialization.

Again these first results are not conclusive. They nevertheless illustrate that development values such as these have different meanings for individuals in different occupational spheres, who work at different levels within the same occupational system, who are moving up or down socially, and who have varying degrees of identification with the nation.

Personal Development Values

In Brazil, as will be remembered, the disposition to enjoy and to seek competition increased dramatically as one ascended the occupational scale from favelados to the upper levels of management. Fully sixty per cent of the Brazilian managers affirmed that they take pleasure in competition and search for opportunities to test themsevles against others. In Chile, this assertive response is far less common; only about twenty per cent in any group say they really like competition to the extent that they deliberately seek it. (Tables CH-XV, XVI, XVII). The more typical response is one of indifference or a mild liking for competition rather than the strong dislike that was expressed by favelados in Brazil. The chief differences among the groups sampled is precisely in the proportions indicating mild pleasure in competing with others. In that regard, the university professors are generally more competitive than teachers at lower levels, with the secondary teachers more likely than the primary to express an active dislike rather than indifference for competitive situations.

Whether or not competitiveness is an appropriate or desirable quality in educators is not at issue here. Certainly the independent motivation to perform tasks well, to excel in one's occupation according to some standard of performance, whether that standard is set ideally or directly in terms of the achievement of other individuals, is central to development. That this area is one of a considerable ambivalence

dividing teachers at all levels presumably has some consequences for the way the day-to-day tasks of teaching are organized, for the work habits the teacher himself displays, and for the expectations and demands the instructor makes on the student.

The information on job commitment for the Chilean educators is less direct than that obtained in Brazil, where, the reader will recall, data was obtained on the future occupational plans of respondents. In Chile, the most relevant item is one inquiring into whether the individual seriously considered another occupation before taking up teaching. In the universities, of course, most professors do in fact have outside professional activities. As noted earlier, only about one in four lives entirely on his income from teaching. In line with that result, only about one in four say an occupation other than teaching was ever considered. Though few of the lower level teachers have outside activities, over half of the primary school teachers and 45 per cent of the secondary teachers seriously aspired to other jobs before becoming teachers. The preoccupation expressed by teachers at these levels about the general absence of a teaching vocation and the independent motivation to keep abreast of developments in the field among their colleagues is thus given some foundation. Nearly half of the teachers at both the secondary and primary levels not only apparently had an earlier, serious interest in another occupation, but that occupation was in almost every case one of higher status than their present position. The presence in the ranks of teachers at

these levels of fair numbers of downwardly mobile individuals plus other contingents of individuals frustrated in their own mobility aspirations is an additional factor in the school climate that is relevant to development.

The two indexes, mobility and national identification, show no unequivocal relationships with these two items, but among the primary teachers those high on national identification are clearly more competitively inclined than others.

Miscellaneous Development Problems

Two additional items help further to fix the position of educators on issues relevant to development. One of these has to do with a problem of national policy -- the uses of immigration as a factor in development. The second posed directly to teachers and in fairly extreme terms alternative philosophies of education in the face of current national needs.

The two questions provide a sharp contrast. On the matter of national policy, solid majorities of teachers at all levels give what can be interpreted as a practical, development-minded response. (Tables CH-XVIII, XIX, XX). They affirm that Chile should welcome only those immigrants who can prove useful to the economy, putting aside considerations of religious or political affinity. Only in the Catholic University is the response somewhat more divided. When it came to weighing the role of education in promoting economic development, however, the results were strongly contrary. Because it is the question in which the central

issues of the investigation were most baldly articulated for respondents, it is worth reproducing the entire question here. Respondents were asked to indicate which of the following three statements they found most acceptable.

a. Education should have among its principal goals meeting the economic development needs of the nation.

b. Education should concern itself above all with the full development of the individual without contemplating demands of any other nature.

c. Education should seek to ameliorate the bad effects on the individual and society that accompany economic development.

Approximately seven out of ten respondents everywhere except in the University of Chile chose alternative "b," that the educator's chief responsibility is to the individual rather than to national economic needs and objectives. In the University of Chile, where opinion is most inclined to have the educational system actively support national economic goals, only 29 per cent chose alternative "a." This choice is significantly linked with national identification, high scorers being considerably more willing than others to give a good amount of weight to economic considerations in fixing educational objectives.

Two other findings also suggest that the economic response on the issue of immigration may not be as "development-minded" as has been assumed. Among the primary teachers, the downwardly mobile gave this response far more often than their

colleagues. When all the samples are grouped by national identification, it also appears that this response is far more typical of middle and low scorers than of those high on national identification.

In the Chilean context and with groups as sophisticated as these, the "economic" response may in fact be for some respondents only a veiled form of exclusionism.

Religiosity and Secularism

No student of Chile can fail to recognize that religion is one of the main axes dividing Chilean society. No other set of questions sets off these samples one from the other as systematically and unequivocally as religious belief. The Catholic University professors not unexpectedly stand at the head with 92 per cent making a frank profession of faith (Tables CH-XXI, XXII, XXIII). The rest follow in descending order from the primary (76 per cent) to the secondary teachers (60 per cent) and the national university (45 per cent). Non-believers are concentrated in the national university, though there are lesser fractions in the primary and secondary schools.

The belief that religion helps the educator in his work follows fairly closely in line with the religious convictions expressed above, though the percentages are always smaller, indicating that some of the devout tend to separate their religious views from their work as teachers. Again the Catholic University leads the way with 85 per cent, followed by the primaries (72 per cent), the secondaries (41 per cent),

and the University of Chile (30 per cent). In this case the difference between the secondary school teachers and the national university professors is not significant; as teaching level rises (outside the Catholic University) so does the tendency to separate religion and work, even among devout Catholics.

Not only do these items sharply divide the several samples, they also show quite strong relationships both with mobility and national identification, an association that is most clear-cut with respect to the latter. Within every sample and on both items the religious response is consistently less frequent among those scoring high on national identification than among others. Of all results statistically significant observed in all the studies this is one of the most decisive. On the mobility index, the upward mobile in both universities are less religious than the stable and less likely to regard religion as useful to the teacher. At the lower levels, the downward mobile also are more likely than the stable to be convinced Catholics, though they do not appear to look to religion for support in their occupational life any more than the stable.

Political Attitudes and Activities

Though Chile is commonly regarded as a highly politicized nation wherein most well-educated individuals are politically aware and interested, between three-fourths and four-fifths of the respondents in the various samples reported that they regard their own political views and activities as of little

or no importance (Tables CH-XXIV and XXV). Moreover, the reason given by a majority in every sample for this view is that they are simply not interested or are uninformed about politics. Fully 65 per cent of the professors of the University of Chile gave this response. This is, of course, out of keeping with the popular view that the University is a kind of microcosm of the national political system, but is in agreement with the findings of other research showing that the political life of the University is largely sustained and kept in the public eye by an activist minority.

The reports of recent political activity are consistent with the low level of interest and sense of political potency conveyed by the above answers (Tables CH-XXVI, XXVII, XXVIII). Only about one in ten of the respondents in the various samples said he had attended a political party meeting or worked actively in politics during the six months prior to the interview. Both political interest and activity are thus uniformly low at all levels of the profession. On the other hand, fairly high levels of activity were reported with regard to professional organizations. Everywhere except at the Catholic University, where the proportion was only 45 per cent, majorities in the neighborhood of seven out of ten reported attendance at a meeting of a teachers' organization. These organizations are, of course, extremely political in their own way and are probably the main arena of direct political action for many teachers and professors. While

this may in fact be an important outlet for the political energies of this group, it is more probable that here again it is a small minority that takes the lead politically within them and not that the study results are materially misleading. The professors at the Catholic University, who trail the others in most activities, compensate apparently by a great volume of warm discussion with friends and acquaintances. The secondary and primary school teachers also seem more at ease about participating in street rallies and demonstrations than the university men; nearly twice as many of the lower level teachers as of the professors had been out on the street on such an occasion in the months just before the survey.

There is a fair amount of evidence that the status stable respondents are more active politically than those who have risen or lost ground socially. Among the university professors, the upward mobile are significantly less active on almost every one of the political activity items than are the stable. At the lower levels, the primary and secondary teachers who come from higher status families are similarly less active on almost every count than the teachers whose status remains unchanged. A variety of hypothetical explanations can be offered -- those rising may be too insecure or absorbed in advancing themselves to be active in politics, those moving down so alienated that they are led to withdraw. But, of course, many illustrations of just the opposite relationships could be produced, some from within Chile

itself. Only extended further analysis can provide somewhat more concrete answers to such questions.

Political activity as measured by these discrete items also shows little relationship within the several samples with national identification scores. When the samples are grouped, however, some of the items prove to be associated with national identification in a variety of ways. Thus, for example, high scorers are considerably more likely to have attended a teachers' union meeting or to have participated in a street demonstration. Political discussion with friends and acquaintances and attendance at party meetings on the other hand seem to be more common forms of activity for middle and low scorers on national identification.

Conclusions

In summarizing these results, some major differences between the Chilean and the Brazilian studies are worth noting. First, the social distance separating the groups sampled in Chile is considerably less than was the case in Brazil. Secondly, while at least two of the Brazilian groups were very deeply involved in the ongoing changes associated with industrialization, the educators stand together within an institutional sphere that is at a further remove from the changes and experiences that accompany economic development. The educators are within the most developed social sectors of society, but still set apart from the areas of greatest and most rapid contemporary change. We study their attitudes and values not as suggestive of current change -- as is the case of the Brazilian research --

but rather to form an idea of the extent to which the educators show a disposition and capacity to promote developmental values, as distinct from only occupational or cultural skills.

The following observations drawn from the available results seem most relevant to the purposes of this report:

1. Though each of the samples of educators presents a distinctive profile in terms of objective social characteristics and with respect to many of the attitudes investigated, there is a great overlap from one group to another in matters of social origins, present social situation, and self-identifications. Even in a consideration of the primary schoolteachers and the professors at the Catholic University, the two groups farthest removed from one another, it would be difficult to find an individual in either sample that was not more "typical" with respect to one or another important social characteristic of the other, opposing sample. Although there are indubitably gradations of class situation in a broad sense from one teacher group to another, the fact that each generously mingles a broad spectrum of middle class elements should be kept in mind.
2. The samples of primary and secondary school teachers, taken from among persons employed in the capital city alone, do not support the notion that the teaching profession is presently serving as an easy avenue

of social ascent for lower class women. The more typical movement in these groups has been downward, suggesting that the profession has been functioning more to accomodate the daughters and the less successful sons of upper status families than as a source of mobility opportunity.

3. These Chillean educators, and especially those within the state system, score very high on national identification. The group with the lowest score in Chile is higher than the group with the highest in Brazil.

4. Though all the samples show fairly high acceptance of certain work values associated with development, the presence within the ranks of the primary and secondary school teachers of substantial contingents of individuals who have lost ground socially, who have been frustrated in their own mobility aspirations, and who are low on competitiveness certainly has some meaning for the capacity of the schools to provide motivation and competence for new political and occupational roles requiring autonomous self regulation and initiative.

5. When squarely faced with the choice of having educational systems oriented to an important degree toward the achievement of national economic goals as against an exclusive concern with developing the individual, a majority of educators at all levels chose the latter alternative.

6. In the state school system, religiosity among educators falls off progressively from the primary school to the university. There are decided differences among the samples on this point. Also, though there are among the highly religious always small groups of persons with high national identification, in general the relationship between religiosity and national identification is clearly negative.
7. Political interest and activity except within professional interest groups is extremely low in all samples. Contrary to the common belief that the Chilean educator is excessively political, these findings show the more general attitude to be one of apathy and impotence.

ARGENTINA

Argentina is Latin America's oldest economic leader, a nation of great actual as well as potential wealth boasting the largest city and the largest university in the entire area. The country is in many ways dissimilar from its sister republics. The great waves of migration rolling in from the Mediterranean and Central Europe determined an ethnic composition matched only in Uruguay. The social and political restructuring of the period after 1853, fortified by the astounding economic growth of 1870 to 1914, made of Argentina one of the world's most developed countries before 1930. But since that date political disturbance has been endemic, economic progress fitful and at times completely arrested, and social problems increasingly acute.

Argentine universities grew with the progress of the nation, and in such fields as medicine succeeded in gaining an early renown in the hemisphere. Further, the politics of university life began to reflect the changing demands of the citizenry, a development culminating in the famous Reform of Córdoba in 1918. This movement had as its fundamental purpose the opening of the universities to the new citizenry, not only the sons of the immigrants but also of the new and burgeoning middle groups enfranchised by the famous Sáenz Peña Law of 1914, which signalled the extension of more popular political participation. Through the halcyon days of prosperity and academic freedom and the bitter ones of authoritarianism and a decline in academic standards, Argentina's universities have continued to be a

faithful and quickly reacting reflection of their society. We chose the University of Buenos Aires for study because of this very involvement, and thus because it also represents both the traditional elements in Latin American scholarship as well as the insistent pressures to adjust to the new techniques and attitudes of the international scientific community.

The National University of Buenos Aires has about 70,000 students,[1] distributed among the Faculties of Law, Medicine, Pharmacy, Odontology, Philosophy and Letters, Engineering, Exact Sciences, Agronomy, Architecture, and Economics. Consistent efforts have been made during the past six years to adjust the traditional faculty system to the demands for coordination stemming from the rapidly growing body of knowledge, and to point the professional training imparted toward satisfying some of the needs of the nation. A nascent department system has been instituted, systems of scholarships were introduced to broaden the social base of the student body and to promote study abroad, and attempts are being made within the limited budget to provide for more full-time professorial and research personnel.

Within this context of gigantic size and painful change, we chose three professions for study to demonstrate the extremes of the university situation. The Faculty of Medicine

1. See the University Census of 1958, prepared by the Departamento de Pedagogia of the University, 1959. This census reported some 62,000 students for that year, and it is now estimated that the number has risen approximately to 70,000.

offers the case of a traditional discipline of high prestige, a school of power in the university with a large student body generally representative of better-off economic groups. The Faculty of Exact and Natural Sciences, within which we chose the specific fields of mathematics and physics, is representative of the new scientific elite -- select, small, self-aware, and of new and growing academic prestige. The Faculty of Economic Sciences has offered a mobility channel to many persons of relatively humble social origins, although the students also include many children of well-placed families; this Faculty is also massive in its enrollemnt, and only recently has begun to break away from an almost exclusive accent on accounting and business courses to attempt the building of strong offerings in academic economics.

Our proposal in these Argentine studies was not only to examine differences among students training for varied professions, but also differences among students in the same faculty at progressive points in their university careers and beyond the university among practising members of their professions. The study groups in all three cases, therefore, were first year students, last year students, and professionals practising in the national capital. This procedure was followed so that we might learn what selection processes seemed to be operating during the course of the academic study, what relation there appeared to be between the established professional and the student, and thus whether the university was performing a merely ratifying and replacement function,

or whether new groups were being allowed access to the professions.

Representative samples were taken of all groups mentioned above except for the last-year students and graduates of physics and mathematics, who were so small in number that censuses of each were studied. The following analyses will first treat of each Faculty separately, and then present a concluding comparative section synthesizing some of the data.

The Faculty of Medicine

Composition of the Samples

Wide variations of age reveal themselves in all three samples, demonstrating the relatively disordered fashion in which most academic courses are followed by students who must also help to support themselves during their years of study (Table AM-I). Although the progression of median ages is quite normal (18.4 years for first year students, 26.2 for last year students, and 44 for graduates), the range of ages is impressive, the bulk spreading from 15 to 28 years for the beginners and from 19 to 36 for those about to be graduated. The range for practising physicians is from 24 to 72. The sources of income of the students change radically from first year to last. Among the former, some 22 per cent support themselves partially or wholly by working, but by the time the last year has been reached, 72.5 per cent of the students have jobs. These figures complement almost exactly those dependent exclusively on the assistance of their families; 75 per cent

of the first year students are so maintained, but only 21.4 per cent of the last year. Most graduates (82.3 per cent) support themselves entirely from the exercise of their profession, but an appreciable group (12 per cent) also receives a rentier income.

An interesting sex difference reveals itself, for whereas about a fifth of the freshmen and senior students are women, only five per cent of the practising physicians were female. How much this difference may reflect a change in composition of the student body after the fall of Perón in 1955 or a greater disinclination to practise on the part of women after graduation is not revealed, of course.

The number of married students also increases sharply from the first to the final year in the university. Some 2.6 per cent of the first year students are married, most already having one child; 18 per cent of the seniors have married (5.6 per cent have one child, 1.5 per cent two, and 2.6 per cent three or more). Of the graduates over three-quarters are married, 22 per cent single. Almost a third are childless, almost another third have two children, and the remainder divided approximately evenly between those with one child and those with three or more. This relatively small family size is not unexpected for professionals in large, modern cities almost everywhere in the world, and especially so in Argentina, whose birthrate is among the lowest in Latin America.

Subjective Views of Class

In the case of practising and aspiring physicians, we are obviously dealing with persons who can realistically anticipate both high prestige and substantial incomes. These Argentine groups studied appear to have a very concrete and accurate notion of where they find themselves in society in terms of income and occupational status, as well as their class position when stated in unambiguous terms (Table AM-II). When ideology and class are mingled in a single classification, somewhat greater confusion shows itself, but still not of such a magnitude as to indicate any great lack of perspective regarding class position.

In terms of occupational category, to take the simplest measure, 36 per cent of the first year students consider themselves of the "professional class." As shall be seen in greater detail later, this figure probably represents almost all those students who identify with their fathers' professional standing, as well as a smaller number of upwardly mobile persons already projecting themselves into what they presume will be their eventual position. By the time the last year has been reached, however, almost 80 per cent denominate themselves as professionals, now clearly feeling they are already occupying their life position. Almost 98 per cent of the graduates, of course, see themselves as professionals, with a tiny fraction placing themselves among white collar workers. The self-classification on income is similarly reasonable, those denominating themselves as "rich"

going from 22 per cent in the first year to 26 per cent in the last year, and on to 35 per cent among active physicians. Very few (oscillating around 2 per cent) consider themselves "poor," a direct confirmation of the stereotypical view that Medicine is the profession of the economically comfortable.

Despite the relatively high number who assign themselves first position in the income-occupation categories, however, a notable tendency to refuse designation as "upper class" and to cluster in the middle class is seen in all three samples (92.6 per cent first year, 93.4 per cent last year, and 92.6 per cent graduates). When ideological connotations were mixed with class designations in the terms "aristocracy," "bourgeoisie," and "proletariat," the samples scattered. Approximately 40 per cent of all the samples (42 for the first year, 37 for last year, and 39 per cent for graduates) refused to accept any one of these three ideologically weighted definitions as appropriate to themselves. Very small percentages accepted the self-designation of "aristocracy" and only 46 per cent of the first year would accept the idea of their being "bourgeois," as against the almost 93 per cent who thought themselves "middle class." Last year students fell to 43.4 per cent from 93.4 per cent, and graduates from 92.6 per cent to 41.1 per cent. The more incongruous denomination of"proletariat" was accepted by relatively elevated numbers; almost ten per cent of the first year, almost 19 per cent of the seniors, and almost 15 per cent of the graduates preferred that label to calling themselves "bourgeois."

The samples of physicians and aspirants to the profession show a strong homogeneity of response concerning relatively objective appreciations of class self-identification, and just as strong division concerning some of the emotional and political consequences of that position.

Heterogeneity Within the Samples

Even when the samples are broken down into those who are following an upwardly mobile trajectory and those whose social position remains stable, most results are remarkably homogeneous (Tables AM-III, IV, and V). And the great similarity between graduates, whether upwardly mobile or stable, would appear to indicate that whatever differences may divide medical students early in their careers become almost totally attenuated with the attainment of professional status. Upwardly mobile students by the time they are near graduation tend to be a trifle older than their stable colleagues, and thus a few more are married and have children. No striking sex differences are to be noted, nor very different marriage or family-size patterns after graduation. A few more of the upwardly mobile students work than the stable, but among first year students of both groups, well over 70 per cent are wholly supported by their families, and for seniors the figures for both drop to 21 per cent.

Strong differences emerge in all those areas in which the individual is called upon for information concerning his family of origin, which remains a prime social reference point for most students. For example, among first year students, over three times as many stable individuals

(36 per cent) denominate themselves as rich as do upwardly mobile persons (11 per cent). The ratio reduces itself to two to one in the last year (37 against 18 per cent); but for graduates the difference is only 4.5 to 3 (44 and 30 per cent respectively). The same convergence is seen with respect to those calling themselves professionals (55 per cent of the stable first year students, only 21 per cent of the upwards, levelling off to 98 and 97 per cent respectively for stable and mobile graduates). Almost unanimous agreement is found in the willingness to be called "middle class." The class-ideology identifications are also roughly parallel for mobile and stable elements in all three samples.

The greatest difference between upwardly mobile and stable persons in all three samples appears in the comparisons by father's birthplace and father's education. Argentina's massive immigration shows here most clearly, and in a gently descending line we see the lessening importance of this migration. Some 74 per cent of the first year stables had an Argentine-born father, 64 per cent of the mobiles; 65 per cent of the last year stables had an Argentine father, 46 per cent of the mobiles; and 54 per cent of the stable practising professionals were of an Argentine father, 31 per cent of the upwards. The professionals show the greatest intra-group difference, the first year students the least.

The educational pattern is even more striking. Only 1.5 per cent of the upwardly mobile freshmen have fathers with a university degree, as contrasted to 56 per cent of the stables. The figures are 4 and 45 per cent for the two groups

in the last year, and 6 and 42 per cent among graduates. The tendency is clear for the father to have higher educational attainment through the three groups the closer to the present one comes, until for the freshmen almost 92 per cent of the upwardly mobile have fathers who have completed at least a primary education. The overwhelming majority in all the samples comes from families of urban origin, though the practising physicians, especially the upwardly mobile, include substantial minorities who began life in rural or small town communities.

These results are important in a variety of ways. First of all they serve to validate the index of social mobility, which takes into account only inter-generational change in occupational prestige potential, by showing that the upwardly mobile do come from families that differ decisively from the families of those whose status has been stable in ways generally accepted as relevant to class judgments. Secondly, the results demonstrate that the Faculty of Medicine, though commonly thought of as traditional, inbred, and selective, has apparently for some time been recruiting generously from lower levels in the society. A majority in every sample is upwardly mobile -- that is, have or had fathers whose occupations do not match that of the physician in prestige. The monolithic front the school and profession project publicly, and which is reflected as shall be seen in the near unanimity with which a variety of attitudes is held, is apparently not attributable to a narrow base of

selection but to a successful "homogeneization" or absorption of new elements within the professional milieu. Part of that "homogeneization" is no doubt anticipatory in the sense that first year students who are upwardly mobile differ little on many objective characteristics and value preferences from those for whom entry into the profession is only a certification of inherited status.

Social Mobility and National Identification

As in Brazil and Chile, the indices of social mobility and national identification show no significant correlation (see Table AM-VI). They are clearly independent measures, confirming in this, the first of our cases in which strong contingents of unquestionably upwardly mobile elements are available for analysis, that the experience of upward movement across class barriers does not necessarily mean a strengthening or a broadening of identifications with the national community and the institutions that organize and express national power and solidarity.

The uniformly high proportion of upwardly mobile elements in all three medical samples has already been noted. It is worth adding that the uniform magnitude of the mobile contingents suggests that there has been no marked acceleration in the recent past in the proportions being recruited from lower social levels. The caution may also be added that the presence of mobile elements does not necessarily mean that the Faculty is "democratic" in selection or composition in the sense of providing an easily accessible means for

quick upward movement to people of low status. It does provide, however, the final stamp of approval or social security for the sons and daughters of families already in the middle stratum of society.

The independence of the two main variables is further demonstrated in the fact that the samples are sharply disparate in degree of national identification despite the constancy in the proportion of mobile elements present in each (see Table AM-VII). Both student samples are significantly higher on national identification than is the group of practicing physicians. In this case the last year students do not stand in a straight line trend between first year students and the graduates but are markedly higher in national identification than either of the two other groups. As has been mentioned earlier, most last year students began their university careers at the end of the Peronist period. It is possible that this political experience has shaped their attitudes in special ways that affect scores on national identification. The analysis of results from other faculties will permit further exploration of such leads.

Attitudes toward Education

As in both Chile and Brazil, a free education is regarded as one of the most important rights of citizens by all these respondents. (Refer to Tables AM-VIII, IX, and X.) This right was rated as second in importance only to equality before the law among a list that included, as will be remembered, having an effective voice in politics, being assured a minimum wage, and having free access to state

social services. These university men also uphold by an overwhelming majority the principles of the Córdoba Reform calling for an open university -- more than 95 per cent in each sample hold that the state should guarantee a university education to all capable persons who may desire one.

No such unanimity prevailed in response to the question concerning the function of education. Taken as a whole, about a third of each sample favored education for good citizenship and the building of a national spirit, while the remainder favored a more vocational and generally cultural orientation. The figures as taken by mobility index indicate that with fair consistency the upwardly mobile tend to respect more highly the practical and vocational functions of education, as do those who rank highly on the national identification index. Low scorers on the national identification scale are consistently above average in their desire for the formation of good citizens and the national spirit. (See Table AM-X.) This relation is by no means contrary to our expectations, for it will be remembered that the values of national identification are not to be equated with ideology and indeed may on occasion be directly contrary thereto -- as is the case in this instance concerning the development of a higher order of vocationally and broadly trained persons.[2]

2. In theory, we classed the functions of preparing for good citizenship and preparation for an occupation as "modern" choices as juxtaposed with the functions of general cultural preparation and instilling the national spirit. In the Argentine analysis it was not possible to group the responses properly. We attribute the differences observed principally to the decisive weight of the response geared to practical, professional preparation.

Work Related Development Values

The respondents in all three groups were strong in their approval of four out of the six items measuring development values: the need for greater teamwork, more varied social access to the profession, greater specialization, and the extension of governmental social security programs (see Tables AM-XI, XII, XIII). They favored these measures in the order in which they are here given, from virtual unanimity concerning desirability of teamwork to four-fifths or more generally favoring social security measures. There is little significant variation among the groups.

Negative feelings predominate concerning the need for prolonged study and greater state control of professional norms. Over 70 per cent of the seniors, for example, were unhappy about the need for more years of study, this sentiment being echoed by 45.7 per cent of the freshmen, and 58.9 per cent of the physicians. Small majorities also opposed state control of professional norms, revealing an interesting selectivity in the acceptance of extensions of governmental powers. Though the groups are so strongly in favor of social security systems for others, they remain dubious about an extension of governmental power over their own profession.

As may be expected, the upwardly mobile are somewhat less inclined to favor longer periods of study than their stable brethren, and rather more in favor of opening the profession to persons of varied social background. Otherwise neither this index nor the national identification scale

serve to divide the responses in striking fashion, perhaps indicating the power of professional norms and practices in overriding other social factors to establish the direction of opinion.

Personal Developmental Values

Attitudes toward competition appear to be a function largely of whether one is a student or a practicing professional, for no fewer than 98 per cent of the physicians state they are eager for and seek competition, while 70 per cent of the first year students and 64.4 per cent of the seniors take essentially negative views of competing. Once again mobility and national identification factors seem to make little difference in the choices. Certainly the virtual unanimity among graduates in favoring both competitiveness and greater teamwork is indicative of a set of complex attitudes toward the profession by no means clearly viewed in the student body. (Refer to Table AM-XIII).

Religiosity and Secularism

In this area the data reveal fascinating differences not among the samples or between the two mobility groups, but rather in direct relationship with the index of national identification. (See Tables AM-XIV, XV, XVI.) First, the relatively traditional nature of the profession is demonstrated by the very high proportion who profess themselves as believers in a country in which it is reliably estimated that no more than eight to ten per cent of the population are confessing Catholics. Between 50 and 60 per cent in the

three samples profess themselves believing Catholics. Only among practicing physicians, where the believers ascent to 82 per cent among those in the stable group as contrasted with 53 per cent among the upwardly mobile, does mobility make for differences in religiosity.

When the question of religious belief is related to profession, we find that the three samples divide on the matter almost in half, with a small majority feeling that a religious belief is necessary to or assists in the practice of medicine.

When the responses are controlled by national identification, however, the divisions are impressive. Only a third of the high nationals among first year students see an affirmative relation between religion and medicine, while over 85 per cent of the low nationals do. The figures dip a little for all groups in the last year, but the profile of the curve maintains itself, the numbers going from 29 per cent for lows to 73 per cent for highs. Among graduates the division of opinion is less acute, although sharp differences remain: 39 per cent of the lows see the two elements related, as compared to 60.7 per cent of the highs.

The strength of the relationship between nationalism and secularism shown in these data as contrasted with Brazil, where no such link was observed, will come into clearer perspective when the Argentine data are synthesized at the close of this section.

Political Attitudes and Activities

The relative importance the individuals queried attach to their political activities does not vary to any great extent from sample to sample or from group to group within samples (Tables AM-XVII, XVIII, and XIX). The responses divide rather evenly between those who feel that what they think and do politically has some importance and those who consider their political activity of little consequence to themselves or others. The differences among mobility groups, though consistent in that upwardly mobile elements seem inclined to attach less importance to politics than the stable, are not large enough reliably to establish such a trend. On national identification, only among the last year students (again the Perón generation) is there a clear-cut relationship; the proportion who attach significance to their political interests and actions increases sharply from the low to the high end of the nationalism scale.

The level of overt public activity is quite low among all the groups, although well over half of all respondents report that they argue politics with friends and acquaintances. Party activity, on the contrary, involved only six per cent of the freshmen, eight per cent of the seniors, and six per cent of the graduates. Of the latter only 17 per cent attended a meeting of their professional associations in the six months preceding the questionnaire, while only 15 per cent of the seniors and 20 per cent of the freshmen attended a student association meeting.

Exact Sciences

Composition of the Samples

As indicated in the introduction, the research in this Faculty concentrated only upon students in mathematics and physics and in the combined mathematics-physics program. This school of the university has a tradition of great professionalization and high standards, emphasized in heavy programs of study and a disinclination to see students spend very long periods in receiving their degrees. This attitude is supported by the universal and often-noted fact that mathematicians mature very early, and almost all have established their life reputations before the age of thirty. For this reason it should not be surprising that there is so little difference between the median age of 19.8 years for freshemn and 21.5 for seniors (see Table AS-I). The median age of the graduates is low, too, being only 30.2 years. The very high percentage of women is also striking, 37 per cent of the first year students being female, 34 per cent of the last year. The number of female graduates interviewed totals slightly more than half the sample, indubitably because we restricted our universe to those graduates resident in Buenos Aires, and men are rather more likely than women to be working in the interior of the country.

The youth of the samples also implies, of course, that very few will be married, and thus the number of children will also be low. Indeed, fewer than half even of the graduates are married, and over 60 per cent have no children.

Despite the pressures of their studies, only about a third of the students are supported entirely by their families. Approximately the same numbers receive some help from home and also work, but as many as a fifth of the freshmen (and one-tenth of the seniors) say that they receive their total incomes from work. Even among graduates only half earn their entire incomes, almost a third receiving some family help.

Subjective Views of Class

We find repeated in Exact Sciences, as in the Medical School, the same relative willingness to accept conventional terms of social self-placement based on occupation, wealth, or class, and the same confusion when ideological elements are mixed into the categories (Table AS-II). The only surprise is the relatively high number stating they are "rich" (13 per cent of the first year, 30 per cent of last year, and 39 per cent of the graduates). This progression leads one to feel that there was no deliberate falsification or midunderstanding, a conclusion buttressed by discussions which follow of the educational levels and birthplaces of the fathers.

The same growing willingness to accept "professional" as the occupational label is seen as in Medicine, and the same clustering into "middle class" with the refusal to equate "upper class" with "rich." Between 56 and 61 per cent of the samples accept the designation of "bourgeoisie," but most of the remainder evade this classification by affirming that none of the categories applies to their situation.

These subjective views of class, when crossed with the mobility index, give the expected results (see Table AS-III). The socially stable consistently rate themselves as higher in all social classifications, and are even notably more willing to tag themselves with the "bourgeois" label. These differences by mobility are rather stronger throughout the data for Exact Sciences than for Medicine, a matter that will be further explored in the following section.

Heterogeneity Within the Samples

As has been seen, in terms of age, marital status, and number of children, there is great homogeneity within the Exact Sciences samples. Strong tendencies to cluster are also seen in most of the questions concerning subjective class identification. Sharp differences become visible only when we divide the samples by mobility and turn to the obviously mobility-related questions concerning the education and birthplace of the father (Table AS-V). The mobility-stables, as in Medicine, show a very high percentage of university-trained fathers (44 per cent for freshmen, 67 per cent for seniors, and 71 per cent for graduates). The figures drop sharply for the upwardly mobile, with percentages of only eight, six, and three for the three samples respectively. What the data reveal is that a large majority of the fathers of the mobility-stable students are either university graduates or have had some university experience, while the majority of the fathers of the upward mobile failed to get as far as the end of secondary school. The consistent tendency toward generally higher educational attainment among the fathers

as one moves from the first year students toward the graduates (with an impressive 71 per cent of fathers with university degrees among the socially mobile) should be carefully noted, for this progression may well serve as a first indicator that the social composition of the student body is shifting.

However, the student body has apparently changed little over the years in the proportion whose fathers were born outside Argentina. The percentage of sons of foreign-born fathers is roughly the same (about half) in every sample, and the upwardly mobile show a somewhat higher concentration of sons of immigrants than their socially stable peers. If the student body has changed, it is not in having more second generation Argentines, but rather in having more students whose fathers were among the immigrants with modest schooling.

The internal migration in Argentina which was a major factor in doubling the population of Buenos Aires between 1943 and 1960 has not penetrated appreciably this part of the university. Better than four out of five respondents in all the samples have never lived in a rural or small-town community, and those who have are no more likely to be found among the socially mobile than among those who began life fairly high in the status system.

Mobility and National Identification

As in all the other of the surveys examined up to this point, no statistically significant relationship appears between the mobility and national identification indices in the Exact Sciences samples (see Table AS-VI). Thus additional support

is given to the contention that these measures are essentially independent, especially when one considers the large proportion of persons in the Argentine groups who must certainly be considered socially mobile by any of several standard criteria of social ascent.

As in the Medical Faculty, a consistent and almost uniform majority (about three in five) in every sample was classified as upwardly mobile on the index of mobility. The Faculty of Exact Sciences, like Medicine, thus appears to have been steadily leavened over the years with a sizeable proportion of fresh elements newly incorporated into the highest status levels. Unlike the Medical Faculty, however, the Exact Sciences students and active professionals share a fairly high degree of national identification. About two out of five score high on national identification at every level of the professional career. This degree of likeness may possibly be explained by the relative youth of the graduate mathematicians, but as the subsequent analysis will show, there is also in play a somewhat different set of professional and social values among exact scientists than among physicians. Unfortunately, the samples in Exact Sciences are so small (as are the populations on which they draw) that extended analysis of this kind will be difficult.

Attitudes toward Education

Students and professionals in this field as in all the other professions studied give a high valuation to a free education (see Tables AS-VIII, IX, X). Seven out of ten among first year students and six out of ten among graduates

placed the right to a free education as first or second among citizenship rights. Moreover, absolutely every single respondent agreed that the government has the obligation to provide every capable person with a university education if he wants it.

Though in agreement with their colleagues in Medicine about the general value of education, the Exact Science respondents depart sharply from them in their idea of what the principal function of education should be. The exact scientists insist with greater frequency that the accent should be on vocational and cultural preparation rather than on building up patriotic feeling or preparing for citizenship. Though here as in Medicine the grouping of responses does not permit the perfect separation of "practical" from more traditional types of answers, this difference in the conceptualization of educational goals must be taken as a clue to a general difference in orientation among exact scientists as distinct from physicians.

Neither social mobility nor degree of national identification make for differential response on these educational questions. As elsewhere, opinion about education is either overwhelmingly one-sided or seems to reflect a general consensus not affected by within-group differences on these two variables.

Work-Related Development Values

The general tone of this Faculty and of its graduates once more seems to wash over differences which may arise from

questions of social mobility and identification with the nation. The respondents characteristically achieve virtual unanimity or present majorities regarding those work values as in other areas of opinion. Development values receiving high approval are those concerning the desirability of greater teamwork, governmental support for scientific research, and more varied social access to the profession (refer to Tables AS-XI, XII, XIII). No sample failed to approve these requirements of development by less than a 95 per cent agreement.

The need for greater specialization was met with a little less enthusiasm, 87 per cent of the freshmen in agreement, 70 per cent of the seniors, and 62 per cent of the graduates. The need for prolonged study was looked at even more askance, 55 per cent of the first year students approving, but only 42 per cent of the seniors and 37 per cent of the graduates. The most decided disapproval concerned greater state control of professional norms, only 30 per cent of the freshmen being willing to accept this governmental function as positive, 29 per cent of the seniors, and 21 per cent of the graduates.

The development values associated with changes in work organization that were presented to study groups for evaluation are always the same except for one, an item touching on the relationship between the particular group being studied and some governmental function affecting the occupations involved. In the case of Medicine we asked about extended social security programs, finding 80 to 87 per cent of all the groups in favor. Exact Sciences was asked about the

desirability of state support of scientific research, and 95 to 98 per cent approved. Apparently respondents wish to accept these funds with little governmental control over the profession; as just noted, only between two and three in ten of the students and scientists view favorably the extension of governmental power over professional standards.

Personal Development Values

Consistent with their insistence on the necessity for teamwork, and committed to a profession that does not lead to entrepreneurial functions, the samples in Exact Sciences are generally disinclined to seek competition (Tables AS-XI, XII, XIII). Only about a third of the freshmen say they are eager to compete; the number drops to little better than a fifth among the seniors, and to a sixth of the graduates. There is a consistent decline in competitiveness from the early to advanced stages of professional development. Again neither mobility nor national development show clear links to the disposition to compete; among the freshmen, where the sharpest differences occur, the relationship is negative, competitiveness decreasing with degree of national identification.

Once again the data suggest that competitiveness may well be more a function of the type of occupation concerned than of "modernity" in itself.

Religiosity and Secularism

Religiosity and secularism set Exact Sciences sharply apart from Medicine and again call attention to the importance that socialization within a profession may have in shaping attitudes. Among the freshmen in both faculties, about

seven out of ten profess an active belief in some religion. However, while among medical students religious faith endures and is even possibly reinforced in later years, religiosity falls off sharply as the exact scientists move through their university careers and on to the exercise of their professions. Similarly, among the physicians, the belief that religion is helpful to professional practice is quite high from the moment of the first steps into the profession, and is maintained in later years. Among those in exact sciences, the majority view from the very first year is that religion is of no consequence or is indeed a hindrance to professional performance.

Social mobility affects little the response of those in exact sciences to these two religious items. However, national identification, as in Chile, shows a strong negative relationship with religiosity. Among the first year students, 18 per cent of the high scorers on national identification are practicing Catholics as against 60 per cent of the low scorers; for the last year students these figures are 13 and 56 per cent respectively, for the graduates nine and 54 per cent. A similar though less pronounced tendency is revealed in the replies to the question on the significance of religion for occupational life.

The first year students stand out once again as rather markedly different from the seniors and graduates. This fact may possibly reflect changes in the student body as is hinted in other findings, or may genuinely reveal the effects of a specific kind of professional training on the individual.

Whatever the case, it is clear that exact scientists present a professional and value model to current aspirants sharply divirgent from that presented by physicians to those being initiated into medicine.

Political Attitudes and Activities

Three out of five respondents among Exact Sciences freshmen as well as graduates believe that their political ideas and activities are important, a point of view shared by slightly fewer (45 per cent) of the seniors (Tables AS-XVII, XVIII, XIX). In this response they differ little from equivalent groups in Medicine, though the full significance of these replies will be clearer when the pattern of reasons explaining why personal political efforts are regarded as important or unimportant can be examined. The fact that it is the socially stable among both freshmen and graduates rather than the mobile who attribute importance to their political ideas and activities repeats a pattern observed in Chile, the only other study groups showing significant variations on this political dimension according to mobility.

Students in Exact Sciences both freshmen and seniors, participate more actively in student organizations than do the medical students; but outside of student-centered activities, levels of participation and involvement in politics are not demonstrably higher among this group. More importantly, among the Exact Sciences respondents political activism is unequivocally linked to feelings of national

identification-- that is to say, can be regarded as more directly tied to an underlying commitment and identification with national rather than more circumscribed loyalties. For example, high scorers on national identification are more active than others in student and professional organizations, especially as they advance in the profession (32 as against 20 per cent among freshmen, 50 against 17 per cent among seniors, and 61 against 13 per cent among graduates). These differences by degree of national identification, though not always of a magnitude to satisfy statistical criteria for significance, are substantial and consistent for practically all items in the inventory of political activity.

Ther can be little doubt that the Faculty of Exact Sciences includes a group of highly politicized students and graduates, and further that the political motivations and attitudes behind their activism are qualitatively different from those of the politically active in Medicine.

Faculty of Economic Sciences

As the Faculty of Medicine is commonly seen as a bulwark of conservative professionalism and Exact Sciences as representative of the brashly scientific wave of the future, the stereotypical view of the Faculty of Economic Sciences is that it is a mass production plant of persons rapidly rising into a somewhat dubious professional area. The low professional status of this faculty is based on the heavy preponderance of students dedicating themselves

to accounting, an occupation including many white collar employees as well as the more highly prestigious free professionals. Although the data indicate that there is an appreciable social overlap with the other faculties studied, Economics does indeed draw a great part of its student body from among the upwardly mobile of rather modest origin for the usual Latin American university student body. No less than four-fifths of the first-year students are upwardly mobile, as are three-quarters of the graduates. Independent confirmation of this massive tendency comes from the University Census already cited, which also indicates that this faculty has the highest percentage of mobile students of any in the university.

Unfortunately time did not permit the full machine tabulation of the data for the Faculty of Economic Sciences, so that we lack almost entirely information on the senior students, and must also abbreviate our presentation for the other two samples. What can be shown at this time, however, is of interest in adding further perspective regarding the social effects of university training in Buenos Aires. Certainly here, if anywhere in our samples, we should have the opportunity to test to the full certain of the relationships between inter-generational mobility and the other variables associated with development and education included in this report.

Composition of the Samples and Heterogeneity Within Them. The median age of the first-year students is about 19 and a half years, a normal age in Argentina for the initiation of advanced training of any sort (Table AE-I). The gradu-

ates fall in age almost midway between Medicine and Exact Sciences at just over 36 years. That there is practically no age difference between socially stable and upwardly mobile freshmen is contrary to our findings elsewhere. Perhaps this lack of difference is a reflection of the easy reconciliation in this faculty between the demands of studying and of working, an encouragement to the mobility so characteristic of the student body.

The manner in which students report that they support themselves is the first clear substantiation from the data of the prevailing stereotype of the students of Economic Sciences. Fully 39 per cent of the freshmen support themselves entirely by their own labor; another 40 per cent receives some family assistance, but also is employed, giving us, then, almost four-fifths of the students as fully or partially employed. The mobility index indicates, of course, that mobile students tend to be more dependent upon their own labor for an income than the stables, but still the figures are high even for the latter (Table AE-III). Fully 82 per cent of the mobile freshmen work full or part-time, but so also do 64 per cent of the mobility stables. The age similarity between the two groups may possibly be explained by this impressive tendency among both. The percentages of freshman students entirely supported by their families during their studies are appreciably smaller in Economics than in the other two faculties studied. Only 16 per cent are totally supported by their families in Economics, as opposed to 75 per cent in Medicine and 39 per cent in Exact

Sciences.

The age factor naturally also incluences family size, which among the Economics graduates is markedly smaller than for practising physicians and markedly larger than for mathematicians and physicists. The mobility variable appears to make some difference among freshmen in the sex ratio, however, for in that sample 29 per cent are women among the upwardly mobile, while only 11 per cent of the mobility stable group are female. The difference becomes negligible among the graduates, however, with women forming 14 per cent of the upwardly mobile graduates, 11 per cent of the stable group.

A look at the social origins of the families of the students and graduates is our next step in the confirmation of the importance of the mobility factor to the tone of this school (Table A3-V). The most important element setting off from other students the 82 per cent of the freshmen and the 75 per cent of the graduates who are upwardly mobile is the country of origin of their fathers. No fewer than three-quarters of the upwardly mobile graduates are first-generation Argentines. Half of these upwardly mobile persons have fathers who were born either in Italy or Spain; 25 per cent have fathers born in Poland or Russia, with other European countries providing smaller contingents. Among upwardly mobile freshmen, 57 per cent have foreign-born fathers despite the weakening of the streams of migration after 1930. A quarter of the fathers of these freshmen still continue to come from Spain, as in the case of the graduates, but only 10 per cent are natives of Italy, and 14 per cent of Poland

and Russia.

The first generation factor is of major importance also for the mobility-stable groups: as many as 39 per cent of the stable freshmen and 47 per cent of the stable graduates have foreign-born fathers. Spain and Italy supply the largest contingent for the foreign-born fathers of the stable graduates, Spain and Russia for the stable freshmen.

As immigration is a major factor in Argentine social life, this faculty of the University of Buenos Aires appears to be playing a major role in ratifying the incorporation into Argentine society of the children of immigrants. In this sense the faculty probably discharges for many of its students the double function of being a complex cultural as well as occupational mobility channel. The inference may readily be drawn that Economics remains accessible precisely because the occupation is of relatively low prestige, and that the prestige continues to be low precisely because the faculty remains accessible to so many upwardly-mobile persons whose condition in society is so influenced by the immigrant status of their fathers. Certainly the low status traditionally attached to business occupations in Latin America -- at least as compared to medicine or the law -- must also have its influence here.

The educational records of the fathers of mobile versus status stable interviewees parallel the results on national origins. Fully 67 per cent of the fathers of the upwardly mobile both among graduates and freshmen never progressed

beyond the primary school. At the other end of the educational scale for this same group, we find only four per cent of the fathers of the mobile freshmen have university degrees, two per cent of the upwardly mobile graduates. The figure is quite different for the mobility-stable students, of course, 50 per cent of whom have fathers with a university degree or at least some higher education; among graduates, a quarter have fathers with some or complete university training.

Confirming the almost totally urban character of the university population, we find that no fewer than 87 per cent of the freshmen and 80 per cent of the graduates have never lived anywhere other than in a large city.

Subjective Views of Class

The respondents' subjective views of their class position is not far from the norms established by the other two study faculties, despite the differences in social origins (Tables AE-II and AE-IV). Though coming from backgrounds dissimilar in important respects from many of their university colleagues, these accountants and economists share meaningful self-appreciations and attitudes with professions whose prestige and earning power are more assured. The opportunity to educate oneself and to internalize and sustain identifications with better-off occupational and class sectors in the nations is, of course, indicative of a degree of openness and receptivity to new elements in Argentine society. The attractiveness of Argentina to immigrants is explained to some extent by these findings.

The data on class identification for the Economics samples demonstrate how close in self-perceptions these respondents are to the scientists and physicians. For example, 14 per cent of the freshman students and 21 per cent of the graduates call themselves "rich," another 73 per cent of the former and 68 per cent of the latter consider themselves "moderately well off," and only seven per cent of the students and 3 per cent of the graduates consider themselves as "poor."

Self-identification in terms of ordinary class designations brought forth massive identification with society's middle sectors. Eighty-nine per cent of the students and fully 95 per cent of the graduates identified themselves as "middle class." Such divisions as we might expect reveal themselves when these data are correlated with the mobility index. None of the stable persons in either group, for example, considers himself as "poor," although only 8 per cent of the upwardly mobile freshmen place themselves in that category, and 5 per cent of the mobile graduates. At the other end of the scale, 11 per cent of the mobile freshmen count themselves "rich," as against fully 28 per cent of the mobility-stables. Only 12 per cent of the upwardly mobile graduates consider themselves "rich," but a most substantial 45 per cent of the stable graduates so list themselves.

Identification of oneself as a professional seems to proceed somewhat more hesitantly here than in the other study groups, with only 30 per cent of the freshmen so counting themselves. First-year students must inevitably confuse their

familial situation with their anticipated occupation in making their choice in this area, of course, so that we must expect a much lower response in the professional category from Economics students than from medical or mathematics and physics students who will tend to reflect the higher occupational positions of their parents. The figure rises to a full 90 per cent of the graduates, however, almost all the remainder listing themselves as "white collar." The failure of the students, however, to go below the "white collar" level in any appreciable numbers is also deserving of comment. Only 6 per cent listed themselves as "worker," although another 15 per cent chose not to answer at all. These responses, if taken at their face value, indicate once again that most Economics students, insofar as they recognize their own upward mobility do not perceive themselves as currently moving out of lower economic groups but rather as already within middle class ranks.

The addition of the ideological connotation to social class caused the same scattering of response we saw in the other faculties. Only 40 per cent of the freshmen could think of themselves as "bourgeois," joined by 56 per cent of the graduates. Thirteen per cent of the first-year students listed themselves as "aristocracy," against a meagre two persons among all the graduates. But of the students, much more willing to accept some label than the graduates, 30 per cent thought themselves "proletarian," as against only 10 per cent of the graduates, a full third of whom refused any designation

at all in the list. The mobility-stable persons in both samples were more willing to accept the stamp of being "bourgeois," or else refused to elect any category, while the upwardly mobile who fled the negative connotation of the word were rather more prone to put themselves in the "proletarian" box.

Social Mobility and National Identification

The Faculty of Economic Sciences has two highly important distinctions from the other study groups: having the highest proportion of mobile individuals, it also has the lowest number of those with high scores on the index of national identification. (Table AE-VI and AE-VIII). The difference is most impressive on the index of national identification between Economics and Exact Sciences, and there most accentuated between the graduates of the two faculties. Forty-one per cent of the mathematicians and physicists rank high on the index, and only 14 per cent of the graduates of Economics. Fifty-three per cent of the latter rank low, and only a little better than a fifth of the graduates of Exact Sciences. Among all the samples by year, Economics ranks consistently lowest on this index.

These findings among the most mobile of all the groups studied in Argentina, and one of the most mobile of the groups studied anywhere, underscore yet again the essential independence of the two scales and the essential point that the mobility-national identification relationship is by no means an automatic one for the types of groups we have been studying.

Attitudes Toward Education

These students and graduates of the Faculty of Economics plainly owe much to their education in social as well as occupational terms. They demonstrate an awareness of this debt by responding rather more favorably even than the other samples to the right to an education as one of the most important needs of the citizen (Tables AE-VIII and IX). As in all the other cases studied, these respondents thought that equality before the law is the most important right of the citizen, a free education for all second. About 80 per cent of both the Economics groups placed one or another of these choices in first place, a higher percentage than in either of the other two faculties. The ordering of these responses is impressively uniform for all the faculties and closely parallels results in other countries. Equality before the law is a fundamental first choice, followed by the right to an education and the right to an effective political voice. Economic safeguards (a minimum wage and social security) come in fourth and fifth. One possible framework for the analysis of these responses is offered by the European Rationalist and Liberal ideologies long important to Latin American political thought and legal form. The low ranking given to the two economic choices is also in line with the thesis of many observers that this century is truly The Age of Politics in Latin America.

We have suggested that the responses concerning individual rights are rooted deep in traditional Latin American

values, although plainly they also have an immediate application not only to the mechanisms of development, but perhaps even to the ends of development. When queried concerning the functions of the school, the Economics groups once again lean toward choices expressing traditional values. About a third of the freshmen and graduates feel that the formation of men of culture is the foremost function of the school, a response which in the Latin American context is classical. Such an answer places no emphasis on vocational or civic matters, but rather seeks the development of the individual in a broad, artistically cultural and humanistic sense. Approximately another third selected either the transmitting of the national spirit to young people, or the preparation of good citizens as the primary function. This response is traditional not only because it is bromidic, but also because it pays lip service to juridical notions of sovereignty imbedded in public thought in Latin America since the early days of Independence and mimetic nationalism.

The last third of both the students and graduates opts for the vocational function of education, the imparting of technical and professional training. This response is consistent with the contemporary view that the development of technicians is one of Latin America's greatest present needs, and is plainly related to certain political movements in Latin America and to the development of certain new professions.

Many economists, for instance, have sought to justify their professional existence by defining themselves as apolitical, non-partisan technicians available to advise and administer governmental as well as private programs for economic development. This response must be taken as the most "modern" one in the present Latin American situation.

Work-Related Development Values

Economists in many Latin American countries, deeply involved with the processes of development as they are, might be expected to be in very strong agreement with at least many of the development values touched on in the research. Unhappily information as complete on this subject as for the other two faculties is not now available, but we did succeed in having tabulated three of the more important items (Tables AE-X and XI). With respect to the development value designed to touch the occupation under study, we asked whether the respondents found greater employment by the government of economists a desirable trend. Almost three-quarters of the freshmen and 84 per cent of the graduates answered positively. In response to the immediately related question concerning greater governmental control of professional norms, however, only half of the first year students reacted favorably, 60 per cent of the graduates. Even so, these affirmative answers are very considerably higher than the responses from Exact Sciences and, although less markedly so, still appreciably above Medicine. In view of the low scores of this faculty on the national identification index, this relative willingness to accept state control of professional

activities can reasonably be regarded as reflecting both a realistic view of the employment market in these occupations as well as a less clearly articulated and institutionalized set of standards for self-regulation. Nine-tenths of each group also favored more varied social access to the profession.

Once again the social cohesiveness of the Economics groups is supported by the fact that dividing the responses by the mobility index is not revealing of major differences in viewpoint.

Political Attitudes and Activities

The failure of the fact of upward social mobility to lead to generalized social activism and participation is clearly shown once again in the data concerning the political activities of the respondents (Tables AE-XII and XIII). As the low ranking on the index of national identification should lead us to suspect, the Economics groups stand well below Exact Sciences in degree of political activity, and on most of the details of such participation just a little below even Medicine. The differences between Economics and Sciences become substantial only in those areas where the greatest effort is required -- participation in a street rally or demonstration and attendance at a party meeting. Thirteen per cent of the Economics freshmen, for example, stated they had participated in a demonstration of some sort during the six months prior to the interview, while 39 per cent of the Exact Sciences freshmen answered affirmatively. Only 9 per cent of the freshmen in Economics had attended a party

meeting, opposed to 18 per cent of the Sciences freshmen.

About two-thirds of the freshmen think their political ideas and activities have some importance, as do 54 per cent of the graduates. This response, as can be seen in the preceding chapter, is much more general in Argentina than in Chile. Fuller analysis will reveal the reasons the respondents themselves advance for these views, but at this time it may be said that Argentines appear to view the mere fact of voting as more important than do the Chileans.

Among the undergraduates the mobility-stable students quite consistently are more politically active than their upward-moving classmates, and also feel their activities and ideas to be of more importance. But this trend does not hold for the graduates.

Conclusions

1. There are high numbers of upwardly mobile students in all groups studied; the Faculty of Economics shows the highest rate, but the number of upwardly mobile persons is substantial throughout. The nature of the mobility, however, is probably different as between Economics and the other two faculties, and thus the effect of university training on social status is also probably different. The conclusion seems to be warranted that Economics students generally start from rather lower origins than the others, and after graduation usually do not end up in as high a prestige position. Medicine and Exact Sciences rather more importantly discharge

the function of educationally ratifying existing social status; Economics seems to serve as an important channel of ascent.

2. The upwardly mobile tend rather more strongly than their stable colleagues to recognize the function of education in their social movement, for there is a positive correlation between affirmative views of the role of education and the mobility factor. All groups, nevertheless, are substantially in agreement on the desirability of extended educational opportunities for as many capable persons as possible in the community.

3. The essential independence of the mobility and national identification indices remains substantiated once again throughout these nine samples.

4. The Faculty of Exact Sciences emerges as the case with the highest percentage of persons high on the index of national identification of any of the study groups in any country. Certainly the nature of their profession has influenced this result; this matter will be discussed at greater length in the general conclusions. It should be pointed out now, however, that even though the mathematicians and physicists are also the most active politically among the Argentine groups studied, the sphere of their political activities is restricted largely to university and professional circles. The effects of their occupation are

also seen in the low rating they give to the desirability of competitiveness.

5. The Faculty of Economic Sciences lowest on the index of national identification and highest on the mobility index, emerges as also one of the focal points of tradtionalist thinking. The effect of professional training on many of these persons is to permit them to identify more closely with nuclei of classical prestige groups within the country.

6. A consistent correlation among national identification and "modernity" in education, work, personal developmental attitudes, and secularism is only partially evident in the data. Professional practise and style appears to wash out what might otherwise be consistent patterns of response. Physicians, for example, are most reluctant to permit an extension of governmental controls over professional norms, mathematicians and physicists are committed to academic teamwork and hence rate competitiveness as relatively undesirable, and so forth. The occupational factor is indubitably of great importance in conditioning such attitudes.

7. Religious belief emerges as of major importance in dividing the samples. Although there are some individuals who profess strong religious feelings

and also rank high on the index of national identification, the strong group tendency is for these two sets of beliefs to be in opposition.

MEXICO

A problem in theory and method for all studies involving questions of power is how upper groups are to be defined, and once defined how they are to be reached. These questions assume importance for this research, for the attitudes of decision-making groups are of great interest not only for the testing of the general hypotheses, but also because of the clear implications for educational and developmental growth of the policies followed by the several Latin American governments. To represent at least one area of importance in the establishment of political policy, we have chosen the legislature of the national government of Mexico.

Many students of government tend to neglect the importance of the legislative branch in Latin America. Although it is true that all of the Latin American states except Chile have strong-executive forms of national government, it is not true that all the national congresses are without power. They serve an important legitimating function in countries well known for their desire to adhere at least to the externals of legal procedure. The legislature also often serves as a most important sounding board for opinion, and thus discharges a crucial function for the executive in determining the popular impact of public policy. Congresses, too, may also act as a significant channel of communications between the national and the local organs of government, and between party organization and the state. The legisla-

tures permit the formal expression of opposition political opinion and force incumbent governments to the ordered expression of reigning ideologies and political rationalizations in the debate on pending measures.

The Mexican Congress is a particularly good representative of that type of legislature which is not particularly powerful in the deciding of the specifics of policy, but which still has an important role in the legitimation, opinion testing, and communications areas. Because of the overriding importance of the Party of Institutional Revolution (PRI) within the Mexican party system, the opinions of congressmen also gain importance as representative of the dominant organized political thought of the country. The long and mature development of a national ideology and style in Mexico for long has been given key public expression through the PRI and the national Congress, as well as through executive pronouncements.

Mexico was chosen as the site of this study for other reasons as well. The representativeness of the legislators within the national context goes beyond the legislative sphere, for they and the upper echelons of the executive branch appear to be drawn from the same pool of professional and semi-professional permanent political actors from which more and more of the growingly civilian political leadership in Mexico has come in the past generation. Another reason is the great emphasis recently seen in Mexico toward rapid modernization of the economy and parts of the society,.

in all of which Congress has played its crucial legitimating and communicating roles. The country's post-war economic development has been called a "miracle of growth" by some of its most distinguished economists. Mexico was also one of the earliest innovators within the hemisphere of literacy programs and attempts through education to integrate the mestizo and indigenous populations and to equalize urban and rural differences in social level. The announcement several years ago of the initiation of a gigantic ten-year plan for the enlargement and improvement of the education system -- especially at its lower levels -- also drew our attention to Mexico.

In the following discussion we do not discriminate between Senators and Deputies, considering both as parts of the same general family of lawmakers.

Composition of the Sample

The median age of the 96 Senators and Deputies interviewed -- about half the total Congress -- was 48.5 years, the range running from 30 to 66 years. (Table ME-I) Eighty-nine were men, six women. And only six of the total were single; two were widowed. The tendency toward large families is very impressive, for while only seven per cent have no children, almost 20 per cent have six or more. A full 65 per cent have three children or more.

The educational backgrounds of these persons is quite disparate, even though 52 per cent have a university degree and another four per cent have some university training. At the other end of the scale, 20 per cent have either

completed primary school or at least had some primary education. Another 18 per cent have completed their secondary training, and the remainder (six per cent) halted somewhere at the secondary level. Income levels are scattered more widely than educational achievement. Twenty-three per cent declare themselves as earning over $10,000.00 (U.S. $800.00) per month, 17 per cent from $7501 to 10,000 (U.S. $600 to $800), and 25 per cent from $5001 to 7570 (U,S. $400 to $600) per month. Three per cent state they earn less than U.S. $80.00 per month, 11 per cent from U.S. $80 to $240 and 17 per cent from U.S. $240 to $400 per month. Although income figures obtained through surveys are notoriously imprecise, it may be said that a substantial majority of Mexican congressmen declare themselves as earning very comfortable incomes within prevailing scales of earnings in their country. Their subjective judgments concerning where these incomes place them in relation to other Mexicans are discussed in the following section.

As is to be expected, the congressmen tend to have multiple sources of income. Only 19 per cent fail to indicate more than one source, the remainder all listing other employment, business income, and so forth, the largest single group (20 per cent) receiving additional income through the exercise of professional skills.

Subjective Views of Class

Despite this wide divergence in educational level and income, the congressmen show a great amount of convergence

on three of the stratification scales (Table ME-II). The greatest agreement is registered concerning the direct matter of class itself, with 94 per cent denominating themselves as "middle class." Seventy-seven per cent said they were "reasonably well off," 15 per cent that they were "rich," and five per cent that they were "poor" -- all figures reasonably consistent with the monetary income figures mentioned above. In the matter of occupational scaling, 72 per cent called themselves "professionals," 11 per cent "white collar employees," and eight per cent "workers."

The "aristocracy," "bourgeoisie," and "proletarian" categories, however, shattered the concensus, occasioning even more scattering of the responses than among the Argentine sample populations. Only one person denominated himself an "aristocrat." Thirty per cent chose "bourgeoisie," 42 per cent "proletarian," and the remaining 25 per cent refused an election. The effects of the reigning ideology of the Mexican Revolution certainly play their part in the responses to this question. But the strong dislike of the adjective "bourgeois" among persons otherwise willing to denote themselves as occupying a middle social situation is worth noting once again. There is a substantial willingness in Mexico as in Argentina to think of oneself as a member of the "proletariat." The opposite tendency is seen in the United States, of course, where "worker" has a much lesser negative connotation either than "lower class" or "proletariat."

Heterogeneity within the Sample

We have already examined the degree of homogeneity and heterogeneity within the sample in a general fashion. Controlling social mobility introduces little further refinement to the analysis (Tables ME-III, IV, V). The mobility-stables are only very slightly older than the upwardly-mobile. All the women are upwardly-mobile. Figures concerning family size, educational level, and income levels and sources are very similar for the two mobility groups. Rather more of the mobility-stable group classifies itself as "rich" and as "professionals" than do the upwardly-striving, but few of the differences achieved statistical significance.

Even in the matter of the educational levels of the fathers, the differences are not striking. The greatest divergence lies in the fathers who have a university degree -- nine per cent of the fathers of the upwardly-mobile, 22 per cent of the fathers of the mobility-stables. Only one congressman in the sample had a father born outside of Mexico--in Italy. And as behooves representatives who must have at least some feel for the grass-roots, 50 per cent of these legislators have lived for five years or more in the countryside or a small town.

Social Mobility and National Identification

These two indices remain statistically independent for the Mexican sample as with all the others.

The Mexican results, however, may at first sight be dismaying because of the wide reputation Mexicans have for

being highly "nationalistic," for most of these congressmen rank low on the national identification index. Fifteen have a high score, 28 a medium score, and a full 53 score low. (Table VI) The reader should once more bear in mind that the national identification index is not a measure of ideology, but rather of certain views held concerning the mechanisms of the state and the impersonal settlement of dispute. From the viewpoint of internal consistency with the social origins and current social situation of the legislators and the manner in which the group divides on other matters, the breakdown of the national index responses does not appear unreasonable. For example, the results of the question concerning work-related development values, although not analyzed in detail here because they are less directly relevant occupationally for this sample, provide corollary support for the low ranking of the sample on national identification. (Table ME-VII) When asked their reaction to the growth of impersonalism within large organizations as a concomitant of industrial development, fully four out of five congressmen registered disapproval. On all the other consequences of economic development that were tested, between 80 and 90 per cent indicated their approval. The reluctance to accept a degree of impersonalism in work relationships could be expected sharply to limit capacity for national identification, restricting loyalties as it does to a narrow personal sphere.*

* A majority of the legislators, however, approved more "impersonalism" in politics. Personalism is, of course, a term that for long has been used to flay Latin American politicians and has come to epitomize everything that is retrograde in Latin American politics.

Attitudes toward Education

The low ranking of the congressmen on the national identification index in a nation ardently committed to industrialization explains the configuration of the responses involving attitudes toward education. (Tables ME-VIII, IX) As befits lawmakers, equality before the law was generally considered as the most important citizenship right; as in all the other countries, education was chosen in second place. Four out of five congressmen go so ar as to affirm that the government should guarantee education to all capable persons.

But when weighing educational objectives, the congressmen again lean toward a traditionalistic response; about two in five view the primary function of education as the instilling of patriotic values (37 per cent) in young people. Another third see the teaching of good citizenship as the school's first mission. Only one in four of the respondents viewed the imparting of technical and professional training as the most important job of the school. That is to say, once again the impersonal response, the one involving an indirect investment implying social prediction, was chosen by a rather small minority.

The indices of social mobility and national identification do not make for differential responses on these questions.

Religiosity and Secularism

These congressmen also belie the commonly held notion that the Mexican government takes a generally anti-religious posture. No fewer than 67 per cent list themselves as

practicing Catholics; only 18 per cent say they have no religion. Only one stated he professed a religion other than Catholicism, and 14 per cent declined to answer the question. But despite this high religious commitment, only about a quarter of the congressmen transport their religious belief into the occupational sphere, holding that their religious convictions aid in the performance of the legislator's job. In this they conform, of course, to the reigning official ideology.

Though statistically inconclusive, the results of the tabulations of religiosity by mobility and national identification run counter to findings in other countries and imply a rather special relationship that is worth noting. Rather more of the upwardly mobile (71 per cent) than the mobility stables (58 per cent) profess a religious belief. All but one of the thirteen legislators who scored high on national identification also are practicing Catholics. The small numbers require caution in interpretation, but it seems safe to say that there is here some evidence that strong religious belief is not incompatible with national identification.

The suggestion presents itself that we are witness-

ing the attempt to remold religious thought to the opportunities of a developing society and to the public exigencies of modernism. This possibility is consistent with the subjective appreciations of many observers who have commented upon a religious renaissance in Mexico, and the emergence of spiritual beliefs more closely molded to the national experience of the past fifty years.

Mexican Conclusions

Only a fraction of the data obtained among Mexican legislators could be processed in time for this analysis. Moreover, in Mexico unlike other study countries, it was not possible at this time to compare and contrast the opinions of legislators with those of the second Mexican study group, intellectuals. Though incomplete and lacking the analytical leverage that direct comparison with another Mexican group influential in shaping national policy and ideology would have provided, the findings throw light on yet another useful facet of the central theme.

The special character of this study group should perhaps be underscored anew. These lawmakers are not involved

directly in the economic growth process as were the Brazilians sampled; they have no occupational involvement with education as do the Chileans. Though most of them have some university training, their positions as legislators do not rest on a formal process of professionalization rooted in the university as was the case with the Argentines studied. These are men of high status and important political power, directly involved in the public aspects of development policy. They are also spokesmen and guardians of a complex national, revolutionary ideology and a unique set of political institutions centered in a powerful party organization. Though fragmentary, the present findings suggest the existence of a degree of ambivalence and conflict among these legislators as well as a straining toward a new integration of values and goals as the revolutionary ideological heritage is confronted with new alternatives of method and objectives.

1. A most striking finding is the relatively low scores of these legislators on the index of national identification. The distinction between commitment to nationalist ideology and the more rationalized and generalized form of solidarity that is here being called national identification has been made more

than once in these pages. Barring the possibility that the low scores on national identification prove to be an artefact of some quirk in the way the items in the index operate in Mexico, these results illustrate precisely that strong ideological attachment to values of sovereignty and national development do not lead directly to an expansion of the individual's sphere of loyalties so that these encompass and give priority to the state and the national community above narrower social referents.

Some of these congressmen have roots in the earlier days of the Mexican Revolution; others are newer arrivals to the political scene. Since the median age is close to 50 years most have probably been politically most active in the years since Cardenas. The differences in age, political experience, education, income and social origin (more than half had fathers with occupations of lower status than their own) all contribute to the division of views concerning the nation, development, and other policy issues that is apparent even in these limited results.

3. Though the legislators sometimes appear to accept almost unanimously some value or policy associated with development, when the reasons for this acceptance are examined these tend to divide into reasons of a traditionalist kind as opposed to those of a

practical, pragmatic orientation.

4. Religiosity, as indicated by the profession of a practicing faith is surprisingly high among the Mexican legislators in view of the official secularist and anti-clerical background. However, religiosity among these men unlike the situation observed in other samples, does not seem to be in opposition to acceptance of development values nor to degree of national identification. Practically all of those scoring "high" on national identification call themselves believing Catholics.

PART III

GENERAL CONCLUSIONS

This study has concerned itself exclusively with the meaning of class, social mobility, and national identification to the process of social modernization and to the role of the educational institution in that development. We have viewed class as the expression in social organization of a triad of power composed of political, social, and economic elements. The social class variable was built into the study a priori by the pre-selection of the study groups through a subjective application of this definition of class. Thus we have covered the spectrum from the favelados of Rio de Janeiro, the lowest urban working groups, to prestigious professional, professorial, and governmental policy-making groups at the other end of the scale. Whenever we refer to our sample groups, then, we are in effect making an implied statement about more widespread and general class differences as well as about important intra-class differences. The weight of the studies falls upon various elements of what is commonly called the "middle class," which in the vulgar theory of development is held up as the criterion of modernization, the seat of social stability, the hope for more responsible citizenship and political leadership. No groups are included in the research which might be considered outside the stream of national cultural life, which are exiled from the community by rigid lines of caste division and thus cannot hope to participate on a group basis in the process of mobility which is such an important human aspect of the

reallocation of resources involved in the developmental process.

Education as well as class is a determinate characteristic of the groups chosen for study. The findings for any of the social groups sampled are also the findings for persons in specific occupations having a certain defined relationship to the educational process. The matter is most obvious, of course, in the case of the Chilean and Argentine studies, where we examined the producers of education in the one case, and maximum consumers, so to speak, in the study of the Argentine professionals. But since occupation is related to education in a broader sense and over a wider horizon, the Brazil studies are useful in pointing up the role of schooling in the case of the least privileged as well as of those who are of immediate importance to the growth of industrialism, and who may expect heightened gain and influence within their spheres of work as a direct product of increased national industrialization and productivity. The educational records of the Mexican legislators are the most widely scattered of any of the study groups, giving us the opportunity to see persons heterogeneous in this respect operating as one of the key elements in the deciding of national educational policy and in the appropriation of the funds necessary to the growth of the national school system.

Class and educational elements are thus built into the study groups themselves, validation for the choice established by internal confirmation from the data gathered; the

classifications by social mobility and national identification flow from the responses of the interviewees themselves, and provide the main axes for the final subdivision of the samples so that attitudes toward certain values crucial to modernism could be examined systematically in relation to the four central variables.

Our index of social mobility -- defined for the purposes of this study as intergenerational change in occupational prestige potential -- builds on only a portion of the economic and social elements in the broad concept of class. We were concerned primarily with the nature of the job involved itself, with its relative rank within a range of occupations in a given field or situs, and with equating occupations in different fields or across situs boundaries. The principal preoccupation was the grouping of occupations which share approximately equal limits -- both upper and lower -- in terms of potential for power and prestige, and to determine intergenerational movement from one prestige potential category to another. (See Annex B.) This type of human experience is among the essential and immediate social effects of economic change, though it can occur without such economic change, and even though its presence is no guarantee that such economic change as may have occurred will be further stimulated. In fact, our studies suggest that mobility in many cases may be more a passive process reacting to other change than a dynamic force generating further shifts.

Social modernization also involves attitude changes concerning social interdependencies and the establishment of institutions with the power necessary for the control of the new forces operating within the nation. The finding that social mobility and national identification -- the latter our measure of the key attitudes of modernism -- are essentially independent confirmed two alternative hypotheses, both of which were implicit in the major hypotheses stated in the introduction. The first is that mobility can and does occur without consequent or attendant shifts in attitudes related to work, self-realization, or identification with nation -- that is, without any gains in the "social development" of the individual. The second is that such changes in attitudes do occur and produce dynamic elements within class and occupational sectors without the experience of social ascent.

The concept of national identification refers, as we have stated before, to the willingness of the individual to accept the secular mediation of dispute by public institutions. Also involved, then, are notions of empiricism and pragmatism in the events of daily life, a certain commonplace acceptance of the scientific method, if you will, in the spheres related to daily endeavor. Also implicit in this assumption, then, is the meaning we ascribe to traditional value systems, in which the individual extends his primary loyalties to his family, his immediate colleagueship group, and others involved in face-to-face relations with him. The traditional individual leaps from these

intimate identifications to transcendental notions of the human condition, ascribing little importance to such social institutions as the state and the economy as a whole. We have found through the course of this research that one of the most powerful lines of differentiation for our groups is precisely the acceptance of religious or traditional versus modern or secular value systems, and that traditional response in a variety of areas (such as religion, education, and politics) is negatively associated with national identification. There is an apparent gulf between persons who do not accept intermediate loyalties, and those who have a rather more complex working view of the relations between the individual and the society.

At this level of generalization Latin America does not appear as a special case in social theory. These considerations seem relevant to the processes and functions of modernization in the more economically advanced countries of the world as well as in the less developed world.

Another factor built originally into the studies is, of course, the mere fact that we chose to work in four particular Latin American countries. As we have said, we selected two countries (Argentina and Chile) whose industrialization process had managed to proceed rather far before falling into inflation, political difficulties, and eventual economic stagnation. The other two, Brazil and Mexico, are in the midst of very rapid economic growth which indubitably gives rise to a certain general excitement and optimism, multiplies opportunities for mobility, and puts

strain on such institutions as the educational system which must supply the persons required for the new industrial plant. We found a major difference between the old and the new economic developers in terms of the attitudes of national identification. In Argentina and Chile elevated percentages of almost all the groups ranked high on the index, while in general the Brazilians and Mexicans sampled ranked low. Indeed, we further found that the lowest rankings of all occurred at the social extremes among the groups in the two countries most recently entering into development; that is, the Mexican legislators and the Brazilian favelados.

Certainly, by and large, the Argentines and Chileans studied have developed more strongly those values which will permit them to live in their more complex and developed social environments than have in general the study groups in Brazil and the Mexican legislators. But some Mexicans and Brazilians have just as highly developed a sense of national identification as do most of the Argentines and Chileans studied. Our findings assist us to spot those groups that seem to lag or take the lead with respect to national identification in their own nation, and thus to identify factors that inhibit the social development of the individual. The low rankings of the students and graduates of Economics in Argentina, for example, or of the professors of the Catholic University in Chile are in point as group phenomena. In the first case we have a group largely of immigrant origin and socially on the rise, persons caught up and absorbed in the process of integration, but still in

an occupation of fluid and insecure status. The Catholic professors, on the other hand, are a high status group in an occupation that has a long tradition of struggle and conflict with secular authority to maintain its prerogatives. But in Chile it is not only the Catholic professors who rate low on national identification, but all educators at whatever level who profess a strong religious belief. Here, then, is an area where institutional conflict is sharply crystallized with inevitable consequences for national integration.

Insofar as religion in most Latin American countries is one of the core identifying elements of traditional prestige groups, then, those persons who seek to identify themselves with existing elites -- that is, whose mobility is oriented toward such groups -- also demonstrate a great emphasis on religious values and the complex of traditional attitudes that often accompanies such emphasis. This tendency is clearly observable not only in the case of such a classically esteemed profession as medicine, but also shows itself even more clearly in the case of the students and graduates of the Faculty of Economics.

Our findings do not indicate, however, that educational attainment as such is a significant element in this limited secularism-universal religiosity dichotomy, or in the national identification dimension to which it is related. Education is involved principally insofar as it may prepare persons for certain types of occupations which have a

specific place in the development process. Thus Brazilian managers, intimately involved in industrialization, rank relatively high on the index of national identification compared to the other Brazilian groups sampled, at about the same level as Argentine physicians but considerably above Argentine economists and accountants. Here again, the inference is strong that managers are leading and participating in social change in Brazil, while the Argentine physicians and economists are lagging behind other sectors in their own country.

The highest scores on the index of national identification of all the samples studied are in Exact Sciences, among those whose profession stresses scientific canons of evidence, experimentation, and empirical procedures. This sample is also the one with the smallest number of religious believers. It is thus possible to point out at least three forces at work to account for the high level of national identification among those scientists: first, their generally secular orientation; second, the strategic nature of their occupation for development; and third, the intellectual demands and predominant values of the occupation or profession itself.

Viewed in this light, then, the role of education in the complex interplay of class, mobility, occupation, and national identification becomes somewhat clearer. For example, some persons pass through the university without changing in terms of occupational status from the levels

reached by their fathers; within the specialized, professional schools the university provides such individuals with vocational skills and reinforces attitudes and values appropriate to their profession and the class sector wherein the profession lies and to which they were born. Other individuals enter the university from mobile families of some economic means -- that is, families who have gained economic power during the years their children were approaching university age. Higher education here becomes a manner of seeking more security and vocationally ratifying social position won not by the individual but by his family of origin. In other cases, and notably so in the example of Economics, the school serves as an important mobility channel for low status individuals, materially changing the social potential of students who on entering the university are still tied in status terms to families of modest situation. Here the fact of university training means a substantial boost for the individual which he cannot pass on directly to his family of origin. However, when the occupation itself is not committed to developmental or other modern values, the experience of mobility and university training in themselves do not automatically make for attitude changes favorable to development. In short, it is not the fact of the accumulation of vocational or professional skills which helps to develop the individual socially. What counts in this connection is the kind of skills involved, the substantive content of the education, the values that the occupation and the class sector of that occupation emphasize. More higher

education and more social mobility in themselves will not unfailingly produce more social development.

A closer look at the individual country results may assist us at this point in detailing some of the phenomena in the process of development that may be observed from differing vantage points. The Brazilian data, for example, which concern groups intimately involved in the development process, as has been said, show that the income, education, and social origins of the skilled operators are much closer to those of the slum-dwellers than to the managers. Yet the social attitudes and even many of the expectations of the skilled workers parallel those of the managers, a group at a great social distance from them in income, education, prestige, and power. The implication of these findings is closely related to the preceding statements concerning the relation among education, occupation, and developmental values, where it was pointed out that the style and the content of the occupation are crucial considerations in the formation of the attitudes of modernism. What this Brazilian finding indicates most clearly is that attitudes, values, and desires can change in anticipation of what are commonly thought of as more basic social conditions, and that indeed they may be the dynamic element in forcing a change in those aspects of life that are more conventionally taken as indicators of social development. The evidence does not support the idea that education contributed importantly either to the technical preparation or attitude patterns characteristic of these skilled workers or industrial

managers. On the other hand, occupation does seem to correlate positively with development values.

Another finding worth noting here is the low level of political interest and activity among even the most modern-minded managers and skilled workers. There is little substance offered here for the hope that political reform, stability, and responsible participation will grow naturally through the expansion of these occupational sectors.

The Mexican findings illustrate yet another possible combination in the relationship among values, ideology, and social status. Considerable caution is required in the case of the Mexican legislators because of the absence of another Mexican group with which to compare them and the relative paucity of data available for analysis at this time. What is at hand nevertheless strongly implies that these congressmen have absorbed the official ideology of development, but have retained many traditional values as bases for action and choice. This duality appears in their low scores on national development as well as, for example, in the high value they give to education and broad accessibility to higher instruction while adducing strongly traditionalist reasons for these choices. Other signs of ambivalence regarding development values also occur in the data.

A second interesting configuration which emerges from the replies of the Mexican congressmen is the relatively high percentage who combine a strong religious belief with high rankings on the index of national identification. In all our samples, of course, there are individuals ranking

high both in religiosity and adherence to the nation, but in the Mexican case the figures, though small, call attention because they show practically all the high scorers on national identification to be practising Catholics. This nexus between religion and certain of the demands of social development within the political sphere can be of great significance in the future in Latin America. The Christian Democratic parties in certain countries are, of course, already committed to seeking out a fresh ideological synthesis along these lines.

The Chilean and Argentine studies, directing our attention once more to the internal workings of the educational system itself go far toward explaining in broad terms why it is that the school is not preparing individuals well for active participation in the process of development. Although with the exception of the professors at the Catholic University, most Chilean teachers sampled ranked high on the national identification index, they do not appear to carry these generalized attitudes over into operative notions of development or work in their profession. The primary and secondary school teachers emphasize generalized traditional goals of education; their attitudes appear to be based on an old and inappropriate set of ideological notions which they cannot translate into modern terms. Most of them are either stable in their mobility patterns, or else have lost ground socially vis-a-vis their fathers. In the main they are discontented with their lot as teachers, emphasize tradition-

ally individualistic notions of the functions of teaching, and reject adjustment of the educational system to the requirements of development. They shy sharply away from competitiveness; the overwhelming impression given is one of defeat and discouragement.

Professors at the Catholic University are in general caught in the web of inability to adjust religious belief to even a limited and contained secularism, although there are invidual exceptions, of course. Only with the professors at the University of Chile do we find any serious willingness to consider questions of adjustment to the complexities of development, and the division of social life into related but discrete spheres of secularism, religious belief, and responsible individual autonomy -- the earmarks of social development.

The core conclusions from Argentina have already been mentioned -- that we have here a case in which the educational institution in large measure passes on the reigning style and tone of the professions for which the individual is being trained. The three groups divide sharply on all matters having to do with the inteelectual requirements and the related social attitudes involved in the study and practise of the professions concerned. In the case of Exact Sciences, as has been hinted, we have almost a full-blown "real-type" of the developing, modern, scientific mind -- rationalistic, politically active in matters close to the individual, secularist, and evolving significantly

through the various phases of study and practise under investigation. Economics strikingly illustrates the manner in which training and emerging professionalism can be geared to older values; the individuals concerned are certainly moving and changing, but the direction is toward the traditional in large measure. And Medicine sharply points up the ratifying function of higher education, a certification in all senses -- of status, values, political ideas, and attitudes toward the profession.

All these findings illustrate the various manners in which accomodation has been achieved in various manners among education, mobility, religion, national identification and development values in Latin America. They should not give rise to pessimism, for the mere demonstration of the variation shown and the outlining of some of the vital factors impinging upon the individual heavily underscore the fact that education can be made to mean many different things to different persons. Therefore, because the most vital relations do not appear to be predetermined or iron-bound in automatic social processes, rational educational planning can conceivably be of fundamental importance in changing the effect of training upon the individual, of adjusting the educational institution to other social changes, and of allowing it to put itself somewhat in the lead, instead of remaining merely in a reactive position.

That there is a great thirst for extended and bettered educational systems in Latin America and that individuals view education as of primary importance to themselves and

others is an absolutely inescapable conclusion of this research. All study groups in the four countries ranked education as the second most important right immediately behind equality before the law -- and in some cases education shared first place with equality before the law. Overwhelming majorities everywhere feel that the state should guarantee a university education to all capable persons. This desire is consistent and universal, very little affected by considerations of class, mobility, or national identification. In other words, it has become an almost universal part of the ideological constellation in Latin America, a matter beyond discussion. This kind of agreement not only frees the hands of the policy-maker, but it also creates the responsibility for adequate public action in meeting this sharply felt need.

The educator, too, must respond to these wishes, for it is plain that most respondents favor increased education so strongly because they see in it a real advantage to themselves and their societies. The responsibility of the educator resides, then, in his meeting not only the vocational aspirations of his students, but also in equipping them in a full sense to enjoy their professions within a social context of mutual responsibility, of expanding freedom of opportunity within widened areas of predictability -- in short, within a "socially developed" society.

All developing societies face the same problem in one or another fashion. The growth of the ability to "see" across class lines, the development of patterns of social

intercourse permitting a high order of understanding and predictability within the heightened complexity of modern society, and the relatively equal access of persons from all social groups to the institutions of the nation are the functional hallmarks of social development. If the educational institution can train persons into both their vocations and an understanding of the social demands of development, then it will be performing a positive role in the building of modern society.

TABLE BR-I

BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLES

	MANAGERS		SKILLED WORKERS		FAVELADOS	
	#	%	#	%	#	%
AGE						
Median	37		33		30	
Range	25-57		16-63		16-69	
SEX						
Men	172	99	173	100	150	100
Women	2	1	-	-	--	-
MARITAL STATUS						
Single	18	10	41	23	55	37
Married	153	88	131	76	88	59
Divorced	3	2	1	1	2	1
Widowed	-	-	-	-	4	3
NUMBER OF CHILDREN						
None	35	20	52	30	65	43
One	28	16	39	23	18	12
Two	55	32	47	27	15	10
Three	30	17	18	10	11	8
Four	15	9	9	5	12	8
Five	5	3	7	4	6	4
Six or more	6	3	1	1	23	15
EDUCATION						
No formal education	3	2	9	5	19	12
No formal education but read ans write	-	-	-	-	13	9
Primary	33	19	131	76	104	69
First secondary cycle	39	22	25	14	13	9
Second secondary cycle	29	17	8	5	1	1
University	57	33	-	-	-	-
Not ascertained	13	7	-	-	-	-
NUMBER OF CASES	174		173		150	

TABLE BR-1 (CONT.)

BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLES

	MANAGERS		SKILLED WORKERS		FAVELADOS	
	#	%	#	%	#	%
PERSONAL INCOME						
None	1	1	-	-	19	13
Cr.$5.000 or less	-	-	-	-	25	17
5.001 to 9.000	-	-	2	1	13	9
9.001 to 18.000	-	-	83	48	85	57
18.001 to 25.000	-	-	70	40	6	4
25.001 to 36.000	2	1	17	10	-	-
36.001 to 60.000	24	14	1	1	-	-
60.001 to 80.000	40	23	-	-	-	-
80.001 or more	107	61	-	-	-	-
SECONDARY SOURCES OF INCOME*						
None	103	59	158	91		
Rents and dividends	41	24	6	3		
Own business	14	8	1	1		
Other employment						
Government	3	2	2	1		
Private	16	9	-	-		
Personal services	4	2	1	1		
Other	9	5	6	3		
NUMBER OF CASES	174		173		150	

*This question was not asked of favelados.

BRAZIL

TABLE BR-II

SUBJECTIVE VIEWS OF CLASS

	MANAGERS		SKILLED WORKERS		FAVELADOS	
	#	%	#	%	#	%
CLASS IDENTIFICATIONS						
Rich	16	9	1	1	1	1
Modest	142	82	90	52	33	22
Poor	6	3	73	42	110	73
None	10	6	9	5	6	4
Professional or proprietor	93	53	20	12	1	1
White Collar	78	45	11	6	10	7
Worker	-	-	139	80	118	78
None	3	2	3	2	21	14
Upper class	18	10	4	2	1	1
Middle class	150	86	116	67	64	42
Lower class	2	1	50	29	70	47
None	4	3	3	2	15	10
Aristocracy	7	4	8	5	1	1
Bourgeoisie	118	68	20	12	4	3
Proletariat	25	14	97	56	60	40
None	24	14	48	27	85	56
NUMBER OF CASES	174		173		150	

TABLE BR-III

BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLES

ACCORDING TO SOCIAL MOBILITY

MOBILITY:	MANAGERS						SKILLED WORKERS				FAVELADOS					
	UP		STABLE		DOWN		UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE		DOWN	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
AGE																
Median	37		35		34		34		32		34		30		30	
Range	27-55		25-57		25-54		20-63		16-56		19-60		17-65		17-69	
SEX																
Men	100	100	50	100	20	91	85	100	68	100	41	100	64	100	34	100
Women	-	-	-	-	2	9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
MARITAL STATUS																
Single	7	7	8	16	3	14	19	22	16	24	9	22	25	39	12	35
Married	92	92	42	84	17	77	65	77	52	76	29	71	37	58	21	62
Divorced	1	1	-	-	2	9	1	1	-	-	2	5	-	-	-	-
Widower	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	2	2	3	1	3
NUMBER OF CHILDREN																
None	13	13	13	26	8	36	22	26	22	32	12	29	29	45	14	41
One	16	16	8	16	4	18	20	24	15	22	5	7	6	9	8	23
Two	35	35	15	30	5	23	24	28	17	25	7	17	5	8	3	9
Three	19	19	6	12	4	18	7	8	10	15	5	12	4	6	2	6
Four	11	11	4	8	-	-	7	8	1	2	2	5	7	11	3	9
Five	3	3	1	2	1	5	4	5	3	4	2	5	3	5	1	3
Six or more	3	3	3	6	-	-	1	1	-	-	10	25	10	16	3	9
EDUCATION																
No formal education	1	1	-	-	-	-	9	11	-	-	7	17	7	11	4	12
No formal education but read and write	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5	12	8	12	-	-
Primary	2	2	-	-	-	-	65	76	48	70	27	66	41	64	29	85
First secondary cycle	8	8	3	6	2	9	8	9	16	24	2	5	8	13	1	3
Secondary secondary cycle	26	26	12	24	6	27	3	4	4	6	-	-	-	-	-	-
University	63	63	35	70	14	64	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Not ascertained	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
NUMBER OF CASES	100		50		22		85		68		41		64		34	

TABLE BR-III

BACKGROUND CHARACTERISITCS OF THE SAMPLES

ACCORDING TO SOCIAL MOBILITY (Cont.)

MOBILITY:	MANAGERS						SKILLED WORKERS				FAVELADOS					
	UP		STABLE		DOWN		UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE		DOWN	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
PERSONAL INCOME																
None	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5	12	6	9	4	12
Cr.$5.000 or less	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7	17	5	8	11	32
5.001 to 9.000	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	2	3	7	5	8	4	12
9.001 to 18.000	-	-	-	-	-	-	50	59	24	35	22	54	46	72	15	44
18.001 to 25.000	-	-	-	-	-	-	28	33	32	47	4	10	2	3	-	-
25.001 to 36.000	-	-	-	-	2	9	6	7	11	16	-	-	-	-	-	-
36.001 to 60.000	-	-	14	28	10	46	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
60.001 to 80.000	21	21	9	18	10	45	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
80.001 or more	79	79	27	54	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
SECONDARY SOURCES OF INCOME																
None	65	65	27	54	10	45	76	92	62	91						
Rents and dividends	23	23	10	20	8	36	3	4	3	4						
Own business	6	6	6	12	2	9	1	1	-	-						
Other employment																
Government	1	1	2	4	-	-	-	-	2	3						
Private	7	7	8	16	1	4	-	-	-	-						
Personal services	2	2	1	2	1	4	-	-	1	2						
Other	3	3	3	6	3	14	5	6	1	2						
NUMBER OF CASES	100		50		22		85		68		41		64		34	

TABLE BR-IV

SUBJECTIVE VIEWS OF CLASS

ACCORDING TO SOCIAL MOBILITY

MOBILITY:	MANAGERS						SKILLED WORKERS				FAVELADOS					
	UP		STABLE		DOWN		UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE		DOWN	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
CLASS IDENTIFICATIONS																
Rich	7	7	8	16	1	5	-	-	1	2	1	2	-	-	-	-
Modest	85	85	36	72	20	90	43	51	37	54	8	20	17	27	7	21
Poor	4	4	1	2	1	5	37	43	26	38	31	76	43	67	26	76
None	4	4	5	10	-	-	5	6	4	6	1	2	4	6	1	3
Professional or proprietor	54	54	26	52	12	54	5	6	11	16	1	2	-	-	-	-
White collar	44	44	24	48	10	46	7	8	3	4	4	10	5	8	1	3
Worker	-	-	-	-	-	-	70	82	54	80	33	81	53	83	25	73
None	2	2	-	-	-	-	3	4	-	-	3	7	6	9	8	24
Upper class	8	8	8	16	2	9	2	2	2	3	-	-	1	2	-	-
Middle class	90	90	40	80	19	86	55	65	47	69	17	41	30	47	13	38
Lower class	1	1	-	-	1	5	27	32	18	26	20	49	27	42	18	53
None	1	1	2	4	-	-	1	1	1	2	4	10	6	9	3	9
Aristocracy	3	3	3	6	1	5	1	1	6	10	-	-	1	2	-	-
Bourgeoisie	66	66	33	66	18	81	9	11	7	10	2	5	1	2	1	3
Proletariat	15	15	9	18	1	5	42	49	44	64	17	41	28	43	12	35
None	16	16	5	10	2	9	33	39	11	16	22	54	34	53	21	62
NUMBER OF CASES	100		50		22		85		68		41		64		34	

TABLE BR-V

THE INDEX OF SOCIAL MOBILITY RELATED TO NON-OCCUPATIONAL ELEMENTS IN SOCIAL MOBILITY

MOBILITY:	MANAGERS						SKILLED WORKERS				FAVELADOS					
	UP		STABLE		DOWN		UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE		DOWN	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
FATHER'S EDUCATION																
No formal education	2	2	1	2	-	-	41	48	15	22	19	46	18	28	8	23
No formal education but read and write	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	6	15	12	19	4	12
Primary	26	26	5	10	2	9	25	30	34	50	19	34	28	44	16	47
Secondary	43	43	16	32	9	41	-	-	9	13	-	-	4	6	2	6
University	21	21	27	54	9	41	-	-	1	2	-	-	-	-	-	-
Not ascertained	8	8	1	2	2	9	19	22	9	13	2	5	2	3	4	12
FATHER'S BIRTHPLACE																
Brazil	51	51	33	66	14	64	52	61	30	44	41	100	58	91	29	85
Italy	13	13	3	6	3	14	15	18	16	24	-	-	1	1	-	-
Portugal	12	12	3	6	-	-	5	6	6	9	-	-	5	8	5	15
Spain	4	4	1	2	-	-	5	6	8	12	-	-	-	-	-	-
Japan	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Russia	2	2	1	2	-	-	2	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Germany	3	3	3	6	-	-	-	-	1	2	-	-	-	-	-	-
Other European	13	13	5	10	4	18	5	6	5	7	-	-	-	-	-	-
Other	1	1	1	2	1	4	1	1	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
Unknown	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
RURAL OR SMALL TOWN RESIDENCE																
Never	75	75	36	72	19	86	24	28	42	62	8	19	23	36	17	50
Less than 5 years	5	5	2	4	1	4	5	6	3	5	2	5	3	5	4	12
5 to 10 years	4	4	7	14	-	-	9	11	5	7	2	5	7	11	1	3
11 to 15 years	9	9	2	4	1	5	11	13	5	7	8	20	5	8	1	3
More than 15 years	7	7	3	6	1	5	36	42	13	19	21	51	26	40	11	32
NUMBER OF CASES	100		50		22		85		68		41		64		34	

TABLE BR-VI

THE INDEX OF NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION BY SOCIAL MOBILITY

NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION	MOBILITY UP	STABLE	DOWN		MOBILITY* UP	STABLE		MOBILITY UP	STABLE	DOWN	
HIGH	30	14	7	51	19	12	31	7	9	7	23
MEDIUM	39	27	8	74	40	23	63	19	31	13	63
LOW	31	9	7	47	26	33	59	15	24	14	53
	100	50	22	172	85	68	153	41	64	34	139

MANAGERS

$\chi^2 = 6.26$ df. = .4

$.10 < P < .20$

SKILLED WORKERS

$\chi^2 = 5.47$ df. = 2

$.05 < P < .10$

FAVELADOS

$\chi^2 = 1.45$ df. = 4

$.90 > P > .80$

* The downward mobile group among skilled workers is too small for chi-square analysis.

TABLE BR-VII

THE SAMPLES COMPARED ON SOCIAL MOBILITY AND THE

INDEX OF NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION

	A	B	C		D	E	F
	MANAGERS	SKILLED WORKERS	FAVELADOS		MANAGERS	SKILLED WORKERS	FAVELADOS
SOCIAL MOBILITY				NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION SCORES			
UP	100	85	41	HIGH	51	33	23
STABLE	50	68	64	MEDIUM	74	75	69
DOWN	22	12	34	LOW	49	65	58
INDETERMINATE	2	8	11				
NUMBER OF CASES	174	173	150		174	173	150

$\chi^2_{AB} = 10.64$ df. = 3 $.02 > p > .01$

$\chi^2_{BC} = 32.74$ df. = 3 $p > .001$

$\chi^2_{AC} = 48.61$ df. = 3 $p > .001$

$\chi^2_{DE} = 6.00$ df. = 2 $p = .05$

$\chi^2_{EF} = 1.05$ df. = 2 $.70 > p > .50$

$\chi^2_{DF} = 14.54$ df. = 2 $p > .001$

TABLE BR-VIII

ATTITUDES TOWARD EDUCATION

	MANAGERS		SKILLED WORKERS		FAVELADOS	
	#	%	#	%	#	%
RANKING OF CITIZEN RIGHTS*						
Free education	2		2		2	
Equality before the law	2		2		2	
Access to state social services	4		3		3	
Minimum wage	4		4		4	
Effective political voice	3		4		4	
FUNCTIONS OF THE SCHOOL						
Transmit national spirit to young people	4	2	15	8	63	42
Prepare good citizens	43	25	60	35	22	15
Give technical and professional training	77	44	40	23	11	7
Form men of culture	25	15	57	33	14	9
Reading, writing, and arithmetic*	-	-	-	-	39	26
Other answer	19	11	1	1	-	-
No opinion	6	3	-	-	1	1
NUMBER OF CASES	174		173		150	

* (The option, "reading, writing, and arithmetic," was given only to favelados.)

BRAZIL

TABLE BR-VIII

ATTITUDES TOWARD EDUCATION (CONT.)

	MANAGERS		SKILLED WORKERS		FAVELADOS	
	#	%	#	%	#	%
UNIVERSITY EDUCATION FOR ALL						
Yes	171	98	171	99	94	63
No	3	2	2	1	49	32
Don't know	-	-	-	-	7	5
REASONS FOR "YES" ANSWERS						
Help to national progress or collective interest	104	60	83	48	25	17
Help to individual success, satisfaction of individual rights	26	15	37	21	24	16
Government responsibility to give free higher education to all	32	18	-	-	31	21
Other answers	9	5	51	30	14	9
REASONS FOR "NO" ANSWERS						
Harmful to society, all can't be chiefs	-	-	-	-	35	23
Other answers	3	2	2	1	14	9
NUMBER OF CASES	174		173		150	

BRAZIL

TABLE BR-IX

EDUCATION AS PREPARATION FOR WORK

	MANAGERS		SKILLED WORKERS	
	#	%	#	%
LEARNED PRESENT OCCUPATION				
At school	42	24	33	19
At this job	75	43	68	39
At a similar job	40	23	60	35
With father or relatives	5	3	8	4
Other answers	12	7	4	3
RATING OF SCHOOLING AS PREPARATION FOR PRESENT JOB				
Very good	5	3	4	2
Good	37	21	33	19
Fair	63	36	77	45
Poor	69	40	41	24
No opinion	-	-	18	10
NUMBER OF CASES	174		173	

TABLE BR-X

ATTITUDES TOWARD EDUCATION ACCORDING TO

SOCIAL MOBILITY

MOBILITY:	MANAGERS						SKILLED WORKERS						FAVELADOS			
	UP		STABLE		DOWN		UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE		DOWN	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
EDUCATION AS RIGHT																
High 1	53	53	31	62	13	59	71	84	52	76	30	73	33	71	18	53
Low	47	47	19	38	9	41	14	16	16	24	11	27	31	49	16	47
FUNCTIONS OF THE SCHOOL																
Preparation for occupation or citizenship	74	74	30	60	15	68	48	56	38	56	14	34	11	17	5	15
Other answers	26	26	20	40	7	32	37	44	30	44	27	66	53	83	29	85
UNIVERSITY EDUCATION FOR ALL																
Yes	100	100	49	98	22	100	85	100	66	97	23	56	40	62	24	70
No	-	-	1	2	-	-	-	-	2	3	18	44	24	38	10	30
NUMBER OF CASES	100		50		22		85		68		41		64		34	

1. Respondents who ranked education as first or second among citizen rights are in the "high" category; the remainder are in the "low" category.

TABLE BR-XI

ATTITUDES TOWARD EDUCATION ACCORDING

TO NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION

National Identification:	MANAGERS						SKILLED WORKERS						FAVELADOS					
	HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW		HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW		HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
EDUCATION AS RIGHT																		
High[1]	26	51	45	61	26	55	21	68	48	76	53	90	14	61	42	67	25	47
Low	25	49	29	39	21	45	10	32	15	24	6	10	9	39	21	33	28	53
FUNCTIONS OF THE SCHOOL																		
Preparation for occupation or citizenship	36	71	47	64	36	77	17	55	35	56	34	58	4	17	16	25	10	19
Other answers	15	29	27	36	11	23	14	45	28	44	25	42	19	83	47	75	43	81
UNIVERSITY EDUCATION FOR ALL																		
Yes	51	100	72	97	46	98	31	100	63	100	57	97	14	61	41	65	32	60
No	-	-	2	3	1	2	-	-	-	-	2	3	9	39	22	35	21	40
NUMBER OF CASES	51		74		47		31		63		59		23		63		53	

1. Respondents who ranked education as first or second among citizen rights are in the "high" category; the remainder are in the "low" category.

BRAZIL

TABLE BR-XII

WORK-RELATED DEVELOPMENT VALUES*

	MANAGERS		SKILLED WORKERS		FAVELADOS	
	#	%	#	%	#	%
MORE SPECIALIZATION						
Positive	157	90	167	96	121	81
Negative	17	10	6	4	29	19
MORE TEAM WORK						
Positive	171	98	156	90	110	73
Negative	3	2	17	10	40	27
LARGE IMPERSONAL ORGANIZATION						
Positive	35	20	105	61	42	28
Negative	139	80	68	39	108	72
STANDARD NORMS FOR PROMOTION						
Positive	108	62	137	79	129	86
Negative	66	38	36	21	21	14
MORE YEARS OF STUDY FOR OCCUPATION						
Positive	135	77	161	93	136	91
Negative	39	23	12	7	14	9
NUMBER OF CASES	174		173		150	

*Respondents were asked to rate as positive or negative a number of "recent tendencies in work organization everywhere."

TABLE BR-XIII

WORK-RELATED DEVELOPMENT VALUES ACCORDING

TO SOCIAL MOBILITY

MOBILITY:	MANAGERS						SKILLED WORKERS						FAVELADOS			
	UP		STABLE		DOWN		UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE		DOWN	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
MORE SPECIALIZATION																
Positive	93	93	44	88	19	86	80	94	67	98	34	83	50	78	27	79
Negative	7	7	6	12	3	14	5	6	1	2	7	17	14	22	7	21
MORE TEAM WORK																
Positive	99	99	48	96	22	100	74	87	64	94	28	68	51	80	22	65
Negative	1	1	2	4	-	-	11	13	4	6	13	32	13	20	12	35
LARGE, IMPERSONAL ORGANIZATION																
Positive	21	21	12	24	2	9	48	56	45	66	8	20	21	33	8	24
Negative	79	79	38	76	20	91	37	44	23	34	33	80	43	67	26	76
STANDARDIZED NORMS FOR PROMOTION																
Positive	56	56	34	68	16	73	70	82	50	74	35	85	57	89	29	85
Negative	44	44	16	32	6	27	15	18	18	26	6	15	7	11	5	15
MORE YEARS OF STUDY FOR OCCUPATION																
Positive	77	77	39	78	17	77	80	94	62	91	37	90	50	78	30	88
Negative	23	23	11	22	5	23	5	6	6	9	4	10	14	22	4	12
NUMBER OF CASES	100		50		22		85		68		41		64		34	

TABLE BR-XIV

WORK-RELATED DEVELOPMENT VALUES ACCORDING

TO NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION

National Identification:	MANAGERS						SKILLED WORKERS						FAVELADOS					
	HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW		HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW		HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
MORE SPECIALIZATION																		
Positive	47	92	67	90	42	89	31	100	62	98	54	92	20	87	51	81	40	75
Negative	4	8	7	10	5	11	-	-	1	2	5	8	3	13	12	19	13	25
MORE TEAMWORK																		
Positive	48	94	74	100	47	100	26	84	58	92	54	92	17	74	48	76	36	68
Negative	3	6	-	-	-	-	5	16	5	8	5	8	6	26	15	24	17	32
LARGE, IMPERSONAL ORGANIZATION																		
Positive	16	31	9	12	10	21	19	61	41	65	33	56	6	26	17	27	12	23
Negative	35	69	65	88	37	79	12	39	22	35	26	44	17	74	46	73	41	77
STANDARDIZED NORMS FOR PROMOTION																		
Positive	38	74	42	57	26	55	24	77	49	78	47	80	21	91	56	89	44	83
Negative	13	26	32	43	21	45	7	23	14	22	12	20	2	9	7	11	9	17
MORE YEARS OF STUDY FOR OCCUPATION																		
Positive	45	88	56	76	22	47	27	87	59	94	56	95	21	91	59	94	47	89
Negative	6	12	18	24	25	53	4	13	4	6	3	5	2	9	4	6	6	11
NUMBER OF CASES	51		74		47		31		63		59		23		63		53	

TABLE BR-XV

PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT VALUES

	MANAGERS		SKILLED WORKERS		FAVELADOS	
	#	%	#	%	#	%
COMPETITION						
Enjoy seek competition	110	63	52	30	20	13
Like competition somewhat	27	15	23	13	35	24
Indifferent to competition	26	15	27	33	12	8
Dislike competition somewhat	8	5	10	6	23	15
Dislike competition strongly	3	2	30	18	60	40
FUTURE PLANS						
Stick to present job	49	28	53	30	25	17
Seek promotion in present job	90	52	72	42	28	19
Get a better job elsewhere	6	3	5	3	29	19
Work independently in the city	19	17	33	19	33	20
Work independently on the farm	4	2	9	5	9	6
Other answers	6	4	1	1	-	-
Not employed at present	-	-	-	-	26	17
NUMBER OF CASES	174		173		150	

TABLE BR-XVI

PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT VALUES ACCORDING

TO SOCIAL MOBILITY

MOBILITY:	MANAGERS						SKILLED WORKERS						FAVELADOS			
	UP		STABLE		DOWN		UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE		DOWN	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
COMPETITION																
Enjoy and seek competition	63	63	30	60	15	68	33	39	34	50	14	34	28	44	11	32
Other answers	37	37	20	40	7	32	52	61	34	50	27	66	36	56	23	68
FUTURE PLANS																
Stick to present job	25	25	15	30	4	18	25	29	20	29	8	20	12	19	4	12
Other answers	75	75	35	70	18	82	60	71	48	71	26	63	47	73	24	71
Not employed at present	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7	17	5	8	6	17
NUMBER OF CASES	100		50		22		85		68		41		64		34	

TABLE BR-XVII

PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT VALUES ACCORDING

TO NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION

National Identification;	MANAGERS						SKILLED WORKERS						FAVELADOS					
	HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW		HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW		HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
COMPETITION																		
Enjoy and seek competition	32	63	45	61	31	66	12	39	19	30	18	30	2	9	10	16	8	15
Other answers	19	37	29	39	16	34	19	61	44	70	41	70	21	91	53	84	45	85
FUTURE PLANS																		
Stick to present job	9	18	25	34	14	30	6	19	16	25	23	39	5	22	10	6	9	17
Other answers	42	82	49	66	33	70	25	81	47	75	36	61	11	48	48	76	38	72
Not employed at present	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7	30	5	18	6	11
NUMBER OF CASES	51		74		47		31		63		59		23		63		53	

TABLE BR-XVIII

MISCELLANEOUS DEVELOPMENT PROBLEMS

	MANAGERS		SKILLED WORKERS		FAVELADOS	
	#	%	#	%	#	%
IMMIGRATION						
Brazil should welcome all	37	21	61	35	27	18
Brazil should welcome only those useful to the economy	117	67	85	49	24	16
Brazil should exclude all foreigners	-	-	-	-	29	19
Brazil should welcome only certain nationalities	-	-	-	-	31	21
Other answers	20	12	27	16	4	3
No opinion	-	-	-	-	35	23
PLANNING*						
Planning is only a quick path to social advance	173	99	131	76		
Planning is doomed to fail	1	1	42	24		
BENEFITED BY INDUSTRIALIZATION*						
Yes					100	67
No					39	26
No opinion					11	7
NUMBER OF CASES	174		173		150	

* The planning question was not asked of favelados; the one on industrialization was asked only of favelados.

TABLE BR-XIX

MISCELLANEOUS DEVELOPMENT PROBLEMS ACCORDING

TO SOCIAL MOBILITY

MOBILITY:	MANAGERS						SKILLED WORKERS				FAVELADOS					
	UP		STABLE		DOWN		UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE		DOWN	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
IMMIGRATION																
Brazil should welcome only those useful to the economy	67	67	30	62	17	77	41	48	33	48	7	17	11	17	4	12
Other answers	33	33	19	38	5	23	44	52	35	52	34	83	53	83	30	88
PLANNING																
Planning is only a quick path to social advance	99	99	50	100	22	100	64	75	54	79						
Planning is doomed to fail	1	1	-	-	-	-	21	25	14	21						
BENEFITED BY INDUSTRIALIZATION																
Yes											29	71	47	73	18	53
Other answers											12	29	17	27	16	47
NUMBER OF CASES	100		50		22		85		68		41		64		34	

TABLE BR-XX

MISCELLANEOUS DEVELOPMENT PROBLEMS ACCORDING

TO NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION

National Identification:	MANAGERS						SKILLED WORKERS						FAVELADOS					
	HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW		HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW		HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
IMMIGRATION																		
Brazil should welcome only those useful to the economy	43	84	47	63	25	53	18	58	30	48	26	44	4	17	10	16	8	15
Other answers	8	16	27	37	22	47	13	42	33	52	33	56	19	83	53	84	45	85
PLANNING																		
Planning is only a quick path to social advance	51	100	74	100	46	98	25	81	50	79	44	74						
Planning is doomed to fail	-	-	-	-	1	2	6	19	13	21	15	26						
BENEFITED BY INDUSTRIALIZATION																		
Yes													13	56	48	76	33	63
Other answers													10	44	15	24	20	37
NUMBER OF CASES	51		74		47		31		63		59		23		63		53	

TABLE BR-XXI

RELIGIOSITY AND SECULARISM

	MANAGERS		SKILLED WORKERS		FAVELADOS	
	#	%	#	%	#	%
PRACTICING FAITH						
Catholic	93	53	118	68	96	64
Other	16	10	19	12	17	11
None	65	37	36	21	37	25
THE CHURCH AND DEVELOPMENT						
Church helps national development	79	45	98	57	82	55
Church has nothing to do with national development	62	36	43	25	40	27
Church impedes national development	26	15	26	15	18	12
No opinion	7	4	6	3	10	6
RELIGION AND OCCUPATIONAL ROLES						
Religion helps in performance of occupation	118	68	102	59	84	56
Religion makes no difference to occupation	51	29	52	30	61	41
Religion hinders performance of occupation	1	1	15	9	5	3
No opinion	4	2	4	2	-	-
NUMBER OF CASES	174		173		150	

TABLE BR-XXII

RELIGIOSITY AND SECULARISM ACCORDING

TO SOCIAL MOBILITY

MOBILITY:	MANAGERS						SKILLED WORKERS						FAVELADOS			
	UP		STABLE		DOWN		UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE		DOWN	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
PRACTICING FAITH																
Practice a religion	61	61	32	64	13	54	67	79	53	78	27	66	53	83	25	74
Have no religion	39	39	18	36	9	41	18	21	16	22	14	34	11	17	9	26
THE CHURCH AND DEVELOPMENT																
The church helps national development	43	43	24	48	10	45	49	58	36	53	23	56	30	47	21	62
Other answers	57	57	26	52	12	55	36	42	32	47	18	44	34	53	13	38
RELIGION AND OCCUPATIONAL ROLES																
Religion helps in performance of occupation	68	68	35	70	14	64	57	67	31	45	19	46	40	63	17	50
Other answers	32	32	15	30	8	36	28	33	37	55	22	54	24	37	17	50
NUMBER OF CASES	100		50		22		85		68		41		64		34	

TABLE BR-XXIII

RELIGIOSITY AND SECULARISM ACCORDING

TO NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION

National Identification:	MANAGERS						SKILLED WORKERS						FAVELADOS					
	HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW		HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW		HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
PRACTICING FAITH																		
Practice a religion	31	61	41	55	35	74	21	68	53	84	46	78	16	70	45	71	44	83
Have no religion	20	39	33	45	12	26	10	32	10	16	13	22	7	30	18	29	9	17
THE CHURCH AND DEVELOPMENT																		
The Church helps national development	21	41	32	43	24	51	16	52	33	52	36	61	9	39	34	54	31	58
Other answers	30	59	42	57	23	49	15	48	30	48	23	39	14	61	29	46	22	42
RELIGION AND OCCUPATIONAL ROLES																		
Religion helps in performance of occupation	32	63	51	69	34	72	15	48	36	57	37	63	10	43	35	55	31	58
Other answers	19	37	23	31	13	28	16	52	27	43	22	37	13	57	28	45	22	42
NUMBER OF CASES	51		74		47		31		63		59		23		63		53	

BRAZIL

TABLE BR-XXIV

VIEWS OF POWER STRUCTURE AND POLITICAL EFFICACY

	MANAGERS		SKILLED WORKERS		FAVELADOS	
	#	%	#	%	#	%
NATIONAL POWER STRUCTURE						
All in nation have voice	103	59	74	43	53	35
Organized interests run nation	54	31	51	29	31	21
Small group controls nation	9	5	47	27	40	27
No opinion	8	5	1	1	26	17
POLITICAL EFFICACY						
Personal political views and activities are:						
Very important	32	18	41	24	52	35
Fairly important	38	22	41	24	-	-
Of little importance	58	33	29	17	-	-
Unimportant	46	27	62	35	71	47
No opinion	-	-	-	-	27	18
NUMBER OF CASES	174		173		150	

TABLE BR-XXV

VIEWS OF POWER STRUCTURE AND POLITICAL EFFICACY

ACCORDING TO SOCIAL MOBILITY

MOBILITY:	MANAGERS						SKILLED WORKERS				FAVELADOS					
	UP		STABLE		DOWN		UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE		DOWN	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
NATIONAL POWER STRUCTURE																
All in nation have voice	57	57	34	68	10	45	37	43	31	46	10	24	22	35	15	44
Organized interests run nation	36	36	11	22	7	32	26	31	18	26	6	15	16	25	8	23
Small group controls nation	4	4	2	4	3	14	22	26	18	26	15	37	15	23	7	21
No opinion	3	3	3	6	2	9	-	-	1	2	10	24	11	17	4	12
POLITICAL EFFICACY																
Personal political views and activities are:																
Very important	18	18	8	16	5	23	27	32	11	16	9	22	27	42	13	38
Fairly important	20	20	12	24	5	23	14	16	20	30	-	-	-	-	-	-
Of little importance	35	35	16	32	7	31	11	13	13	19	-	-	-	-	-	-
Unimportant	27	27	14	28	5	23	33	39	24	35	23	56	30	47	11	32
No opinion	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	9	22	7	11	10	30
NUMBER OF CASES	100		50		22		85		68		41		64		34	

TABLE BR-XXVI

POLITICAL ACTIVITIES IN LAST SIX MONTHS*

	MANAGERS		SKILLED WORKERS		FAVELADOS	
DISCUSSED POLITICS HEATEDLY WITH ACQUAINTANCES						
Yes	84	48	29	17	30	20
No	90	52	144	83	120	80
DISCUSSED POLITICS HEATEDLY WITH FRIENDS						
Yes	99	57	32	18	29	19
No	75	43	141	82	121	81
ATTENDED A UNION OR OTHER INTEREST GROUP MEETING						
Yes	48	28	79	46	18	12
No	126	72	94	54	132	88
ATTENDED A PARTY MEETING						
Yes	16	9	20	12	26	17
No	158	91	153	88	124	83
WORKED ACTIVELY IN POLITICS						
Yes	12	7	10	6		
No	162	93	163	94		
WORKED ACTIVELY FOR A PARTY						
Yes					21	14
No					129	86
WORKED ACTIVELY FOR A CANDIDATE						
Yes					22	15
No					128	85
PARTICIPATED IN STREET RALLY OR DEMONSTRATION						
Yes	26	15	29	17	36	24
No	148	85	144	83	114	76
NUMBER OF CASES	174		173		150	

*Blank spaces in the table mean the particular item was not asked of the group in question.

TABLE BR-XXVII

POLITICAL ACTIVITIES IN LAST SIX MONTHS

ACCORDING TO SOCIAL MOBILITY

MOBILITY:	MANAGERS						SKILLED WORKERS				FAVELADOS					
	UP		STABLE		DOWN		UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE		DOWN	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
DISCUSSED POLITICS HEATEDLY WITH ACQUAINTANCES																
Yes	45	45	26	52	12	55	13	15	12	18	9	22	12	19	8	24
No	55	55	24	48	10	45	72	85	56	82	32	78	52	81	26	76
DISCUSSED POLITICS HEATEDLY WITH FRIENDS																
Yes	55	55	30	60	13	59	13	15	14	21	9	22	12	19	7	21
No	45	45	20	40	9	41	72	85	54	79	32	78	52	81	27	79
ATTENDED A UNION OR OTHER INTEREST GROUP MEETING																
Yes	30	30	9	18	9	41	35	41	34	50	3	7	11	17	4	12
No	70	70	41	82	13	59	50	59	34	50	38	93	53	83	30	88
ATTENDED A PARTY MEETING																
Yes	6	6	9	18	1	5	7	8	8	12	5	12	14	22	6	18
No	94	94	41	82	21	95	78	92	60	88	36	88	50	78	28	82
WORKED ACTIVELY IN POLITICS																
Yes	7	7	5	10	-	-	2	2	6	9						
No	93	93	45	90	22	100	83	98	62	91						
WORKED ACTIVELY FOR A PARTY																
Yes											6	15	10	16	4	12
No											35	85	54	84	30	88
WORKED ACTIVELY FOR A CANDIDATE																
Yes											6	15	11	17	4	12
No											35	85	53	83	30	88

TABLE BR-XXVII

POLITICAL ACTIVITIES IN LAST SIX MONTHS

ACCORDING TO SOCIAL MOBILITY (CONT.)

MOBILITY:	MANAGERS						SKILLED WORKERS				FAVELADOS					
	UP		STABLE		DOWN		UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE		DOWN	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
PARTICIPATED IN STREET RALLY OR DEMONSTRATION																
Yes	14	14	8	16	4	18	13	15	12	18	7	17	17	27	7	21
No	86	86	42	84	18	82	72	85	56	82	34	83	47	73	27	79
NUMBER OF CASES	100		50		22		85		68		41		64		34	

TABLE BR-XXVIII

POLITICAL ACTIVITIES IN LAST SIX MONTHS ACCORDING TO NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION

National Identification:	MANAGERS						SKILLED WORKERS						FAVELADOS					
	HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW		HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW		HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
DISCUSSED POLITICS HEATEDLY WITH ACQUAINTANCES																		
Yes	30	60	31	42	22	47	7	22	10	16	8	14	4	17	15	24	10	19
No	21	40	43	58	25	53	24	78	53	84	51	86	19	83	48	76	43	81
DISCUSSED POLITICS HEATEDLY WITH FRIENDS																		
Yes	36	70	37	50	25	53	6	19	11	17	10	17	6	26	12	19	10	19
No	15	30	37	50	22	47	25	81	52	83	49	83	17	74	51	81	43	81
ATTENDED A UNION OR OTHER INTEREST GROUP MEETING																		
Yes	23	45	10	14	15	32	14	45	31	49	24	41	3	13	10	16	5	9
No	28	55	64	86	32	68	17	55	32	51	35	59	20	87	53	84	48	91
ATTENDED A PARTY MEETING																		
Yes	7	14	7	9	2	4	6	19	4	6	5	8	3	13	16	25	6	11
No	44	86	67	91	45	96	25	81	59	94	54	92	20	87	47	75	47	89
WORKED ACTIVELY IN POLITICS																		
Yes	44	8	4	5	11	23	1	3	3	5	4	7						
No	47	92	70	95	36	77	30	97	60	95	55	93						
WORKED ACTIVELY FOR A PARTY																		
Yes													5	22	8	13	7	13
No													18	78	55	87	46	87
WORKED ACTIVELY FOR A CANDIDATE																		
Yes													4	17	10	16	7	13
No													19	83	53	84	46	87

TABLE BR-XXVIII

POLITICAL ACTIVITIES IN LAST SIX MONTHS ACCORDING

TO NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION (CONT.)

National Identification:	MANAGERS						SKILLED WORKERS						FAVELADOS					
	HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW		HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW		HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
PARTICIPATED IN STREET RALLY OR DEMONSTRATION																		
Yes	9	18	11	15	6	13	3	10	13	21	9	15	4	17	14	22	13	24
No	42	82	63	85	41	87	28	90	50	79	50	85	19	83	49	78	40	76
NUMBER OF CASES	51		74		47		31		63		59		23		63		53	

TABLE CH-1

BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLES

	PRIMARY		SECONDARY		CATHOLIC UNIV.		UNIV. OF CHILE	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
AGE								
Median	36		36		37		40	
Range	14-70		24-68		21-65		24-65	
SEX								
Men	29	15	85	42	70	93	54	71
Women	164	85	116	58	5	7	22	29
MARITAL STATUS								
Single	56	29	59	29	26	35	20	26
Married	115	60	129	64	47	63	52	69
Divorced	16	8	9	5	-	-	4	5
Widowed	6	3	4	2	2	2	-	-
NUMBER OF CHILDREN								
None	71	37	77	38	32	43	26	34
One	21	11	32	16	4	5	12	16
Two	40	21	41	20	10	14	13	17
Three	27	14	34	17	7	9	15	20
Four	18	9	10	5	12	16	4	5
Five	8	4	5	3	6	8	3	4
Six or more	8	4	2	1	4	5	3	4
NUMBER OF CASES	193		201		75		76	

TABLE CH-1 (Cont.)

BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLES

	PRIMARY		SECONDARY		CATHOLIC UNIV.		UNIV. OF CHILE	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
PERSONAL INCOME								
Less than 65 E°	4	2	10	5	4	5	-	-
65 - 95	33	17	10	5	3	4	3	4
95 - 120	65	34	11	6	-	-	3	4
121 - 150	64	33	37	18	6	8	1	1
151 - 200	18	9	52	26	6	8	6	8
201 - 300	8	4	60	30	8	11	16	21
301 - 400	1	1	12	6	6	8	14	18
401 - 500	-	-	7	3	17	23	11	15
501 - 750	-	-	2	1	13	17	11	15
751 - 1000	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1001 or more	-	-	-	-	6	8	9	12
Not ascertained	-	-	-	-	6	8	2	2
INCOME OF SOURCES								
Teaching only	153	79	154	77	22	29	24	31
Teaching and income from property or investment	27	14	14	7	6	8	9	12
Teaching and other employment	6	3	22	11	24	32	28	37
Teaching, other employment and income from property or investment	5	3	9	4	11	14	10	13
All others	1	1	2	1	13	17	5	7
NUMBER OF CASES	193		201		75		76	

TABLE CH-II

SUBJECTIVE VIEWS OF CLASS

	PRIMARY		SECONDARY		CATHOLIC UNIV.		UNIV. OF CHILE	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
CLASS IDENTIFICATIONS								
Rich	31	16	64	32	43	58	39	51
Modest	139	72	114	57	25	33	21	28
Poor	3	2	-	-	-	-	-	-
None	20	10	23	11	7	9	16	21
Professional	157	81	184	92	68	91	67	88
White Collar	34	18	15	7	5	7	8	11
Worker	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
None	2	1	2	1	2	2	1	1
Upper class	3	1	4	2	17	23	3	4
Middle class	176	91	190	94	52	69	68	89
Lower class	9	5	-	-	-	-	2	3
None	5	3	7	4	6	8	3	4
Aristocracy	3	2	3	2	9	12	2	3
Bourgeoisie	99	51	131	65	47	63	50	66
Proletariat	63	33	20	10	3	4	7	9
None	28	14	47	23	16	21	17	22
NUMBER OF CASES	193		201		75		76	

TABLE CH-III

BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLES

ACCORDING TO SOCIAL MOBILITY

MOBILITY:	PRIMARY				SECONDARY				CATHOLIC UNIV.				UNIV. OF CHILE			
	STABLE		DOWN		STABLE		DOWN		UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
AGE																
Median	35		37		36		38		38		36		39		43	
Range	14-70		22-65		24-68		24-68		21-58		23-65		24-54		25-65	
SEX																
Men	25	18	2	5	47	40	31	41	20	100	49	91	27	66	26	76
Women	112	82	41	95	69	60	45	59	-	-	5	9	14	34	8	24
MARITAL STATUS																
Single	38	28	13	30	38	33	20	26	10	50	15	28	11	27	9	26
Married	84	60	24	56	72	62	49	65	10	50	37	68	27	66	24	71
Divorced	13	10	3	7	5	4	4	5	-	-	-	-	3	7	1	3
Widowed	2	2	3	7	1	1	3	4	-	-	2	4	-	-	-	-
NUMBER OF CHILDREN																
None	49	36	17	40	48	41	27	36	12	60	20	37	16	39	10	29
One	15	11	6	14	21	18	9	12	1	5	2	4	6	15	6	18
Two	29	21	7	16	20	17	18	24	2	10	8	15	6	15	6	18
Three	17	13	8	19	19	16	13	17	1	5	6	11	9	22	6	18
Four	15	11	3	7	4	4	6	8	4	20	8	15	2	5	2	6
Five	6	4	1	2	3	3	2	2	-	-	6	11	1	2	2	6
Six or more	6	4	1	2	1	1	1	1	-	-	4	7	1	2	2	5
NUMBER OF CASES	137		43		116		76		20		54		41		34	

TABLE CH-III

BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLES
ACCORDING TO SOCIAL MOBILITY (CONT.)

MOBILITY:	PRIMARY				SECONDARY				CATHOLIC UNIV.				UNIV. OF CHILE			
	STABLE		DOWN		STABLE		DOWN		UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
PERSONAL INCOME																
Less than 65 E°	1	1	3	7	6	5	4	5	2	10	2	4	-	-	-	-
65 - 95	29	21	3	7	4	4	4	5	-	-	2	4	1	3	2	6
95 - 120	42	31	16	37	6	5	5	7	-	-	-	-	3	7	-	-
121 - 150	47	34	13	30	25	22	11	15	2	10	4	8	1	3	-	-
151 - 200	12	9	5	12	33	28	16	21	3	15	3	6	5	12	1	3
201 - 300	5	3	3	7	34	29	24	32	4	20	5	9	12	29	4	12
301 - 400	1	1	-	-	5	4	7	9	2	10	4	7	3	7	11	32
401 - 500	-	-	-	-	2	2	5	6	5	25	12	22	6	15	4	12
501 - 750	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	12	22	7	17	4	12
751 - 1000	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1001 or more	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	5	5	9	3	7	6	17
Not ascertained	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	5	5	9	-	-	2	6
SOURCES OF INCOME																
Teaching only	112	82	31	72	95	82	52	69	8	40	14	26	17	42	7	20
Teaching and income from property or investment	16	11	10	23	7	6	7	9	1	5	5	9	5	12	4	12
Teaching and other employment	5	4	-	-	11	9	10	13	8	40	16	30	15	37	13	38
Teaching, other employment and income from property or investment	3	2	2	5	2	2	6	8	1	5	9	17	1	2	8	24
All others	1	1	-	-	1	1	1	1	2	10	10	18	3	7	2	6
NUMBER OF CASES	137		43		116		76		20		54		41		34	

TABLE CH-IV

SUBJECTIVE VIEWS OF CLASS

ACCORDING TO SOCIAL MOBILITY

MOBILITY:	PRIMARY				SECONDARY				CATHOLIC UNIV.				UNIV. OF CHILE			
	STABLE		DOWN		STABLE		DOWN		UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
CLASS IDENTIFICATIONS																
Rich	20	14	11	26	33	28	30	40	9	45	33	61	19	46	20	59
Modest	97	71	31	72	69	60	39	51	9	45	15	28	15	37	5	15
Poor	2	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
None	18	13	1	2	14	12	7	9	2	10	6	11	7	17	9	26
Professional or proprietor	114	83	34	79	104	90	73	96	17	85	50	93	34	83	32	94
White collar	21	15	9	21	10	9	3	4	2	10	3	6	6	15	2	6
Worker	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
None	2	2	-	-	2	1	-	-	1	5	1	1	1	2	-	-
Upper class	2	1	1	2	-	-	4	5	2	10	15	28	1	2	2	6
Middle class	124	91	42	98	111	96	70	92	17	85	34	64	37	91	30	88
Lower class	7	5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	5	-	-
None	4	3	-	-	5	4	2	3	1	5	4	8	1	2	2	6
Aristocracy	1	1	2	4	2	1	1	1	1	5	8	15	1	2	1	3
Bourgeoisie	69	50	24	56	76	66	51	67	14	70	32	59	26	64	23	68
Proletariat	49	36	8	19	10	9	8	11	2	10	1	2	4	10	3	9
None	18	13	9	21	28	24	16	21	3	15	13	24	10	24	7	20
NUMBER OF CASES	137		43		116		76		20		54		41		34	

TABLE CH-V

THE INDEX OF SOCIAL MOBILITY RELATED TO NON-OCCUPATIONAL ELEMENTS IN SOCIAL MOBILITY

MOBILITY:	PRIMARY				SECONDARY				CATHOLIC UNIV.				UNIV. OF CHILE			
	STABLE		DOWN		STABLE		DOWN		UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
FATHER'S EDUCATION																
No formal education	-	-	1	2	2	2	2	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Primary	29	21	4	10	23	20	9	12	4	20	1	2	9	22	2	6
Secondary	94	69	21	49	67	58	37	49	14	70	19	35	23	56	12	35
University	10	7	16	37	21	18	27	35	1	5	31	57	8	20	16	47
Not ascertained	4	3	1	2	3	2	1	1	1	5	3	6	1	2	4	12
FATHER'S BIRTHPLACE																
Chile	126	92	35	82	95	81	60	79	10	50	42	77	28	68	28	82
Italy	3	2	-	-	1	1	3	4	3	15	2	4	1	2	-	-
Spain	5	4	4	9	3	3	5	7	1	5	2	4	4	10	3	9
Poland	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	1	2	-	-	-	-
Russia	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	5	-	-
Germany	-	-	-	-	2	2	2	3	2	10	1	2	-	-	-	-
Other European	1	1	3	7	5	4	4	5	2	10	5	9	2	5	2	6
Other Latin American	2	1	1	2	2	2	-	-	1	5	1	2	2	5	-	-
Arab countries	-	-	-	-	7	6	1	1	1	5	-	-	2	5	1	3
RURAL OR SMALL TOWN RESIDENCE																
Never	93	68	21	49	89	76	51	67	15	75	42	76	34	83	30	88
Less than 5 years	12	9	9	21	10	9	7	9	1	5	4	8	4	10	-	-
5 to 10 years	13	9	2	5	9	8	7	9	1	5	4	8	2	5	1	3
11 to 15 years	9	7	1	2	5	4	6	8	3	15	1	2	1	2	1	3
More than 15 years	10	7	10	23	3	3	5	7	-	-	3	6	-	-	2	6
NUMBER OF CASES	137		43		116		76		20		54		41		34	

TABLE CH-VI

THE INDEX OF NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION BY SOCIAL MOBILITY*

NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION		MOBILITY STABLE	MOBILITY DOWN		MOBILITY STABLE	MOBILITY DOWN		MOBILITY UP	MOBILITY STABLE		MOBILITY UP	MOBILITY STABLE	
	High	88	22	110	62	44	106	5	6	11	25	17	42
	Medium	40	20	60	37	27	64	8	16	24	11	10	21
	Low	9	1	10	17	5	22	7	32	39	5	7	12
		137	43	180	116	76	192	20	54	74	41	34	75
		PRIMARY			SECONDARY			CATHOLIC UNIV.			UNIV. OF CHILE		
		$\chi^2=2.05$			$\chi^2=3.23$			$\chi^2=3.93$			$\chi^2=1.95$		
		$20>P<.10$			$.20>P<.10$			$.20>P<.10$			$.50>P<.30$		

* These 15 cases for which it was not possible to determine mobility and another ten cases of upward mobility in the primary school sample were dropped from the analyses.

TABLE CH-VII

THE SAMPLES COMPARED ON SOCIAL MOBILITY AND THE

INDEX OF NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION

SOCIAL MOBILITY	A PRIMARY	B SECONDARY	C CATHOLIC UNIV.	D UNIV. OF CHILE	NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION SCORES	E PRIMARY	F SECONDARY	G CATHOLIC UNIV.	H UNIV. OF CHILE
Up	-	-	20	41	High	116	113	12	42
Stable	137	116	54	34	Medium	66	66	24	22
Down	43	76	-	-	Low	11	22	40	12
* undetermined	3	9	2	1					
NUMBER OF CASES	190	192	74	75		193	201	76	76

$^2_{AB}=12.66$ $P < .001$

$^2_{CD}=11.10$ $P < .001$

$^2_{EF}= 3.34$ $.20 > P > .10$

$^2_{EG}= 88.87$ $P < .001$

$^2_{GH}=5.76$ $.10 > P > .05$

$^2_{FG}= 56.20$ $P < .001$

$^2_{FH}= 1.10$ $.70 > P > .50$

$^2_{GH}- 31.83$ $P < .001$

* These 15 cases for which it was not possible to determine mobility and another ten cases of upward mobility in the primary school sample were dropped from the analyses.

TABLE CH-VIII

ATTITUDES TOWARD EDUCATION

	PRIMARY		SECONDARY		CATHOLIC UNIV.		UNIVERSITY OF CHILE	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
RANKING OF CITIZEN RIGHTS								
Free education	2		2		2		2	
Equality before the law	1		1		1		1	
Access to state social services	3		4		4		4	
Minimum wage	4		3		4		4	
Effective political voice	4		4		3		4	
FUNCTIONS OF THE SCHOOL								
Transmit national spirit to young people	15	8	5	2	2	3	3	4
Prepare good citizens	62	34	81	40	22	29	16	21
Give technical and professional training	82	42	56	28	21	28	31	40
Form men of culture	9	4	26	13	19	25	16	21
Other answers	11	6	11	6	11	15	8	11
No opinion	11	6	22	11	-	-	2	3
NUMBER OF CASES	193		201		75		76	

TABLE CH-VIII

ATTITUDES TOWARD EDUCATION (CONT.)

	PRIMARY		SECONDARY		CATHOLIC UNIV.		UNIV. OF CHILE	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
UNIVERSITY EDUCATION FOR ALL								
Yes	190	98	194	96	72	96	76	100
No	1	1	5	2	3	4	-	-
Don't know	2	1	2	1	-	-	-	-
REASONS FOR "YES" ANSWERS								
Education is a function of government	47	24	80	40	20	27	32	42
The individual is entitled to education as a right	67	35	55	27	22	29	29	38
Indirect social benefits from education	64	33	59	30	28	38	24	32
Unexplained positive responses	12	6	-	-	2	3	-	-
NUMBER OF CASES	193		201		75		76*	

* Some of the respondents in this sample gave more than one reason.

TABLE CH-IX

ATTITUDES TOWARD EDUCATION

ACCORDING TO SOCIAL MOBILITY

MOBILITY:	PRIMARY				SECONDARY				CATHOLIC UNIV.				UNIV. OF CHILE			
	STABLE		DOWN		STABLE		DOWN		UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
EDUCATION AS RIGHT																
High 1	90	66	34	79	91	78	58	76	14	70	40	74	26	63	28	82
Low	47	34	9	21	25	22	18	24	6	30	14	26	15	37	6	18
FUNCTIONS OF THE SCHOOL																
Prepare for occupation or citizenship	104	76	32	74	80	69	52	68	12	60	31	57	29	71	18	53
All others	33	24	11	26	36	31	24	32	8	40	23	43	12	29	16	47
UNIVERSITY EDUCATION FOR ALL																
Yes	136	99	41	95	110	95	75	99	20	100	51	94	41	100	34	100
No	1	1	2	5	6	5	1	1	-	-	3	6	-	-	-	-
NUMBER OF CASES	137		43		116		76		20		54		41		34	

1. Respondents who ranked education as first or second among citizen rights are in the "high" category; the remainder are in the "low" category.

TABLE CH-X

ATTITUDES TOWARD EDUCATION ACCORDING TO NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION

National Identification:	PRIMARY						SECONDARY						CATHOLIC UNIV.						UNIV. OF CHILE					
	HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW		HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW		HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW		HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
EDUCATION AS RIGHT																								
High 1	86	78	47	78	8	89	84	79	49	76	16	73	9	81	16	67	29	74	29	69	16	76	9	75
Low	24	22	13	22	1	11	22	21	15	24	6	27	2	19	8	33	10	26	13	31	5	24	3	25
FUNCTIONS OF THE SCHOOL																								
Prepare for occupation or citizenship	83	75	46	77	7	78	75	71	44	69	13	59	8	73	14	58	21	54	23	55	17	81	7	58
All others	27	25	14	23	2	22	31	29	20	31	9	41	3	27	10	42	18	46	19	45	4	19	5	42
UNIVERSITY EDUCATION FOR ALL																								
Yes	108	98	60	100	9	100	106	100	58	91	21	95	11	100	23	96	37	95	42	100	21	100	12	100
No	2	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	6	9	1	5	-	-	1	4	2	5	-	-	-	-	-	-
NUMBER OF CASES	110		60		9		106		64		22		11		24		39		42		21		12	

1. Respondents who ranked education as first or second among citizen rights are in the "high" category; the remainder are in the "low" category.

TABLE CH-XI

PROBLEMS OF THE TEACHING PROFESSION*

	PRIMARY		SECONDARY		CATHOLIC UNIV.		UNIV. OF CHILE	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
CONDITIONS OF WORK								
Lack of material resources								
Very important	150	77	167	83	44	59	41	54
Fairly important	37	19	32	16	24	32	29	38
Of little importance	3	2	2	1	5	7	4	5
Of no importance	3	2	-	-	2	2	2	3
Low scales of pay								
Very important	140	72	164	82	42	55	49	64
Fairly important	42	22	32	16	25	33	19	25
Of little importance	7	4	5	2	4	6	5	7
Of no importance	4	2	-	-	4	6	3	4
Few opportunities for promotion								
Very important	96	50	98	49	14	19	19	25
Fairly important	43	22	54	27	21	28	25	33
Of little importance	39	20	32	16	24	32	14	18
Of no importance	15	8	17	8	16	21	18	24
The incapacity of administrators								
Very important	67	35	57	28	15	20	17	22
Fairly important	44	23	66	33	22	29	17	22
Of little importance	55	28	52	26	26	34	26	35
Of no importance	27	14	26	13	12	17	16	21
NUMBER OF CASES	193		201		75		76	

* "The teaching profession in Chile as in other countries is made difficult by certain factors. Would you tell me which among the following is very important, fairly important, of little importance, or of no importance for teaching at your level in Chile?"

TABLE CH-XI

PROBLEMS OF THE TEACHING PROFESSION (CONT.)

	PRIMARY		SECONDARY		CATHOLIC UNIV.		UNIV. OF CHILE	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
CONDITIONS OF WORK (CONT.)								
The intrusion of party politics into education								
Very important	75	39	97	48	42	55	28	37
Fairly important	50	26	57	29	17	23	16	21
Of little importance	36	18	31	15	8	11	14	18
Of no importance	32	17	16	8	8	11	18	24
Lack of co-operation from parents								
Very important	105	54	92	46	15	20	16	21
Fairly important	47	25	70	35	29	39	23	30
Of little importance	27	14	32	16	17	23	19	25
Of no importance	14	7	7	3	14	18	18	24
Pressures from students								
Very important					4	5	3	4
Fairly important					16	21	19	25
Of little importance					38	51	22	29
Of no importance					17	23	32	42
PROFESSIONAL RESPONSIBILITY AND MORALE								
Lack of vocation for teaching								
Very important	116	60	111	55	42	56	35	46
Fairly important	38	20	66	33	17	23	23	30
Of little importance	28	14	16	8	9	12	13	17
Of no importance	11	6	8	4	7	9	5	7
NUMBER OF CASES	193		201		75		76	

TABLE CH-XI

PROBLEMS OF THE TEACHING PROFESSION (CONT.)

	PRIMARY		SECONDARY		CATHOLIC UNIV.		UNIV. OF CHILE	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
PROFESSIONAL RESPONSIBILITY AND MORALE (CONT.)								
Failure to keep up-to-date in subject matter								
Very important	108	56	108	54	46	61	40	53
Fairly important	46	24	59	29	22	29	22	29
Of little importance	18	9	21	10	4	6	7	9
Of no importance	21	11	13	7	3	4	7	9
Lack of direct contact with students								
Very important	65	34	66	32	27	36	23	30
Fairly important	42	22	81	40	31	41	31	41
Of little importance	37	19	35	18	12	16	10	13
Of no importance	49	25	19	10	5	7	12	16
Lack of unity within the profession								
Very important	65	34	62	31	9	12	15	20
Fairly important	44	23	62	31	11	15	20	26
Of little importance	35	18	44	22	36	47	20	26
Of no importance	49	25	33	16	19	26	21	28
Lack of interest in research								
Very important					51	68	39	52
Fairly important					18	24	20	26
Of little importance					4	5	10	13
Of no importance					2	3	7	9
NUMBER OF CASES	193		201		75		76	

TABLE CH-XII

WORK-RELATED DEVELOPMENT VALUES*

	PRIMARY		SECONDARY		CATHOLIC UNIV.		UNIV. OF CHILE	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
MORE SPECIALIZATION								
Positive	169	88	152	76	57	74	61	78
Negative	24	12	49	24	18	26	15	22
MORE TEAM WORK								
Positive	159	82	187	93	70	91	73	94
Negative	34	18	14	7	5	9	3	6
STABLE PROGRAMS OF SOCIAL SECURITY								
Positive	147	76	163	81	67	87	60	77
Negative	46	24	38	19	8	13	16	23
MORE GOVERNMENTAL CONTROL OF PROFESSIONAL NORMS								
Positive	122	63	125	62	10	13	32	44
Negative	71	37	76	38	65	87	44	56
BROADER ACCESS TO THE PROFESSION								
Positive	118	61	159	79	70	91	68	87
Negative	75	39	42	21	5	9	8	13
MORE YEARS OF STUDY FOR PROFESSION								
Positive	83	43	73	36	34	44	26	33
Negative	110	57	128	64	41	56	50	67
NUMBER OF CASES	193		201		75		76	

* Respondents were asked to rate as positive or negative a number of "recent tendencies in the teaching profession throughout the world."

TABLE CH-XIII

WORK-RELATED DEVELOPMENT VALUES ACCORDING TO SOCIAL MOBILITY

MOBILITY:	PRIMARY				SECONDARY				CATHOLIC UNIV.				UNIV. OF CHILE			
	STABLE		DOWN		STABLE		DOWN		UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
MORE SPECIALIZATION																
Positive	123	90	36	86	90	78	57	75	15	75	40	74	34	83	26	76
Negative	14	10	6	14	26	22	19	25	5	25	14	26	7	17	8	24
MORE TEAM WORK																
Positive	114	83	37	88	109	94	70	92	19	95	50	93	40	98	32	94
Negative	23	17	5	12	7	6	6	8	1	5	4	7	1	2	2	6
STABLE PROGRAM OF SOCIAL SECURITY																
Positive	104	76	31	74	93	80	62	82	19	95	46	85	34	83	25	74
Negative	33	24	11	26	23	20	14	18	1	5	8	15	7	17	9	26
MORE GOVERNMENTAL CONTROL OF PROFESSIONAL NORMS																
Positive	89	65	26	62	70	60	47	62	3	15	7	13	19	46	12	35
Negative	47	35	16	38	46	40	29	38	17	85	47	87	22	54	22	65
BROADER ACCESS TO THE PROFESSION																
Positive	87	64	24	57	86	74	66	87	20	100	49	91	35	85	33	97
Negative	50	36	18	43	30	26	10	13	-	-	5	9	6	15	1	3
MORE YEARS OF STUDY FOR PROFESSION																
Positive	66	48	12	28	39	34	31	41	9	45	26	48	20	49	6	18
Negative	71	52	30	72	77	66	45	59	11	55	28	52	21	51	28	82
NUMBER OF CASES	137		42		116		76		20		54		41		34	

TABLE CH-XIV

WORK-RELATED DEVELOPMENT VALUES ACCORDING TO NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION*

National Identification	PRIMARY						SECONDARY						CATHOLIC UNIV.						UNIV. OF CHILE					
	HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW		HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW		HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW		HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
MORE SPECIALIZATION																								
Positive	104	94	51	85	8	89	84	79	45	70	18	82	10	91	15	62	30	77	35	83	17	81	8	67
Negative	6	6	9	15	1	11	22	21	19	30	4	18	1	9	9	38	9	23	7	17	4	19	4	33
MORE TEAM WORK																								
Positive	97	88	50	83	8	89	104	98	57	89	18	82	10	91	23	96	36	92	39	93	21	100	12	100
Negative	13	12	10	17	1	11	2	2	7	11	4	18	1	9	1	4	3	8	3	7	-	-	-	-
MORE YEARS OF STUDY FOR PROFESSION																								
Positive	53	48	26	43	2	22	40	38	23	36	7	32	5	45	13	54	17	44	14	33	9	43	3	25
Negative	57	52	34	57	7	78	66	62	41	64	15	68	6	55	11	46	22	56	28	67	12	57	9	75
NUMBER OF CASES	110		60		9		106		64		22		11		24		39		42		21		12	

* The cross tabulations by national identification for all the items shown on Table CH-XII were not available for this analysis.

TABLE CH-XV

PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT VALUES

	PRIMARY		SECONDARY		CATHOLIC UNIV.		UNIV. OF CHILE	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
COMPETITION								
Enjoy and seek competition	40	21	40	20	19	20	16	21
Like competition somewhat	42	22	56	28	27	35	27	36
Indifferent to competition	83	43	62	31	23	30	24	32
Dislike competition somewhat	10	5	13	6	5	7	3	4
Dislike competition strongly	18	9	30	15	1	2	6	7
CONSIDERED SERIOUSLY OTHER OCCUPATION								
(1) Yes	81	42	100	50	56	75	54	71
(2) No	104	54	90	45	17	23	20	26
(3) Not ascertained	8	4	11	5	2	2	2	3
OCCUPATIONS CONSIDERED								
Primary or secondary professor	17	9	2	1	1	1	2	3
University professor or researcher	3	2	2	1	-	-	1	1
Engineer	3	2	7	3	3	4	2	3
Architect	2	1	12	6	3	4	3	4
Lawyer	8	4	15	7	2	3	1	1
Businessman	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Military	2	1	3	2	-	-	1	1
Other professions	46	24	59	30	47	63	44	58
Not applicable	112	57	101	50	19	25	22	29
NUMBER OF CASES	193		201		75		76	

TABLE CH-XVI

PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT VALUES ACCORDING TO SOCIAL MOBILITY

MOBILITY:	PRIMARY				SECONDARY				CATHOLIC UNIV.				UNIV. OF CHILE			
	STABLE		DOWN		STABLE		DOWN		UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
COMPETITION																
Like competion	60	44	17	40	60	52	32	42	9	45	36	66	20	49	21	62
Indifferent to competition	58	42	18	42	32	27	26	34	10	50	13	24	14	34	11	32
Dislike competition	19	14	8	18	24	21	18	24	1	5	5	10	7	17	2	6
CONSIDERED SERIOUSLY OTHER OCCUPATION																
Yes	56	41	23	53	61	52	36	47	13	65	43	80	30	73	24	71
No	78	57	18	42	52	45	37	49	7	35	10	18	11	27	9	26
Not ascertained	3	2	2	5	3	3	3	4	-	-	1	2	-	-	1	3
OCCUPATIONS CONSIDERED																
Primary or secondary professor	10	8	7	17	2	2	-	-	-	-	1	2	1	2	1	3
University professor or researcher	2	1	-	-	-	-	2	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	3
Engineer	2	1	1	2	3	2	4	5	-	-	3	6	2	5	-	-
Architect	1	1	1	2	9	8	3	4	1	5	2	4	2	5	1	3
Lawyer	8	6	-	-	10	9	5	7	-	-	2	4	-	-	1	3
Businessman	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Military	2	1	-	-	3	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	2	-	-
Other professions	31	23	14	33	34	30	22	29	12	60	35	64	24	59	20	59
Not applicable	81	59	20	46	55	47	40	53	7	35	11	20	11	27	10	29
NUMBER OF CASES	137		43		116		76		20		54		41		34	

TABLE CH-XVII

PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT VALUES ACCORDING TO NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION

NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION:	PRIMARY						SECONDARY						CATHOLIC UNIV.						UNIV. OF CHILE					
	HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW		HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW		HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW		HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
COMPETITION																								
Like competition	54	50	21	35	2	22	47	44	35	55	10	45	5	45	16	66	24	62	25	59	10	48	6	50
Indifferent to competition	44	40	27	45	5	56	36	34	17	26	5	23	6	55	6	25	11	28	13	31	8	38	4	33
Dislike competition	12	10	12	20	2	22	23	22	12	19	7	32	-	-	2	9	4	10	4	10	3	14	2	17
CONSIDERED SERIOUSLY OTHER OCCUPATION																								
Yes	49	44	29	48	1	11	54	51	32	50	11	50	6	54	19	79	31	79	29	69	16	76	9	75
No	58	53	30	50	8	89	49	46	30	47	10	45	5	46	5	21	7	18	12	29	5	24	3	25
Not ascertained	3	3	1	2	-	-	3	3	2	3	1	5	-	-	-	-	1	3	1	2	-	-	-	-
OCCUPATION CONSIDERED																								
Primary or secondary professor	12	11	4	7	1	11	1	1	1	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	3	1	2	1	5	-	-
University professor or researcher	-	-	2	3	-	-	2	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	5	-	-
Engineer	1	1	2	3	-	-	4	4	3	4	-	-	-	-	3	12	-	-	2	5	-	-	-	-
Architect	1	1	1	2	-	-	8	8	1	2	3	14	-	-	1	4	2	5	3	7	-	-	-	-
Lawyer	5	4	3	5	-	-	6	6	9	14	-	-	-	-	1	4	1	3	1	2	-	-	-	-
Businessman	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Military	2	2	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	2	9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	8
Other professors	28	25	17	28	-	-	32	29	18	28	6	27	6	54	14	59	27	69	22	53	14	66	8	67
Not applicable	61	56	31	52	8	89	52	49	32	50	11	50	5	46	5	21	8	20	13	31	5	24	3	25
NUMBER OF CASES	110		60		9		106		64		22		11		24		39		42		21		12	

TABLE CH-XVIII

MISCELLANEOUS DEVELOPMENT PROBLEMS

	PRIMARY		SECONDARY		CATHOLIC UNIV.		UNIV. OF CHILE	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
IMMIGRATION								
Chile should welcome all	26	13	22	11	16	21	20	25
Chile should welcome only those useful to the economy	158	82	162	81	44	59	54	71
Chile should welcome only those whose religion is not in conflict with that of most Chileans	1	1	2	1	6	8	1	2
Chile should welcome only those whose political ideology is not in conflict with that of most Chileans	8	4	15	7	9	12	1	2
MAIN GOALS OF EDUCATION								
Meet national economic development needs	21	11	28	14	10	13	22	29
Fully develop the individual	131	68	142	71	56	75	45	59
Protect the individual from bad side effects of economic development	34	17	23	11	4	5	7	9
Not ascertained	7	4	8	4	5	7	2	3
NUMBER OF CASES	193		201		75		76	

TABLE CH-XIX

MISCELLANEOUS DEVELOPMENT PROBLEMS

ACCORDING TO SOCIAL MOBILITY

MOBILITY:	PRIMARY				SECONDARY				CATHOLIC UNIV.				UNIV.OF CHILE			
	STABLE		- DOWN		STABLE		DOWN		UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
IMMIGRATION																
Chile should welcome only those useful to the economy	40	30	37	88	96	83	57	75	15	75	30	56	30	73	24	71
Other answers	97	70	5	12	20	17	19	25	5	25	24	44	11	27	10	29
MAIN GOALS OF EDUCATION																
Meet national economic development needs	17	12	3	7	16	14	10	13	4	20	6	11	10	24	12	35
Other answers	120	88	39	93	100	86	66	87	16	80	48	89	31	76	22	65
NUMBER OF CASES	137		42		116		76		20		54		41		34	

TABLE CH-XX

MISCELLANEOUS DEVELOPMENT PROBLEMS

ACCORDING TO NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION

National Identification:	PRIMARY						SECONDARY						CATHOLIC UNIV.						UNIV. OF CHILE					
	HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW		HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW		HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW		HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
IMMIGRATION																								
Chile should welcome only those useful to the economy	21	19	51	85	5	56	87	82	50	78	16	73	6	55	19	80	20	51	31	74	16	76	7	58
Other answers	89	81	9	15	4	44	19	18	14	22	6	27	5	45	5	20	19	49	11	26	5	24	5	42
MAIN GOAL OF EDUCATION																								
Meet national economic development needs	18	16	2	3	-	-	21	20	4	6	1	6	4	36	2	8	4	10	14	33	4	19	4	33
Other answers	92	84	58	97	9	100	85	80	60	94	21	94	7	64	22	92	35	90	28	67	17	81	8	67
NUMBER OF CASES	110		60		9		106		64		22		11		24		39		42		21		12	

TABLE CH-XXI

RELIGIOSITY AND SECULARISM

	PRIMARY		SECONDARY		CATHOLIC UNIV.		UNIV. OF CHILE	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
PRACTICING FAITH								
Catholic	146	76	120	60	69	92	34	45
Other	16	8	43	21	3	4	14	18
None	31	16	38	19	3	4	28	37
RELIGION AND OCCUPATIONAL ROLES								
Religion helps in performance of occupation	139	72	83	41	64	85	23	30
Religion makes no difference to occupation	18	9	99	49	11	15	43	57
Religion hinders performance of occupation	32	17	19	10	-	-	9	12
No opinion	4	2	-	-	-	-	1	1
NUMBER OF CASES	193		201		75		76	

TABLE CH-XXII

RELIGIOSITY AND SECULARISM ACCORDING TO SOCIAL MOBILITY

MOBILITY:	PRIMARY				SECONDARY				CATHOLIC UNIV.				UNIV. OF CHILE			
	STABLE		DOWN		STABLE		DOWN		UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
PRACTICING FAITH																
Catholic	99	72	35	83	65	56	52	68	18	90	50	92	17	41	16	47
Other	14	10	2	5	25	22	15	20	-	-	2	4	7	18	7	21
None	24	18	5	12	26	22	9	12	2	10	2	4	17	41	11	32
RELIGION AND OCCUPATIONAL ROLES																
Religion helps in performance of occupation	47	34	20	48	52	45	29	38	15	75	49	91	9	22	13	38
Other answers	90	66	22	52	64	55	47	62	5	25	5	8	32	78	21	62
NUMBER OF CASES	137		42		116		76		20		54		41		34	

TABLE CH-XXIII

RELIGIOSITY AND SECULARISM ACCORDING TO

NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION

National Identification:	PRIMARY						SECONDARY						CATHOLIC UNIV.						UNIV. OF CHILE					
	HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW		HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW		HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW		HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
PRACTICING FAITH																								
Catholic	78	71	49	82	7	78	50	47	50	78	17	77	8	73	23	96	37	94	11	26	11	52	11	92
Other	9	8	7	11	-	-	30	28	7	11	3	14	1	9	-	-	1	3	9	22	4	20	1	8
None	23	21	4	7	2	22	26	25	7	11	2	9	2	18	1	4	1	3	22	52	6	28	-	-
RELIGION AND OCCUPATIONAL ROLES																								
Religion helps in performance of occupation	33	30	28	47	6	67	24	23	39	61	18	82	6	55	22	92	36	92	7	17	9	43	6	50
Other answers	77	70	32	53	3	33	82	77	25	39	4	18	5	45	2	8	3	8	35	83	12	57	6	50
NUMBER OF CASES	110		60		9		106		64		22		11		24		39		42		21		12	

TABLE CH-XXIV

VIEWS OF POLITICAL EFFICACY

	PRIMARY		SECONDARY		CATHOLIC UNIV.		UNIV. OF CHILE	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
POLITICAL EFFICACY								
Personal political activities and views								
Very or fairly important	41	22	48	25	16	23	10	13
Of little or no importance	151	77	150	73	59	77	62	82
No opinion	1	1	3	2	-	-	4	5
Reasons for "Yes" responses								
Individual action inherently important	25	13	21	10	1	2	5	6
Political action of class, profession, is important	12	6	19	10	11	15	4	5
Participates actively in politics	-	-	4	2	3	4	1	2
Other reasons	1	1	3	2	1	2	-	-
Reasons not given	3	2	1	1	-	-	-	-
Reasons for "No" responses								
Not interested, uninformed about politics	101	52	108	53	38	50	49	65
Family or other responsibilities preclude political activity	20	10	11	5	7	9	7	9
Politics is crooked, frustrating or futile	14	7	24	12	4	5	3	4
Other reasons	5	2	7	3	6	8	-	-
Reasons not given	11	6	-	-	4	5	3	4
NUMBER OF CASES	193		201		75		76	

TABLE CH-XXV

VIEWS OF POLITICAL EFFICACY

ACCORDING TO SOCIAL MOBILITY

MOBILITY:	PRIMARY				SECONDARY				CATHOLIC UNIV.				UNIV. OF CHILE			
	STABLE		DOWN		STABLE		DOWN		UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
POLITICAL EFFICACY																
Personal political activities and views are:																
Very or fairly important	36	27	4	9	27	24	17	22	13	15	13	24	5	12	5	15
Of little or no importance	100	72	39	91	86	73	59	78	17	85	41	76	32	78	29	85
No opinion	1	1	-	-	3	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	10	-	-
Reasons for "Yes" Responses																
Individual action inherently important	22	16	2	5	10	9	8	10	1	5	-	-	2	5	3	9
Political action of class, profession, students is important	11	8	1	2	14	12	5	7	1	5	10	18	3	7	1	3
Participates actively in politics	-	-	-	-	1	1	3	4	1	5	2	4	-	-	1	3
Other reasons	1	1	-	-	1	1	1	1	-	-	1	2	-	-	-	-
Reasons not given	2	2	1	2	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Reasons for "No" Responses																
Not interested, uninformed about politics	69	51	26	61	60	51	47	62	14	70	25	46	27	66	21	61
Family or other responsibilities																

TABLE CH-XXV

VIEWS OF POLITICAL EFFICACY

ACCORDING TO SOCIAL MOBILITY
(Cont.)

MOBILITY:	PRIMARY				SECONDARY				CATHOLIC UNIV.				UNIV. OF CHILE			
	STABLE		DOWN		STABLE		DOWN		UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
Politics crooked, frustrating, or futile	7	5	4	9	17	14	6	8	-	-	4	7	-	-	3	9
Other reasons	3	2	2	5	3	3	2	3	-	-	6	11	-	-	-	-
Reasons not given	6	4	4	9	-	-	-	-	1	5	3	6	2	5	1	3
NUMBER OF CASES	137		43		116		76		20		54		41		34	

TABLE CH-XXVI

POLITICAL ACTIVITIES IN LAST SIX MONTHS

	PRIMARY		SECONDARY		CATHOLIC UNIV.		UNIV. OF CHILE	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
Discussed Politics Heatedly With Acquaintances								
Yes	46	24	67	33	38	51	28	37
No	147	76	134	67	37	49	48	63
Discussed Politics Heatedly With Friends								
Yes	60	31	87	43	44	59	33	43
No	133	69	114	57	31	41	43	57
Attended a Union or Other Interest Group Meeting								
Yes	148	77	142	71	34	45	52	68
No	45	23	59	29	41	55	24	32
Attended a Party Meeting								
Yes	25	13	33	16	9	12	11	14
No	168	87	168	84	66	88	65	86
Worked Actively in Politics								
Yes	15	8	24	12	9	12	8	10
No	178	92	177	88	66	88	68	90
Participated in Street Rally or Demonstration								
Yes	84	44	76	38	12	16	17	22
No	109	56	125	62	63	84	59	78
NUMBER OF CASES	193		201		75		76	

TABLE CH-XXVII

POLITICAL ACTIVITIES IN LAST SIX MONTHS

ACCORDING TO SOCIAL MOBILITY

MOBILITY:	PRIMARY				SECONDARY				CATHOLIC UNIV.				UNIV. OF CHILE			
	STABLE		DOWN		STABLE		DOWN		UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
DISCUSSED POLITICS HEATEDLY WITH ACQUAINTANCES																
Yes	36	26	7	16	38	33	25	33	7	35	30	56	13	32	14	41
No	101	74	36	84	78	67	51	67	13	65	24	44	28	68	20	59
DISCUSSED POLITICS HEATEDLY WITH FRIENDS																
Yes	48	35	9	21	50	43	32	42	9	45	34	63	18	44	14	41
No	89	65	34	79	66	57	44	58	11	55	20	37	23	56	20	59
ATTENDED A UNION OR OTHER INTEREST GROUP MEETING																
Yes	109	80	27	63	83	72	52	68	8	40	27	50	26	63	26	76
No	28	20	16	37	33	28	24	32	12	60	27	50	15	37	8	24
ATTENDED A PARTY MEETING																
Yes	22	16	2	5	19	16	12	16	2	10	7	13	4	10	7	21
No	15	84	41	95	97	84	64	84	18	90	47	87	37	90	27	79
WORKED ACTIVELY IN POLITICS																
Yes	12	9	3	7	13	11	11	14	2	10	7	13	3	7	5	15
No	125	91	40	93	103	89	65	86	18	90	47	87	37	93	29	85
PARTICIPATED IN STREET RALLY OR DEMONSTRATION																
Yes	69	50	12	28	42	36	28	37	2	10	10	18	7	17	10	29
No	68	50	31	72	74	64	48	63	18	90	44	82	34	83	24	71
NUMBER OF ACASES	137		43		116		76		20		54		41		34	

TABLE CH-XXVIII

POLITICAL ACTIVITIES IN LAST SIX MONTHS

ACCORDING TO NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION

National Identification:	PRIMARY						SECONDARY						CATHOLIC UNIV.						UNIV. OF CHILE					
	HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW		HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW		HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW		HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
DISCUSSED POLITICS HEATEDLY WITH ACQUAINTANCES																								
Yes	31	28	9	15	3	33	40	38	18	28	5	23	4	36	10	42	23	59	14	33	8	38	5	42
No	79	72	51	85	6	67	66	62	46	72	17	77	7	64	14	58	16	41	28	67	13	62	7	58
DISCUSSED POLITICS HEATEDLY WITH FRIENDS																								
Yes	42	38	12	20	3	33	49	46	26	41	7	32	7	64	13	54	23	59	20	48	8	38	4	33
No	68	62	48	80	6	67	57	54	38	59	15	68	4	36	11	46	16	41	22	52	13	62	8	67
ATTENDED A UNION OR OTHER INTEREST GROUP MEETING																								
Yes	91	83	37	62	7	78	82	77	36	56	17	77	4	36	12	50	19	49	30	71	14	67	8	67
No	19	17	23	38	2	22	24	23	28	44	5	23	7	64	12	50	20	51	12	29	7	33	4	33
ATTENDED A PARTY MEETING																								
Yes	19	17	4	7	1	11	17	16	5	8	9	41	1	9	3	13	5	13	6	14	3	14	2	17
No	91	83	56	93	8	89	89	84	59	92	13	59	10	91	21	87	34	87	36	86	18	86	10	83
WORKED ACTIVELY IN POLITICS																								
Yes	11	10	4	7	-	-	17	16	5	8	6	27	1	9	3	13	5	13	6	14	2	10	-	-
No	99	90	56	93	9	100	89	84	59	92	16	73	10	91	21	87	34	87	36	86	19	90	12	100
PARTICIPATED IN STREET RALLY OR DEMONSTRATION																								
Yes	60	55	18	30	2	22	44	42	19	30	7	32	2	18	3	13	7	18	11	26	5	24	2	17
No	50	45	42	70	7	78	62	58	45	70	15	68	9	82	21	87	32	82	31	74	16	76	10	83
NUMBER OF CASES	110		60		9		106		64		22		11		24		39		42		21		12	

ARGENTINA ECONOMICS

ARGENTINA

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TABLE AE-I

BACKGROUND CHARACTERISITCS OF THE SAMPLES

	FIRST YEAR		GRADUATES	
	#	%	#	%
AGE				
Median	20 years		36 years	
Range	16-63		17-67	
SEX				
Men	116	73	151	87
Women	42	27	23	13
MARITAL STATUS				
Single	149	94	51	29
Married	8	5	120	69
Divorced	-	-	2	1
Widowed	1	1	1	1
NUMBER OF CHILDREN				
None	152	96	77	44
One	1	1	28	16
Two	2	1	42	24
Three or more	1	I	26	15
No answer	2	1	1	1
SOURCE OF INCOME				
Work only	61	39	145	83
Family aid only	26	16	2	1
Work and family aid	64	40	5	3
Work and income from property or investment	-	-	13	7
All others	7	4	9	5
NUMBER OF CASES	158		174	

TABLE AE-II

SUBJECTIVE VIEWS OF CLASS AND POLITICAL EFFICACY

	FIRST YEAR		GRADUATES	
	#	%	#	%
SUBJECTIVE VIEW OF CLASS				
Rich	22	14	37	21
Modest	115	73	118	68
Poor	11	7	5	3
None	10	6	14	8
Professional or proprietor	47	30	156	90
White collar	79	50	16	9
Worker	9	6	1	1
None	23	15	1	1
Upper class	3	2	3	2
Middle class	141	89	166	95
Lower class	8	5	2	1
None	6	4	3	2
Aristocracy	20	13	2	1
Bourgeoisie	63	40	97	56
Proletariat	48	30	17	10
None	27	17	58	33
NUMBER OF CASES	158		174	

TABLE AE-III

BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLES

ACCORDING TO SOCIAL MOBILITY

MOBILITY:	FIRST YEAR				GRADUATES			
	UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
AGE								
Median	20years		20years		36years		37years	
Range	16-63		17-41		21-67		17-60	
SEX								
Men	91	71	25	89	110	84	39	89
Women	37	29	3	11	18	14	5	11
MARITAL STATUS								
Single	123	96	24	86	34	26	16	38
Married	5	4	3	11	92	70	27	60
Divorced or separated	-	-	-	-	1	1	1	2
Widowed	-	-	1	4	1	1	-	-
NUMBER OF CHILDREN								
None	125	98	25	89	54	41	22	51
One	1	1	-	-	22	17	6	13
Two	1	1	1	4	34	26	8	18
Three or more	-	-	1	4	17	12	8	18
No answer	-	-	1	4	1	1	-	-
SOURCE OF INCOME								
Work only	55	43	6	21	109	83	35	80
Family aid only	17	13	8	29	1	1	1	2
Work and family aid	52	41	12	43	4	3	1	2
Work and income from property or investment	-	-	-	-	8	6	4	9
All others	4	3	2	7	6	5	3	7
NUMBER OF CASES	128		28		128		44	

TABLE AE-IV
SUBJECTIVE VIEWS OF CLASS

ACCORDING TO SOCIAL MOBILITY

MOBILITY:	FIRST YEAR				GRADUATES			
	UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE	
CLASS IDENTIFICATIONS	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
Rich	14	11	8	29	16	12	20	45
Modest	99	77	15	54	96	75	21	48
Poor	10	8	-	-	5	5	-	-
None	5	4	5	18	11	9	3	7
Professional or proprietor	33	26	13	46	112	87	43	98
White collar	70	55	9	32	14	11	1	2
Worker	8	6	1	4	1	1	-	-
None	17	13	5	18	1	1	-	-
Upper class	1	1	2	7	-	-	3	7
Middle class	116	91	23	82	126	98	38	87
Lower class	8	6	-	-	2	2	-	-
None	3	2	3	11	-	-	3	7
Aristocracy	3	2	-	-	1	1	1	2
Bourgeoisie	58	45	17	61	67	52	29	66
Proletariat	40	31	3	11	15	12	2	4
None	27	21	8	29	45	35	12	27
NUMBER OF CASES	128		28		128		44	

TABLE AE-V

THE INDEX OF SOCIAL MOBILITY RELATED TO NON-OCCUPATIONAL

ELEMENTS IN SOCIAL MOBILITY

MOBILITY:	FIRST YEAR				GRADUATES			
	UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
FATHER'S EDUCATION								
No formal education	3	2	-	-	4	3	-	-
Primary incomplete	21	16	1	4	22	16	3	7
Primary complete	62	48	6	21	62	47	16	36
Secondary incomplete	26	20	7	25	20	15	5	13
Secondary complete	11	9	-	-	17	13	9	20
University incomplete	-	-	4	14	1	1	1	2
University complete	5	4	10	36	2	2	10	22
Not ascertained	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
FATHER'S BIRTHPLACE								
Argentina	55	43	17	61	35	27	23	53
Italy	13	10	1	4	29	22	6	13
Spain	31	24	4	14	33	25	10	22
Poland	16	12	1	4	6	5	2	4
Russia	2	2	4	14	8	6	1	2
Germany	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
Other European countries	7	5	1	4	6	6	2	4
Other Latin American countries	-	-	-	-	4	3	-	-
Arab countries	2	2	-	-	1	1	-	-
Asiatic other than Arab	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Others	-	-	-	-	4	3	-	-
Not ascertained	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
RURAL OR SMALL TOWN RESIDENCE								
Never	112	87	24	86	103	78	35	80
Less than 5 years	7	5	3	11	9	7	4	9
5 to 10 years	4	3	1	4	8	62	1	2
11 to 15 years	4	3	-	-	5	4	4	9
More than 15 years	1	1	-	-	3	2	-	-
NUMBER OF CASES	128		28		128		44	

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TABLE AE-VI

THE INDEX OF NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION BY SOCIAL MOBILITY

NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION	MOBILITY UP	MOBILITY STABLE		MOBILITY UP	MOBILITY STABLE		MOBILITY UP	MOBILITY STABLE	
High	39	5	44	50	19	69	18	7	25
Medium	44	13	57	41	10	51	46	10	56
Low	45	10	55	46	17	63	64	27	91
	128	28	156	137	46	183	128	44	172

FIRST YEAR	LAST YEAR	GRADUATES
$\chi^2 = 2.466$ df. = 2	$\chi^2 = 1.325$ df. = 2	$\chi^2 = 2.253$ df. = 2
$.20 < p < .30$	$.50 < p < .70$	$.30 < p < .50$

TABLE AE-VII

THE SAMPLES COMPARED ON SOCIAL MOBILITY AND THE

INDEX OF NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION

SOCIAL MOBILITY	A FIRST YEAR	B LAST YEAR	C GRAD-UATES	NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION SCORES	D FIRST YEAR	E LAST YEAR	F GRAD-UATES
UP	128	137	128	HIGH	44	69	25
STABLE	28	46	44	MEDIUM	57	51	56
				LOW	55	63	91
NUMBER OF CASES	156	183	172		156	183	172

$\chi^2_{AB} = 2.406$ df.=1.10 $< P < .20$

$\chi^2_{BC} = 6.238$ df.=1.02 $< P < .01$

$\chi^2_{AC} = 2.570$ df.=1.10 $< P < .20$

$\chi^2_{DE} = 4.671$ df.=2 $.05 < P < .10$

$\chi^2_{EF} = 24.305$ df.=2 $P < .01$

$\chi^2_{DF} = 12.734$ df.=2 $P < .01$

ARGENTINA

ECONOMICS

TABLE AE-VIII

ATTITUDES TOWARD EDUCATION

	FIRST YEAR		GRADUATES	
	#	%	#	%
RANKING OF CITIZEN RIGHTS[1]				
Equality before law	1	-	1	-
Free education for all	2	-	3	-
Effective political will	4	-	3	-
Minimum wage	4	-	4	-
Access to state social services	4	-	4	-
FUNCTIONS OF THE SCHOOL				
Transmit national spirit to young people	9	6	10	6
Prepare good citizens	36	23	44	25
Give technical and professional training	53	33	58	33
Form men of culture	55	35	54	31
Other answers	5	3	8	5
NUMBER OF CASES	158		174	

1. The figures in the table are average ratings on a scale from one to five.

ARGENTINA

ECONOMICS

TABLE AE-IX

ATTITUDES TOWARD EDUCATION ACCORDING

TO SOCIAL MOBILITY

MOBILITY:	FIRST YEAR				GRADUATES			
	UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
EDUCATION AS A RIGHT								
High 1	94	75	16	59	57	49	25	58
Low	31	25	11	41	60	51	18	42
	N=125		N=27		N=117		N=43	
FUNCTIONS OF THE SCHOOL								
Preparation for occupation and citizenship	71	56	17	51	78	61	22	50
Other answers	57	44	11	49	50	39	22	50
NUMBER OF CASES	128		28		128		44	

1. Respondents who ranked education as first or second among citizen rights in the "high" category; the remainder are in the "low" category.

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ECONOMICS

TABLE AE-X

WORK RELATED DEVELOPMENT VALUES

	FIRST YEAR		GRADUATES	
	#	%	#	%
GREATER USE OF ECONOMISTS IN GOVERNMENT				
Positive	117	74	145	83
Negative	28	18	20	12
No answer	13	8	9	5
MORE GOVERNMENTAL CONTROL OF PROFESSIONAL NORMS				
Positive	79	50	104	60
Negative	66	42	57	33
No answer	13	8	13	7
BROADER ACCESS TO PROFESSION				
Positive	142	90	160	92
Negative	12	7	3	2
No answer	4	3	11	6
NUMBER OF CASES	158		174	

TABLE AE-XI

WORK RELATED DEVELOPMENT VALUES - ACCORDING TO SOCIAL MOBILITY

	FIRST YEAR				GRADUATES			
	UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
GREATER USE OF ECONOMIST IN GOVERNMENT								
Positive	93	73	23	82	108	83	36	82
Negative	25	19	2	7	16	12	3	7
No answer	10	8	3	11	4	3	5	11
MORE GOVERNMENTAL CONTROL OF PROF. NORMS								
Positive	63	49	15	54	72	55	31	71
Negative	53	41	12	43	47	36	9	20
No answer	12	9	1	4	9	7	4	9
BROADER ACCESS TO PROFESSION								
Positive	117	91	24	86	118	90	41	93
Negative	7	5	4	14	3	2	-	-
No answer	4	3	-	-	7	5	3	7
NUMBER OF CASES	128		28		128		44	

TABLE AE-XII

POLITICAL ACTIVITIES IN LAST SIX MONTHS AND

POLITICAL EFFICACY

	FIRST YEAR		GRADUATES	
	#	%	#	%
Discussed Politics Heatedly With Acquaintances				
Yes	70	44	81	47
No	88	56	93	53
Discussed Politics Heatedly With Friends				
Yes	88	56	95	55
No	70	44	79	45
Attended Student or a Union Meeting				
Yes	29	18	37	21
No	129	82	137	79
Attended a Party Meeting				
Yes	15	10	32	18
No	143	90	142	82
Worked Actively For a Party				
Yes	6	4	16	9
No	152	96	158	91
Participated in Street Rally or Demonstration				
Yes	22	14	31	18
No	136	86	143	82
POLITICAL EFFICACY				
Personal Political Views And Activities are:				
Important	102	65	94	54
Unimportant	51	32	74	43
No Answer	5	3	6	3
NUMBER OF CASES	158		174	

TABLE AE-XIII

POLITICAL ACTIVITIES IN LAST SIX MONTHS AND

POLITICAL EFFICACY ACCORDING TO SOCIAL MOBILITY

*	FIRST YEAR				GRADUATES			
	UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
Discussed Politics Heatedly With Acquaintances								
Yes	52	41	17	61	62	47	18	42
No	75	59	11	39	64	49	26	58
No answer	1	1	-	-	2	2	-	-
Discussed Politics Heatedly With Friends								
Yes	68	53	19	68	71	54	23	53
No	59	46	9	32	55	42	21	47
No Answer	1	1	-	-	2	2	-	-
Attended a Student or Union Meeting								
Yes	21	16	7	25	25	19	11	24
No	105	82	21	75	99	76	33	76
No answer	2	2	-	-	4	3	-	-
Attended a Party Meeting								
Yes	10	8	4	14	22	16	9	20
No	116	91	24	86	102	78	34	78
No answer	2	2	-	-	4	3	1	2
Worked Actively For a Party								
Yes	4	3	1	4	13	9	2	4
No	122	95	27	96	112	86	41	93
No answer	2	2	-	-	3	2	1	2
Participated in Street Rally or Demonstration								
Yes	17	13	4	14	22	15	8	18
No	110	86	24	86	102	79	36	82
No answer	1	1	-	-	4	3	-	-
POLITICAL EFFICACY Personal Political Views And Activities Are:								
Important	81	63	20	71	67	52	26	60
Unimportant	42	33	8	28	57	44	16	35
No answer	5	4	-	-	4	3	2	4
NUMBER OF CASES	128		28		128		44	

ARGENTINA EXACT SCIENCES

ARGENTINA

EXACT SCIENCES

TABLE AS-I

BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLES

	FIRST YEAR		LAST YEAR		GRADUATES	
	#	%	#	%	#	%
AGE						
Median	20years		21years		30years	
Range	16-33		16-31		20-48	
SEX						
Men	39	63	48	66	27	48
Women	23	37	25	34	29	52
MARITAL STATUS						
Single	57	92	65	89	28	50
Married	4	6	7	10	27	48
Divorced	-	-	-	-	-	-
Widowed	1	2	1	1	1	2
NUMBER OF CHILDREN						
None	59	95	69	94	34	61
One	1	2	1	1	13	23
Two	2	3	3	4	5	9
Three or more	-	-	-	-	4	7
SOURCE OF INCOME						
Work only	12	19	7	10	28	50
Family aid only	24	39	23	31	1	2
Work and family aid	25	40	24	33	16	28
Work and income fron property or investment	-	-	-	-	4	7
All others	1	2	19	26	7	12
NUMBER OF CASES	62		73		56	

TABLE AS-II

SUBJECTIVE VIEWS OF CLASS

	FIRST YEAR		LAST YEAR		GRADUATES	
	#	%	#	%	#	%
CLASS IDENTIFICATIONS						
Rich	8	13	22	30	22	39
Modest	48	77	39	53	27	48
Poor	1	2	5	7	2	4
None	5	8	7	10	5	9
Professional or proprietor	31	50	46	63	55	98
White Collar	18	29	7	10	-	-
Worker	1	2	5	7	-	-
None	12	19	15	19	1	2
Upper class	-	-	1	1	3	5
Middle class	59	95	64	88	47	84
Lower class	2	3	2	3	2	4
None	1	2	6	8	4	7
Aristocracy	-	-	-	-	3	5
Bourgeoisie	38	61	38	56	32	57
Proletariat	8	13	12	16	3	5
None	16	26	23	31	18	32
NUMBER OF CASES	62		73		56	

TABLE AS-III

BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLES ACCORDING TO

SOCIAL MOBILITY

MOBILITY:	FIRST YEAR				LAST YEAR				GRADUATES			
	UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
AGE												
Median	20 years		20 years		22 years		21 years		31 years		29 years	
Range[1]	17-33		16-28		17-28		18-23 [29,31,34]		22-46		20-48	
SEX												
Men	25	68	14	56	28	61	20	74	18	51	9	43
Women	12	32	11	44	18	39	7	26	17	49	12	57
MARITAL STATUS												
Single	33	89	24	96	41	89	24	89	16	46	12	57
Married	3	8	1	4	5	11	2	7	19	54	8	38
Divorced or separated	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	4	-	-	-	-
Widowed	1	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	5
NUMBER OF CHILDREN												
None	34	92	25	100	43	93	26	96	20	57	14	67
One	1	3	-	-	1	2	-	-	9	26	4	19
Two	2	5	-	-	2	4	1	4	3	9	2	9
Three or more	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	9	1	5
SOURCE OF INCOME												
Work only	10	27	2	8	5	11	2	7	18	51	10	48
Family aid only	11	30	13	52	13	28	10	37	1	3	-	-
Work and family aid	16	43	9	36	18	39	14	52	12	34	4	19
Work and income from property or investment*	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	6	2	9
All others	-	-	1	4	10	22	1	4	2	6	5	24
NUMBER OF CASES	37		25		46		27		35		21	

[1]Figures in square brackets indicate cases far out of norm.

*This category included in "All others" for students.

TABLE AS-IV

SUBJECTIVE VIEWS OF CLASS ACCORDING TO

SOCIAL MOBILITY

MOBILITY:	FIRST YEAR				LAST YEAR				GRADUATES			
	UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
CLASS IDENTIFICATIONS												
Rich	2	5	6	24	9	20	13	48	10	29	12	57
Modest	31	84	17	68	29	63	10	37	20	57	7	33
Poor	1	3	-	-	5	11	-	-	2	6	-	-
None	3	8	2	8	3	6	4	15	3	9	2	9
Professional or proprietor	16	43	15	60	24	52	21	78	34	97	21	100
White collar	13	35	5	20	5	11	3	11	-	-	-	-
Worker	1	3	-	-	5	11	-	-	-	-	-	-
None	7	19	5	20	12	26	3	11	1	3	-	-
Upper class	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	4	3	9	-	-
Middle class	34	92	25	100	42	91	22	81	27	77	20	95
Lower class	2	5	-	-	2	4	-	-	1	3	1	5
None	1	3	-	-	2	4	4	15	4	11	-	-
Aristocracy	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	14
Bourgeoisie	17	46	21	84	19	41	19	70	19	54	13	62
Proletariat	7	19	1	4	11	24	1	4	2	6	1	5
None	13	35	3	12	16	35	7	26	14	40	4	19
NUMBER OF CASES	37		25		46		27		35		21	

TABLE AS-V

THE INDEX OF SOCIAL MOBILITY RELATED TO NON-OCCUPATIONAL

ELEMENTS IN SOCIAL MOBILITY

MOBILITY:	FIRST YEAR				LAST YEAR				GRADUATES			
	UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
FATHER'S EDUCATION												
No formal education	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Primary incomplete	5	13	-	-	5	11	-	-	5	14	1	5
Primary complete	8	22	4	16	20	43	1	4	17	49	1	5
Secondary incomplete	12	32	1	4	9	20	2	7	6	17	1	5
Secondary complete	7	19	4	16	8	17	3	11	5	14	1	5
University incomplete	2	5	5	20	1	2	3	11	1	3	2	9
University complete	3	8	11	44	3	6	18	67	1	3	15	71
FATHER'S BIRTHPLACE												
Argentina	20	54	16	64	16	35	19	70	12	34	15	71
Italy	1	3	2	8	8	17	1	4	5	14	1	5
Spain	5	13	-	-	8	17	-	-	2	6	1	5
Poland	1	3	-	-	3	6	-	-	5	14	-	-
Russia	1	3	-	-	1	2	1	4	6	17	-	-
Germany	1	3	2	8	4	9	3	11	1	3	-	-
Other European lands	3	8	4	16	4	9	1	4	2	6	3	14
Other Latin American lands	2	5	1	4	1	2	2	7	1	3	-	-
Arab countries	2	5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Asiatic other than Arab	1	3	-	-	1	2	-	-	-	-	1	5
RURAL OR SMALL TOWN RESIDENCE												
Never	32	86	22	88	41	89	23	85	29	83	17	81
Less than 5 years	2	5	2	8	3	6	1	4	-	-	2	9
5 to 10 years	-	-	-	-	1	2	2	7	4	11	1	5
11 to 15 years	2	5	-	-	1	2	1	4	2	6	1	5
More than 15 years	1	3	1	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
NUMBER OF CASES	37		25		46		27		35		21	

TABLE AS-VI EXACT SCIENCES

THE INDEX OF NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION BY SOCIAL MOBILITY

NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION	MOBILITY			MOBILITY			MOBILITY		
	Up	Stable		Up	Stable		Up	Stable	
HIGH	13	9	22	18	12	30	15	8	23
MEDIUM	17	8	25	16	9	25	12	8	20
LOW	7	8	15	12	6	18	8	5	13
	37	25	62	46	27	73	35	21	56

FIRST YEAR	LAST YEAR	GRADUATES
$\chi^2 = 1.776$ df. = 2	$\chi^2 = 1.50$ df. = 2	$\chi^2 = .530$ df. = 2
$.30 < P < .50$	$.30 < P < .50$	$.70 < P < .80$

TABLE AS-VII

THE SAMPLES COMPARED ON SOCIAL MOBILITY AND THE

INDEX OF NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION

SOCIAL MOBILITY	A FIRST YEAR	B LAST YEAR	C GRAD-UATES	NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION SCORES	D FIRST YEAR	E LAST YEAR	F GRAD-UATES
Up	37	46	35	High	22	30	23
Stable	25	27	21	Medium	25	25	20
				Low	15	18	13
NUMBER OF CASES	62	73	56		62	73	56

$\chi^2_{AB} = .12 \quad .80 > P > .70$

$\chi^2_{BC} = .13 \quad .80 > P > .70$

$\chi^2_{AC} =$ zero

$\chi^2_{DE} = 632 \quad df. = 2 \quad .70 > P > .80$

$\chi^2_{EF} = .222 \quad df. = 2 \quad .95 > P > .98$

$\chi^2_{DE} = .589 \quad df. = 2 \quad .70 > P > .80$

TABLE AS-VIII

EXACT SCIENCES

ATTITUDE TOWARD EDUCATION

	FIRST YEAR		LAST YEAR		GRADUATES	
	#	%	#	%	#	%
EDUCATION AS A RIGHT[1]						
Free education	2		2		2	
Equality before the law	1		1		2	
Access to state social services	4		4		4	
Minimum wage	4		3		3	
Effective political voice	3		3		3	
UNIVERSITY EDUCATION FOR ALL						
Yes	62	100	73	100	56	100
No	-	-	-	-	-	-
FUNCTIONS OF THE SCHOOL						
Transmit national spirit to young people	4	6	2	3	2	4
Prepare good citizens	10	16	11	15	13	23
Give technical and professional training	11	18	16	22	16	29
Form men of culture	32	52	38	52	18	32
Other answers	5	8	1	8	7	12
NUMBER OF CASES	62		73		56	

[1] The figures in the table are average ratings on a scale from one to five.

ARGENTINA

EXACT SCIENCES

TABLE AS-IX

ATTITUDES TOWARD EDUCATION ACCORDING

TO SOCIAL MOBILITY

MOBILITY:	FIRST YEAR				LAST YEAR				GRADUATES			
	UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
EDUCATION AS A RIGHT												
High[1]	25	76	11	55	39	95	24	92	18	51	9	50
Low	8	24	9	45	2	5	2	7	9	49	9	50
	N=33		N=20		N=41		N=26		N=27		N=18	
UNIVERSITY EDUCATION FOR ALL												
Yes	37	100	25	100	46	100	27	100	35	100	21	100
No	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
FUNCTIONS OF THE SCHOOL												
Preparation for occupation or citizenship	11	30	10	40	15	33	12	44	17	49	11	52
Other answers	26	70	15	60	31	67	15	56	18	51	10	48
NUMBER OF CASES	37		25		46		27		35		21	

[1] Respondents who ranked education as first or second among citizen rights are in the "high" category; the remainder are in the "low" category.

TABLE AS X
ATTITUDES TOWARD EDUCATION ACCORDING TO

NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION

NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION:	FIRST YEAR						LAST YEAR						GRADUATES					
	HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW		HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW		HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
EDUCATION AS A RIGHT																		
High[1]	16	76	13	65	7	58	14	56	15	62	12	75	6	40	13	68	7	64
Low	5	24	7	35	5	42	11	44	9	37	4	25	9	60	6	32	4	36
	(N=21)		(N=20)		(N=12)		(N=25)		(N=24)		(N=16)		(N=15)		(N=19)		(N=11)	
University Education For All																		
Yes	22	100	25	100	15	100	30	100	25	100	18	100	23	100	20	100	13	100
No	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
No answer	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
NUMBER OF CASES	22		25		15		30		25		18		23		20		13	

1. See footnote Table AS-IX. The tabulation for the functions of the school according to national identification was not available for this analysis.

ARGENTINA

EXACT SCIENCES

TABLE AS-XI

WORK RELATED DEVELOPMENT VALUES

	FIRST YEAR		LAST YEAR		GRADUATES	
	#	%	#	%	#	%
More Specialization[1]						
Positive	54	87	51	70	35	62
Negative	6	10	16	22	5	9
No answer	2	3	6	8	16	29
More Team Work						
Positive	59	95	71	97	54	96
Negative	3	5	1	1	-	-
No answer	-	-	1	1	2	4
More Years Of Study For Profession						
Positive	34	55	31	42	21	37
Negative	20	32	39	53	31	55
No answer	8	13	3	4	4	7
Governmental Support For Scientific Research						
Positive	59	95	70	96	55	98
Negative	2	3	3	4	1	2
No answer	1	2	-	-	-	-
More Governmental Control Of Professional Norms						
Positive	19	31	21	29	12	21
Negative	34	55	47	64	33	59
No answer	9	14	5	7	11	20
Broader Access to Profession						
Positive	59	95	70	96	54	96
Negative	2	3	2	3	1	2
No answer	1	2	1	1	1	2
Competition						
Eager and seek competition	20	32	17	23	9	16
Other answers	42	68	55	75	44	79
No answer	-	-	1	1	3	5
NUMBER OF CASES	62		73		56	

[1] Respondents were asked to rate as positive or negative a number of "recent trends in the scientific profession everywhere."

TABLE AS - XII

WORK RELATED DEVELOPMENT VALUES - ACCORDING

TO SOCIAL MOBILITY

	FIRST YEAR				LAST YEAR				GRADUATES			
	UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
WORK-RELATED DEVELOPMENT VALUES												
Greater Specialization												
Positive	33	89	19	76	36	78	15	56	21	60	14	67
Negative	3	8	3	12	9	20	7	26	3	9	2	9
No answer	1	3	3	12	1	2	5	18	11	31	5	24
Greater Team Work												
Positive	35	95	24	96	45	98	26	96	33	94	21	100
Negative	2	5	1	4	1	2	-	-	-	-	-	-
No answer	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	4	2	6	-	-
Need for Longer Study												
Positive	21	57	13	52	18	39	13	48	13	37	8	38
Negative	12	32	8	32	25	54	14	52	19	54	12	57
No answer	4	11	4	16	3	6	-	-	3	9	1	5
Governmental Support For Scientific Research												
Positive	36	97	23	92	43	93	27	100	35	100	20	95
Negative	1	3	1	4	3	6	-	-	-	-	1	5
No answer	-	-	1	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
More State Control of Professional Norms												
Positive	12	32	7	28	14	30	7	26	7	20	5	24
Negative	19	51	15	60	28	61	19	70	19	54	14	67
No answer	6	16	3	12	4	9	1	4	9	26	2	9
More Varied Social Access to Profession												
Positive	36	97	23	92	44	96	26	96	33	94	21	100
Negative	1	3	1	4	1	2	1	4	1	3	-	-
No answer	-	-	1	4	1	2	-	-	1	3	-	-
PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT VALUES												
Eager and seek competition	12	32	8	32	9	19	8	30	6	17	3	14
All other choices	25	68	17	68	37	80	18	67	28	80	16	76
No answer	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	4	1	3	2	9
NUMBER OF CASES	37		25		46		27		35		21	

TABLE AS-XIII

WORK-RELATED DEVELOPMENT VALUES ACCORDING TO NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION

	FIRST YEAR						LAST YEAR						GRADUATES					
	HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW		HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW		HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
WORK-RELATED DEVELOPMENT VALUES																		
Greater specialization																		
Positive	17	78	22	88	13	87	19	63	19	76	13	72	15	65	13	65	7	54
Negative	2	9	2	8	2	13	7	23	4	16	5	28	2	9	1	5	2	16
No answer	3	13	1	4	-	-	4	13	2	8	-	-	6	26	6	30	4	31
Greater teamwork																		
Positive	20	91	25	100	14	93	29	97	25	100	17	94	22	96	19	95	13	100
Negative	2	9	-	-	1	7	-	-	-	-	1	6	-	-	-	-	-	-
No answer	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	3	-	-	-	-	1	4	1	5	-	-
Need for longer study																		
Positive	12	54	16	64	6	40	10	33	12	48	9	50	7	30	10	50	4	31
Negative	6	27	5	20	9	60	18	60	12	48	9	50	15	65	8	40	8	66
No answer	4	18	4	16	-	-	2	7	1	4	-	-	1	4	2	10	1	8
PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT VALUES																		
Competition																		
Eager and seek competition	5	23	9	36	6	40	7	23	5	20	5	28	4	17	2	10	3	23
All other choices	17	77	16	64	9	60	22	73	20	80	13	72	18	78	17	85	9	69
No answer	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	3	-	-	-	-	1	4	1	5	1	8
NUMBER OF CASES	22		25		15		30		25		18		23		20		13	

TABLE AS-XIII

WORK RELATED DEVELOPMENT VALUES - ACCORDING

TO SOCIAL MOBILITY (CONT.)

	FIRST YEAR				LAST YEAR				GRADUATES			
	UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT VALUES												
Competition												
Eager and seek competition	12	32	8	32	9	19	8	30	6	17	3	14
All other choices	25	68	17	68	37	80	18	67	28	80	16	76
No answer	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	4	1	3	2	9
NUMBER OF CASES	37		25		46		27		35		21	

ARGENTINA

EXACT SCIENCES

TABLE AS-XIV

RELIGIOSITY AND SECULARISM

	FIRST YEAR		LAST YEAR		GRADUATES	
	#	%	#	%	#	%
PRACTICING FAITH						
Catholic	26	42	18	25	15	27
Other	11	18	5	7	4	7
None	23	37	46	63	35	62
No answer	2	3	4	5	2	4
RELIGION AND OCCUPATIONAL ROLES						
Religion helps in performance of occupation	15	24	11	15	9	16
Religion makes no difference or hinders performance of occupation	47	76	62	85	47	84
NUMBER OF CASES	62		73		56	

TABLE AS-XV

RELIGIOSITY AND SECULARISM ACCORDING TO SOCIAL MOBILITY

MOBILITY:	FIRST YEAR				LAST YEAR				GRADUATES			
	UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
PRACTICING FAITH												
Catholic	16	43	10	40	12	26	7	26	8	23	7	33
Other	4	11	5	20	3	6	2	7	3	9	-	-
None	14	38	9	36	29	63	17	63	22	63	13	62
No answer	3	8	1	4	2	4	1	4	2	6	1	5
RELIGION AND OCCUPATIONAL ROLES												
Religion helps in performance or occupation	9	24	4	16	8	17	3	11	6	17	3	14
Religion makes no difference or hinders performance or occupation	28	76	21	94	38	83	24	89	29	83	18	86
NUMBER OF CASES	37		25		46		27		35		21	

TABLE AS-XVI

RELIGIOSITY AND SECULARISM ACCORDING
TO NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION

NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION:	FIRST YEAR						LAST YEAR						GRADUATES					
	HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW		HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW		HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
PRACTICING FAITH																		
Catholic	4	18	13	52	9	60	4	13	5	20	10	56	2	9	6	30	7	54
Other	3	14	4	16	2	13	1	3	1	4	3	17	1	4	1	5	2	16
None	14	64	6	24	3	20	24	80	18	72	4	22	19	83	12	60	4	31
No answer	1	5	2	8	1	7	1	3	1	4	1	6	1	4	1	5	-	-
RELIGION AND OCCUPATIONAL ROLES																		
Religion helps in performance of occupation	2	9	10	40	1	7	1	3	4	16	6	33	2	9	5	25	2	16
Religion makes no difference or hinders performance of occupation	20	91	15	60	14	93	29	97	21	84	12	67	21	91	15	75	11	54
NUMBER OF CASES	22		25		15		30		25		18		23		20		13	

TABLE AE-XVII

POLITICAL ACTIVITIES IN LAST SIX MONTHS
AND POLITICAL EFFICACY

	FIRST YEAR		LAST YEAR		GRADUATES	
	#	%	#	%	#	%
Discussed Politics Heatedly With Acquaintances						
Yes	28	45	32	44	30	54
No	13	55	40	55	24	43
No answer	-	-	1	1	2	4
Discussed Politics Heatedly With Friends						
Yes	37	60	39	53	36	64
No	25	40	34	47	19	34
No answer	-	-	-	-	1	2
Attended A Student Or A Union Meeting						
Yes	18	29	26	36	23	41
No	44	71	47	64	30	54
No answer	-	-	-	-	3	5
Attended A Party Meeting						
Yes	11	18	7	9	10	18
No	51	82	66	90	44	78
No answer	-	-	-	-	2	4
Worked Actively For A Party						
Yes	5	8	5	7	3	5
No	57	92	68	93	51	91
No answer	-	-	-	-	2	4
Participated In Street Rally or Demonstration						
Yes	24	39	8	11	7	12
No	38	61	65	89	47	84
No answer	-	-	-	-	2	4
POLITICAL EFFICACY						
Personal Political Views and Opinion Are:						
Important	37	60	33	45	33	59
Unimportant	25	40	39	53	18	32
No answer	-	-	1	1	5	9
NUMBER OF CASES	62		73		56	

TABLE AS-XVIII

ATTITUDES TOWARD POLITICAL ACTIVITIES AND EFFICACY

ACCORDING TO SOCIAL MOBILITY

	FIRST YEAR				LAST YEAR				GRADUATES			
	UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
POLITICS ACTIVITIES												
Within last 6 months have you?												
Discussed Politics Heatedly With Acquaintances												
Yes	17	46	11	44	21	46	11	41	16	46	14	67
No	20	54	14	56	25	54	15	56	18	51	6	29
No answer	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	4	1	3	1	5
Discussed Politics Heatedly With Friends?												
Yes	21	57	16	64	27	59	12	44	23	66	13	62
No	16	43	9	36	19	41	15	56	12	34	7	33
No answer	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	5
Attended A Student Or A Union Meeting?												
Yes	10	27	8	32	17	37	9	33	13	37	10	48
No	27	73	17	68	29	63	18	67	20	57	10	48
No answer	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	6	1	5
Attended A Party Meeting												
Yes	7	19	4	16	5	11	2	7	6	17	4	19
No	30	81	21	84	41	89	25	93	28	80	16	76
No answer	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	3	1	5
Worked Actively For A Party												
Yes	3	8	2	8	3	6	2	7	2	6	1	5
No	34	92	23	92	43	93	25	93	32	91	19	90
No answer	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	3	1	5
Participated In Street Rally or Demonstration												
Yes	4	11	2	8	4	9	4	15	6	17	1	5
No	33	89	23	92	42	91	23	85	28	80	19	90
No answer	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	3	1	5
POLITICAL EFFICACY												
Important	19	51	18	72	21	46	12	44	16	46	17	81
Unimportant	18	49	17	28	24	52	15	55	14	40	4	19
No answer	-	-	-	-	1	2	-	-	5	14	-	-
NUMBER OF CASES	37		25		46		27		35		21	

TABLE AS-XIX

ATTITUDES TOWARD POLITICAL ACTIVITIES IN LAST SIX MONTHS AND POLITICAL EFFECACY

ACCORDING TO NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION

	FIRST YEAR						LAST YEAR						GRADUATES					
	HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW		HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW		HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
Discussed Politics Heatedly with Acquaintances																		
Yes	14	64	11	44	3	20	16	53	8	32	8	44	16	70	8	40	6	46
No	8	36	14	56	12	80	14	47	16	64	10	56	6	26	12	60	6	46
No answer	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	4	-	-	1	4	-	-	1	8
Discussed Politics Heatedly with Friends																		
Yes	16	73	15	60	6	40	18	60	12	48	9	50	17	74	10	50	9	69
No	6	27	10	40	9	60	12	40	13	52	9	50	6	26	10	50	3	23
No answer	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	8
Attended a Student or a Union Meeting																		
Yes	7	32	8	32	3	20	15	50	8	32	3	17	14	61	6	30	3	23
No	15	68	17	68	12	80	15	50	17	68	15	83	7	30	14	70	9	69
No answer	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	9	-	-	1	8
Attended a Party Meeting																		
Yes	8	36	3	12	-	-	5	17	1	4	1	6	6	26	4	20	-	-
No	14	64	22	88	15	100	25	83	24	96	17	94	16	70	16	80	12	92
No answer	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	4	-	-	1	8
Worked Actively For a Party																		
Yes	4	18	1	4	-	-	4	13	1	4	-	-	3	13	-	-	-	-
No	18	82	24	96	15	100	26	87	24	96	18	100	19	83	20	100	12	92
No answer	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	4	-	-	1	8
NUMBER OF CASES	22		25		15		30		25		18		23		20		13	

TABLE AS-XIX

ATTITUDES TOWARD POLITICAL ACTIVITIES AND EFFICACY
BY NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION(CONT.)

	FIRST YEAR						LAST YEAR						GRADUATES					
	HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW		HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW		HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
Participated in street rally or demonstration																		
Yes	4	18	2	8	-	-	5	17	3	12	-	-	6	26	1	5	-	-
No	18	82	23	92	15	100	25	83	22	88	18	100	16	70	19	95	12	92
No answer	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	4	-	-	1	8
POLITICAL EFFICACY																		
Personal political views and activities are:																		
Important	15	68	15	60	6	40	14	47	7	28	11	61	12	52	12	60	8	61
Unimportant	7	32	10	40	9	60	16	53	17	68	7	39	6	26	8	40	5	38
No answer	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	4	-	-	5	2	-	-	-	-
NUMBER CF CASES	22		25		15		30		25		18		23		20		13	

ARGENTINA MEDICAL

TABLE AM-I

BACKGROUND CHARACTERISITCS OF THE SAMPLES

	FIRST YEAR		LAST YEAR		GRADUATES	
	#	%	#	%	#	%
AGE						
Median	18		26		44	
Range	15-28		19-36		24-72	
SEX						
Men	184	80	154	79	166	95
Women	46	20	42	21	9	5
MARITAL STATUS						
Single	224	97	158	81	39	22
Married	6	3	35	18	133	76
Divorced	-	-	1	.5	1	1
Widowed	-	-	1	.5	2	1
NUMBER OF CHILDREN						
None	224	97	177	90	54	31
One	5	2	11	6	32	18
Two	1	.4	3	1	52	30
Three or more	-	-	5	3	37	21
SOURCE OF INCOME						
Work only	15	6	57	29	144	82
Family aid only	172	75	42	21	1	1
Work and family aid	36	16	85	43	5	3
Work and income from property or investment*	-	-	2	-	21	12
All others	7	3	12	6	4	2
NUMBER OF CASES	230		196		175	

* This category included in "All others" for students.

TABLE AM-II

SUBJECTIVE VIEWS OF CLASS

	FIRST YEAR		LAST YEAR		GRADUATES	
	#	%	#	%	#	%
CLASS IDENTIFICATIONS						
Rich	51	22	51	26	62	35
Modest	150	65	119	61	96	55
Poor	4	2	5	3	4	2
None	25	11	21	11	13	7
Professional or proprietor	82	36	155	79	171	98
White collar	42	18	21	11	4	2
Worker	4	2	2	1	-	-
None	102	44	18	9	-	-
Upper class	8	3	1	.5	8	5
Middle class	213	93	183	93	162	93
Lower class	4	2	5	3	2	1
None	5	2	7	4	3	2
Aristocracy	4	2	1	.5	7	4
Bourgeoisie	106	46	85	43	72	41
Proletariat	22	10	37	19	26	15
None	98	42	73	37	69	39
NUMBER OF CASES	230		196		175	

TABLE AM-III

BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLES ACCORDING TO SOCIAL MOBILITY

MOBILITY:	FIRST YEAR				LAST YEAR				GRADUATES			
	STABLE		UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE		UP	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
AGE												
Median	19		19		25		27		41		45	
Range	15-26		16-33		21-34		19-41		26-72		24-72	
SEX												
Men	78	80	104	78	64	77	89	79	61	92	104	96
Women	19	20	27	21	19	23	23	20	5	8	4	4
MARITAL STATUS												
Single	96	99	126	96	62	75	95	85	17	26	22	20
Married	1	1	5	4	19	23	16	14	48	73	84	78
Divorced or separated	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	1	1
Widowed	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	1	1	1	1
NUMBER OF CHILDREN												
None	97	100	125	95	74	89	102	91	22	33	32	30
One	-	-	5	4	5	6	6	5	12	18	20	18
Two	-	-	1	1	2	2	1	1	17	26	34	31
Three or more	-	-	-	-	2	2	3	3	15	23	22	20
SOURCE OF INCOME												
Work only	5	5	10	8	21	25	35	32	56	85	88	81
Family aid only	76	78	94	72	18	22	24	21	1	1	-	-
Work and family aid	12	12	24	18	38	46	46	41	3	4	2	2
Work and income from property or investment*	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	6	9	14	13
All others	4	4	3	24	6	6	6	5	-	-	4	4
NUMBER OF CASES	97		131		83		112		66		108	

* This category included in "All others" for students.

TABLE AM-IV

SUBJECTIVE VIEWS OF CLASS ACCORDING TO SOCIAL MOBILITY

MOBILITYI	FIRST YEAR				LAST YEAR				GRADUATES			
	STABLE		UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE		UP	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
CLASS IDENTIFICATIONS												
Rich	35	36	15	11	31	37	20	18	29	44	32	30
Modest	48	49	101	77	40	48	79	70	32	48	64	59
Poor	1	1	3	2	-	-	5	4	-	-	4	4
None	13	13	12	9	12	14	8	7	5	8	8	7
Professional or proprietor	53	55	28	21	68	82	87	78	65	98	105	97
White collar	8	8	34	26	8	10	13	12	1	1	3	3
Worker	-	-	4	3	-	-	2	2	-	-	-	-
None	36	37	65	50	7	8	10	9	-	-	-	-
Upper class	6	6	2	1	1	1	-	-	6	9	2	2
Middle class	89	92	122	93	81	98	101	90	58	88	103	95
Lower class	-	-	4	3	-	-	5	4	-	-	2	2
None	2	2	3	2	1	1	6	5	2	3	1	1
Aristocracy	2	2	2	1	1	1	-	-	5	8	2	2
Bourgeoisie	59	61	46	35	41	49	43	38	29	44	43	40
Proletariat	1	1	21	16	12	14	25	22	3	4	23	21
None	35	36	62	47	29	35	44	39	29	44	39	36
NUMBER OF CASES	97		131		83		112		66		108	

TABLE AM-V

THE INDEX OF SOCIAL MOBILITY RELATED TO NON-OCCUPATIONAL ELEMENTS IN SOCIAL MOBILITY

MOBILITY:	FIRST YEAR				LAST YEAR				GRADUATES			
	STABLE		UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE		UP	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
FATHER'S EDUCATION												
No formal education	-	-	2	1	-	-	3	3	1	1	3	3
Primary incomplete	-	-	10	8	3	4	14	12	4	6	18	17
Primary complete	10	10	59	45	10	12	52	46	9	14	41	38
Secondary incomplete	11	11	25	19	12	14	20	18	6	9	15	14
Secondary complete	17	17	25	19	13	16	16	14	13	20	17	16
University incomplete	5	5	8	6	8	10	3	3	4	6	5	5
University complete	54	56	2	1	37	45	4	4	28	42	6	6
Not ascertained	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	3	3
FATHER'S BIRTHPLACE												
Argentina	72	74	84	64	54	65	52	46	36	54	33	31
Italy	5	5	13	10	7	8	17	15	9	14	23	21
Spain	5	5	11	8	3	4	11	10	9	14	14	13
Poland	4	4	9	7	1	1	13	12	-	-	8	7
Russia	-	-	2	1	4	5	5	4	1	1	14	13
Germany	2	2	1	1	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
Other European countries	3	3	3	2	2	2	4	4	6	9	9	8
Other Latin American countries	3	3	1	1	8	10	4	4	2	3	-	-
Arab countries	1	1	3	2	2	2	5	4	1	1	7	6
Asiatic other than Arab	2	2	3	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Others	-	-	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	-	-
Not ascertained	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-
RURAL OR SMALL TOWN RESIDENCE												
Never	84	87	113	86	67	81	99	88	45	68	86	80
Less than 5 years	6	6	7	5	7	8	2	2	6	9	12	11
5 to 10 years	4	4	2	1	5	6	5	4	6	9	7	6
11 to 15 years	1	1	5	4	1	1	3	3	5	8	2	2
More than 15 years	2	2	4	3	3	4	3	3	4	6	1	1
NUMBER OF CASES	97		131		83		112		66		108	

TABLE AM-VI

THE INDEX OF NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION BY SOCIAL MOBILITY

NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION	MOBILITY			MOBILITY			MOBILITY		
	UP	STABLE		UP	STABLE		UP	STABLE	
HIGH	57	29	86	50	42	92	34	12	46
MEDIUM	50	45	95	37	22	59	42	25	67
LOW	24	23	47	25	19	44	32	29	61
	131	97	228	112	83	195	108	66	174

FIRST YEAR	LAST YEAR	GRADUATES
$\chi^2 = 4.96$ df. = 2	$\chi^2 = 1.66$ df. = 2	$\chi^2 = 4.05$ df. = 2
$.105 < P < .10$	$.30 < P < .50$	$.05 < P < .10$

TABLE AMpVII

THE SAMPLES COMPARED ON SOCIAL MOBILITY AND THE

INDEX OF NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION

SOCIAL MOBILITY	A	B	C	NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION SCORES	D	E	F
	FIRST YEAR	LAST YEAR	GRAD-UATES		FIRST YEAR	LAST YEAR	GRAD-UATES
Up	131	112	108	High	86	92	46
Stable	97	83	66	Medium	97	59	68
				Low	47	44	61
NUMBER OF CASES	228	195	174		230	195	175

χ^2 AB = zero df. = 1

χ^2 BC = 1.13 df. = 1 $.30 > P > .20$

χ^2 AC = 1.05 df. = 1 $.50 > P > .30$

χ^2 DE = 6.244 df. = 2 $.05 > P > .02$

χ^2 EF = 18.028 df. = 2 $P < .001$

χ^2 DF = 16.123 df. = 2 $P < .001$

TABLE AM-VIII

ATTITUDES TOWARD EDUCATION

	FIRST YEAR		LAST YEAR		GRADUATES	
	#	%	#	%	#	%
RANKING OF CITIZEN RIGHTS[1]						
Free education	2		2		2	
Equality before the law	1		1		1	
Access to state social services	4		5		4	
Effective political voice	3		3		3	
Minimum wage	4		4		4	
UNIVERSITY EDUCATION FOR ALL						
Yes	224	97	191	97	167	95
No	6	3	5	3	8	5
No answer	-	-	-	-	-	-
FUNCTIONS OF THE SCHOOL						
Transmit national spirit to young people	26	11	17	9	13	7
Prepare good citizens	49	21	45	23	51	29
Give technical and professional training	61	27	60	31	45	26
Form men of culture	85	37	50	25	56	32
Other answers	9	4	24	12	10	6
NUMBER OF CASES	230		196		175	

1. The figures in the table are average ratings in a scale from one to five.

TABLE AM-IX

ATTITUDES TOWARD ECUATION

ACCORDING TO SOCIAL MOBILITY

MOBILITY:	FIRST YEAR				LAST YEAR				GRADUATES			
	UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
EDUCATION AS A RIGHT[1]												
High	89	77	60	69	68	69	47	70	61	70	35	53
Low	26	23	27	31	30	31	20	30	26	30	23	47
	(N= 115)		(N= 85)		(N=98)		(N= 67)		(N= 87)		(N= 66)	
University education for all												
Yes	129	98	93	96	111	99	79	95	103	95	63	95
No	2	1	4	4	1	1	4	5	5	5	3	4
Functions of education												
Preparation for occupation or citizenship	61	47	48	49	61	54	43	52	59	55	37	56
Other answers	70	53	49	51	51	46	40	48	49	45	29	44
NUMBER OF CASES	131		97		112		83		108		66	

1. Respondents who ranked education as first or second among citizen rights are in the "high" category; the remainder are in the "low" category.

TABLE AM-X

ATTITUDES TOWARD EDUCATION ACCORDING TO

NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION

National Identification	FIRST YEAR						LAST YEAR						GRADUATES					
	HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW		HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW		HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
Education as a Right																		
High[1]	52	71	64	74	33	75	51	55	37	63	27	61	24	73	36	62	36	67
Low	21	29	21	24	11	25	25	45	14	37	11	39	9	27	22	38	18	33
	(N=73)		(N=86)		(N=44)		(N=76)		(N=51)		(N=38)		(N=33)		(N=58)		(N=54)	
University Education for All																		
Yes	86	100	93	98	43	91	91	99	57	97	42	95	46	100	65	97	55	90
No	-	-	2	2	4	8	1	1	2	3	2	4	-	-	2	3	6	10
No answer	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
NUMBER OF CASES	86		95		47		92		59		44		46		67		61	

1. See footnote Table Am-IX. The tabulation for the functions of the school according to national identification was not available for this analysis.

TABLE AM-XI

WORK-RELATED DEVELOPMENT VALUES

	FIRST YEAR		LAST YEAR		GRADUATES	
	#	%	#	%	#	%
MORE SPECIALIZATION[1]						
Positive	206	90	165	84	150	86
Negative	19	8	20	10	23	13
No answer	5	2	11	6	2	1
MORE TEAMWORK						
Positive	219	95	195	99	171	98
Negative	7	3	1	.5	4	2
No answer	4	2	-	-	-	-
MORE YEARS OF STUDY FOR PROFESSION						
Positive	107	46	53	27	62	35
Negative	105	46	141	72	103	59
No answer	18	8	2	1	10	6
STATE SOCIAL SECURITY PROGRAMS						
Positive	183	80	172	88	143	82
Negative	32	14	21	11	22	13
No answer	15	6	3	1	10	6
MORE GOVERNMENTAL CONTROL OF PROFESSIONAL NORMS						
Positive	86	37	87	44	78	45
Negative	132	57	105	54	85	48
No answer	12	5	4	2	12	7
BROADER ACCESS TO PROFESSION						
Positive	216	94	185	94	155	89
Negative	10	4	5	3	13	7
No answer	4	2	6	3	7	4
COMPETITION						
Enjoy and seek competition	69	30	68	35	NOT	
Other answers	161	70	126	64		
No answer	-	-	2	1	ASKED	
NUMBER OF CASES	230		196		175	

1. Respondents were asked to rate as positive or negative a number of "recent tendencies in the medical profession everywhere."

TABLE AM-XII

WORK-RELATED DEVELOPMENT VALUES ACCORDING TO SOCIAL MOBILITY INDEX

	FIRST YEAR				LAST YEAR				GRADUATES			
	UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
WORK-RELATED DEVELOPMENT VALUES												
Greater specialization												
Positive	120	92	84	87	96	86	68	82	92	85	57	86
Negative	8	6	11	11	10	9	10	12	14	13	9	14
No answer	3	2	2	2	6	5	5	6	2	2	-	-
Greater teamwork												
Positive	124	95	94	97	111	99	83	100	106	98	64	97
Negative	4	3	2	2	1	1	-	-	2	2	2	3
No answer	3	2	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Need for longer study												
Positive	55	42	52	54	24	21	28	34	35	32	26	39
Negative	65	50	39	40	86	77	55	66	69	64	34	51
No answer	11	8	6	6	2	2	-	-	4	4	6	9
Governmental social security programs												
Positive	105	80	77	79	101	90	70	84	90	83	52	79
Negative	17	13	15	15	10	9	11	13	11	10	11	17
No answer	9	7	5	5	1	1	2	2	7	6	3	4
More state control of professional norms												
Positive	50	38	36	37	50	45	37	45	50	46	27	41
Negative	75	57	56	58	59	53	45	54	49	45	36	54
No answer	6	5	5	5	3	3	1	1	9	8	3	4
More varied social access to professions												
Positive	125	95	89	92	110	98	74	89	98	91	57	86
Negative	6	5	4	4	-	-	5	6	5	5	7	11
No answer	-	-	4	4	2	2	4	5	5	5	2	3
PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT VALUES												
Competition												
Eager and seek competition	34	26	35	36	41	37	27	32	104	96	66	100
All other choices	97	74	62	64	71	63	54	65	4	4	-	-
No answer	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2	-	-	-	-
NUMBER OF CASES	131		97		112		83		108		66	

TABLE AM-XIII

WORK-RELATED DEVELOPMENT VALUES ACCORDING TO

NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION

	FIRST YEAR						LAST YEAR						GRADUATES					
	HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW		HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW		HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
WORK-RELATED DEVELOPMENT VALUES																		
Greater specialization																		
Positive	74	86	88	93	42	89	77	84	53	90	34	77	39	85	55	82	55	90
Negative	11	13	5	5	3	6	10	11	3	5	7	16	7	15	11	16	5	8
No answer	1	1	2	2	2	4	5	5	3	5	3	7	-	-	1	1	1	2
Greater teamwork																		
Positive	81	94	93	98	44	94	91	99	59	100	44	100	45	98	66	98	59	97
Negative	3	3	2	2	1	2	1	1	-	-	-	-	1	2	1	1	2	3
No answer	2	2	-	-	2	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Need for longer study																		
Positive	32	37	50	53	25	53	26	28	13	22	13	29	11	24	29	43	21	34
Negative	47	55	39	41	18	38	65	71	46	88	30	68	31	67	34	51	38	62
No answer	7	8	6	6	4	8	1	1	-	-	1	2	4	9	4	6	2	3
PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT VALUES																		
Feelings toward competition																		
Eager and seek competition	23	27	34	36	12	25	44	48	18	30	14	32	46	100	66	98	58	95
All other choices	63	73	61	64	35	74	47	51	41	69	29	66	-	-	1	1	3	5
No answer	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	1	2	-	-	-	-	-	-
NUMBER OF CASES	86		95		47		92		59		44		46		67		61	

ARGENTINA

MEDICAL

TABLE AM-XIV

RELIGIOSITY AND SECULARISM

	FIRST YEAR		LAST YEAR		GRADUATES	
	#	%	#	%	#	%
PRACTICING FAITH						
Catholic	132	57	101	51	112	64
Other	31	13	22	11	19	11
None	62	27	70	36	38	22
No answer	5	2	3	1	6	3
RELIGION AND OCCUPATIONAL ROLES						
Religion helps in performance of occupation	122	53	94	48	91	52
Religion makes no difference or hinders performance of occupation	108	47	102	51	84	48
No opinion	-	-	-	-	-	-
NUMBER OF CASES	230		196		175	

ARGENTINA

MEDICAL

TABLE AM-XV

RELIGIOSITY AND SECULARISM ACCORDING

TO SOCIAL MOBILITY

MOBILITYP	FIRST YEAR				LAST YEAR				GRADUATES			
	UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
PRACTICING FAITH												
Catholic	73	56	57	59	58	52	43	52	57	53	54	82
Other	21	16	9	9	16	14	7	8	14	13	3	4
None	34	26	28	29	37	33	32	39	33	31	5	8
No answer	3	2	3	3	1	1	1	1	4	4	4	6
RELIGION AND OCCUPATIONAL ROLES												
Religion helps in performance of occupation	66	50	54	56	56	50	38	46	51	47	40	61
Religion makes no difference or hinders performance of occupation	65	50	43	44	56	50	45	54	57	53	26	39
NUMBER OF CASES	131		97		112		83		108		66	

TABLE AM-XVI

RELIGIOSITY AND SECULARISM ACCORDING

TO NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION

National Identification:	FIRST YEAR						LAST YEAR						GRADUATES					
	HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW		HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW		HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
PRACTICING FAITH																		
Catholic	33	38	54	57	43	91	31	34	35	59	35	80	20	43	41	61	50	82
Other	14	16	15	16	1	2	9	10	10	17	2	4	4	9	10	15	3	5
None	37	43	22	23	3	6	52	56	10	17	7	16	21	46	12	18	5	8
No answer	2	2	4	4	-	-	-	-	4	7	-	-	1	2	4	6	3	5
RELIGION AND OCCUPATIONAL ROLES																		
Religion helps in performance of occupation	28	33	52	55	40	85	27	29	35	59	32	73	18	39	36	54	37	61
Religion makes no difference or hinders performance of occupation	58	67	43	45	7	15	65	71	24	41	12	27	28	61	31	46	24	39
NUMBER OF CASES	86		95		47		92		59		44		46		67		61	

ARGENTINA

TABLE AM-XVII

MEDICAL

POLITICAL ACTIVITIES IN LAST SIX MONTHS
AND POLITICAL EFFICACY

	FIRST YEAR		LAST YEAR		GRADUATES	
	#	%	#	%	#	%
POLITICAL ACTIVITIES						
Discussed politics heatedly with acquaintances						
Yes	115	50	126	64	100	57
No	115	50	69	35	70	40
No answer	-	-	1	.5	5	3
Discussed politics heatedly with friends						
Yes	139	60	144	73	111	63
No	91	40	51	26	60	34
No answer	-	-	1	.5	4	2
Attended a student or a union meeting						
Yes	45	20	30	15	48	27
No	185	80	165	84	123	70
No answer	-	-	1	.5	4	2
Attended a party meeting						
Yes	31	13	20	10	22	13
No	198	86	175	89	150	86
No answer	1	.4	1	.5	3	2
Worked actively for a party						
Yes	13	6	16	8	11	6
No	217	94	177	90	161	92
No answer	-	-	1	.5	3	2
Participated in street rally or demonstration						
Yes	36	16	29	15	18	10
No	194	84	166	85	154	88
No answer	-	-	1	.5	3	2
POLITICAL EFFICACY						
Personal political views and activities are:						
Important	115	50	119	61	97	55
Unimportant	115	50	76	39	76	43
No answer	-	-	1	.5	2	1
NUMBER OF CASES	230		196		175	

TABLE AM-XVIII

POLITICAL ACTIVITIES IN LAST SIX MONTHS AND POLITICAL EFFICACY ACCORDING TO SOCIAL MOBILITY

	FIRST YEAR				LAST YEAR				GRADUATES			
	UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE		UP		STABLE	
POLITICAL ACTIVITIES	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
Discussed politics heatedly with acquaintances												
Yes	63	48	52	54	74	66	51	61	61	56	39	59
No	68	52	45	46	37	33	32	39	43	40	26	39
No answer	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	4	4	1	1
Discussed politics heatedly with friends												
Yes	82	63	57	59	86	77	57	69	72	67	39	59
No	49	37	40	41	25	22	26	31	33	31	26	39
No answer	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	3	3	1	1
Attended a student or a Union meeting												
Yes	26	20	19	20	15	13	15	18	32	30	16	24
No	105	80	78	80	96	86	68	82	72	67	50	76
No answer	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	4	4	-	-
Attended a party meeting												
Yes	12	9	19	20	9	8	11	13	13	12	9	14
No	119	91	77	79	102	91	72	87	92	85	57	86
No answer	-	-	1	1	1	1	-	-	3	3	-	-
Worked actively for a party												
Yes	4	3	9	9	5	4	11	13	6	6	5	8
No	127	97	88	91	106	95	70	84	99	92	61	92
No answer	-	-	-	-	1	1	2	2	3	3	-	-
Participated in street rally or demonstration												
Yes	20	15	16	16	16	14	13	16	11	10	7	11
No	111	85	81	83	95	85	70	84	94	87	59	89
No answer	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	3	3	-	-
POLITICAL EFFICACY												
Personal political views and activities are:												
Important	63	48	52	53	68	61	51	61	57	53	40	61
Unimportant	68	52	45	46	43	38	32	39	50	46	25	38
No answer	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	1	1	1	1
NUMBER OF CASES	131		97		112		83		108		66	

TABLE AM-XIX

POLITICAL ACTIVITIES IN THE LAST SIX MONTHS AND POLITICAL EFFICACY

ACCORDING TO NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION

	FIRST YEAR						LAST YEAR						GRADUATES					
	HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW		HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW		HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
Discussed Politics Heatedly With Acquaintances																		
Yes	41	48	35	37	23	49	66	72	37	63	22	50	29	63	40	60	31	51
No	45	52	60	63	24	51	26	28	21	46	22	50	16	35	25	37	28	46
No answer	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	2	-	-	1	2	2	3	2	3
Discussed Politics Heatedly With Friends																		
Yes	51	59	58	61	30	64	74	80	41	69	28	64	34	74	44	66	33	54
No	35	41	37	39	17	36	18	20	17	29	16	36	11	24	21	31	27	44
No answer	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	2	-	-	1	2	2	3	1	2
Attended a Student or Union Meeting																		
Yes	18	21	24	25	3	6	18	20	8	13	4	9	17	37	16	24	15	25
No	68	79	71	75	44	94	74	80	50	85	40	91	28	61	50	75	44	72
No answer	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	2	-	-	1	2	1	1	2	3
Attended a Party Meeting																		
Yes	13	15	14	15	4	8	12	13	4	7	4	9	6	13	6	9	10	16
No	73	85	80	84	43	91	80	87	54	91	40	91	39	85	60	89	50	82
No answer	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	1	2	-	-	1	2	1	1	1	2
Worked Actively For A Party																		
Yes	7	8	5	5	1	2	9	10	2	3	5	11	3	6	4	6	4	7
No	79	92	90	95	46	98	82	89	55	93	39	89	42	91	62	92	56	92
No answer	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	2	3	-	-	1	2	1	1	1	2

TABLE AM-XIX

POLITICAL ATTITUDES AND EFFICACY

BY NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION (CONT.)

	FIRST YEAR						LAST YEAR						GRADUATES					
	HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW		HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW		HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
Participated in street rally or demonstration																		
Yes	13	15	17	18	6	13	14	15	11	19	4	9	6	13	5	7	7	11
No	73	85	78	82	41	87	78	85	47	80	40	91	39	85	61	91	53	87
No answer	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	2	-	-	1	2	1	1	1	2
POLITICAL EFFICACY																		
Personal political views and activities are:																		
Important	40	48	49	52	26	55	65	70	32	54	22	50	26	56	37	55	34	56
Unimportant	46	52	46	48	21	45	27	30	26	44	22	50	20	43	28	42	27	44
No answer	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	2	-	-	-	-	2	3	-	-
NUMBER OF CASES	86		95		47		92		59		44		46		67		61	

TABLE ME-1

BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLES

	MEMBERS OF CONGRESS	
	#	%
AGE		
Median	48	
Range	30 - 66	
SEX		
Men	89	92
Women	6	6
MARITAL STATUS		
Single	6	6
Married	87	90
Divorced or Separated	-	-
Widowed	2	2
NUMBER OF CHILDREN		
None	7	7
One	6	6
Two	13	13
Three	20	21
Four	15	15
Five	10	10
Six or More	18	19
Not ascertained	6	6
EDUCATION		
No formal education	-	-
Primary incomplete	8	8
Primary complete	11	11
Secondary incomplete	1	1
Secondary complete	7	7
Preparatory incomplete	5	5
Preparatory complete	10	10
University incomplete	4	4
University complete	50	52
PERSONAL INCOME		
Mex$1000 or less per month	3	3
1001 to 3000	11	11
3001 to 5000	17	17
5001 to 7500	24	25
7501 to 10,000	18	19
10,000 or more	22	23
MEDIAN INCOME	$6750	

TABLE ME-1

BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLES
(cont.)

	MEMBERS OF CONGRESS	
	#	%
SECONDARY SOURCES OF INCOME		
None	24	19
Rents and Dividends	18	14
Own Business	19	15
Other Employment		
Government	8	6
Private	12	9
Personal Services	25	20
Other	20	16
NUMBER OF CASES	96	

Note: In some cases there is a temporary machine error of one. Some respondents gave more than one answer on the question of secondary sources of income.

MEXICO

TABLE ME-II

SUBJECTIVE VIEWS OF CLASS

	MEMBERS OF CONGRESS	
	#	%
CLASS IDENTIFICATIONS		
Rich	15	15
Modest	75	77
Poor	5	5
None	-	-
Professional or proprietor	70	72
White Collar	11	11
Worker	8	8
None	6	6
Upper class	2	2
Middle class	91	94
Lower class	2	2
None	-	-
Aristocracy	1	1
Bourgeoisie	29	30
Proletariat	41	42
None	24	25
NUMBER OF CASES	96	

TABLE ME-III

BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLES

ACCORDING TO SOCIAL MOBILITY

MOBILITY:	MEMBERS OF CONGRESS			
	Up		Stable	
	#	%	#	%
AGE				
Median	47		50	
Range	30-66		33-66	
SEX				
Men	50	89	40	100
Women	6	11	-	
MARITAL STATUS				
Single	4	7	2	5
Married	50	89	38	95
Divorced or separated	-	-	-	-
Widower	2	4	-	-
NUMBER OF CHILDREN				
None	4	7	3	7
One	4	7	2	5
Two	7	12	6	15
Three	11	19	9	22
Four	9	16	6	15
Five	7	12	3	7
Six or more	10	18	9	22
Not ascertained	4	7	2	5
EDUCATION				
No formal education	-	-	-	-
Primary incomplete	7	12	1	2
Primary complete	5	9	6	15
Secondary incomplete	1	2	-	-
Secondary complete	4	7	3	7
Preparatory incomplete	2	4	3	7
Preparatory complete	7	12	3	7
University incomplete	3	5	1	2
University complete	27	48	23	57
PERSONAL INCOME				
Mex$1000 or less	2	4	1	2
1001 to 3000	9	16	2	5
3001 to 5000	10	18	8	20
5001 to 7500	14	25	10	25
7501 to 10,000	8	14	10	25
10,000 or more	13	23	9	22
Med. Income	$6250		$7250	

TABLE ME-III

BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLES

ACCORDING TO SOCIAL MOBILITY

(cont.)

MOBILITY:	MEMBERS OF CONGRESS			
	Up		Stable	
	#	%	#	%
SECONDARY SOURCES OF INCOME				
None	14	20	10	19
Rents and dividends	10	14	8	15
Own business	6	9	8	15
Other employment				
Government	4	6	5	9
Private	8	12	4	7
Personal services	15	21	10	19
Other	11	16	9	17
No answer	1	1	-	-
NUMBER OF CASES	56		40	

TABLE ME-IV MEXICO

SUBJECTIVE VIEWS OF CLASS

ACCORDING TO SOCIAL MOBILITY

MOBILITY:	MEMBERS OF CONGRESS			
	Up		Stable	
	#	%	#	%
CLASS IDENTIFICATIONS				
Rich	6	11	9	22
Modest	46	82	30	75
Poor	4	7	1	2
None	-	-	-	-
Professional or proprietor	39	70	32	80
White collar	7	13	4	10
Worker	6	11	2	5
None	4	7	2	5
Upper class	2	4	-	-
Middle class	52	93	40	100
Lower class	2	4	-	-
None	-	-	-	-
Aristocracy	1	2	-	-
Bourgeoisie	14	25	15	37
Proletariat	26	46	16	40
None	15	27	9	22
NUMBER OF CASES	56		40	

MEXICO

TABLE ME-V

THE INDEX OF SOCIAL MOBILITY RELATED TO NON-OCCUPATIONAL ELEMENTS IN SOCIAL MOBILITY

MOBILITY:	MEMBERS OF CONGRESS			
	#	%	#	%
FATHER'S EDUCATION				
No formal education	5	9	1	2
Primary incomplete	10	18	6	15
Primary complete	24	43	14	35
Secondary incomplete	1	2	1	2
Secondary complete	2	4	4	10
Preparatory incomplete	2	4	1	2
Preparatory complete	4	7	2	5
University incomplete	2	4	2	5
University complete	5	9	9	22
Not ascertained	1	2	-	-
FATHER'S BIRTHPLACE				
Mexico	56	100	39	97
Italy	-	-	1	2
RURAL OR SMALL TOWN RESIDENCE				
Never	23	41	16	40
Less than 5 years	6	11	4	10
From 5 to 10 years	10	18	6	15
From 11 to 15 years	9	16	6	15
More than 15 years	8	14	8	20
NUMBER OF CASES	56		40	

MEXICO

CONGRESS

TABLE ME-VI

THE INDEX OF NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION BY SOCIAL MOBILITY

MOBILITY

NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION	UP	STABLE	
High	13	2	15
Medium	16	12	28
Low	27	26	53
	56	40	96

$X^2 = 5.688$ df. = 2

$.05 < P < .10$

TABLE ME-VII

ATTITUDES TOWARD DEVELOPMENT VALUES ACCORDING BY

MOBILITY INDEX

	MEMBERS OF CONGRESS			
	Up		Stable	
	#	%	#	%
MORE SPECIALIZATION	N = 56		N = 40	
Positive	50	89	35	88
Negative	4	7	3	7
No answer	2	4	2	5
MORE TEAM WORK				
Positive	52	93	36	90
Negative	1	2	3	8
No answer	3	5	1	2
MORE YEARS OF STUDY FOR PROFESSION				
Positive	34	61	22	55
Negative	16	29	14	35
No answer	6	11	4	10
LESS PERSONALISM IN POLITICAL LIFE				
Positive	44	78	34	85
Negative	10	18	4	10
No answer	2	4	2	5
MORE GOVERNMENTAL CONTROL OF PROFESSIONAL NORMS				
Positive	38	68	24	60
Negative	12	21	7	17
No answer	6	11	9	22
BROADER ACCESS TO PROFESSIONS				
Positive	50	89	35	87
Negative	3	5	3	7
No answer	3	5	2	5
LARGE IMPERSONAL ORGANIZATIONS				
Positive	13	23	8	20
Negative	39	70	27	67
No answer	4	7	5	12

MEXICO

TABLE ME-VIII

ATTITUDES TOWARD EDUCATION

	MEMBERS OF CONGRESS	
1	#	%
RANKING OF CITIZEN RIGHTS		
Equality before law	1	
Free education for all	3	
Effective voice in politics	3	
Right to minimum wage	4	
Access to state social services	4	
FUNCTIONS OF THE SCHOOL		
Transmit national spirit to young people	37	39
Prepare good citizens	32	33
Give technical and professional training	23	24
Form men of culture	3	3
Other answers	1	1
UNIVERSITY EDUCATION FOR ALL		
Yes	80	83
No	16	17
	96	

1. The figures in the table are average ratings on a scale from one to five.

TABLE ME-IX MEXICO

ATTITUDES TOWARD EDUCATION ACCORDING

TO SOCIAL MOBILITY

MOBILITY:	MEMBERS OF CONGRESS UP #	%	STABLE #	%
EDUCATION AS RIGHT [1]				
High	27	50	22	61
Low	27	50	14	39
	(N= 54)		(N= 36)	
FUNCTIONS OF THE SCHOOL				
Preparation for occupation or citizenship	32	57	23	57
Other answers	24	43	17	43
UNIVERSITY EDUCATION FOR ALL				
Yes	49	88	31	78
No	7	12	9	22
NUMBER OF CASES	56		40	

1. Respondents who ranked education as first or second among citizen rights are in the "high" category; the remainder are in the "low" category.

TABLE ME- X

RELIGIOSITY AND SECULARISM

	MEMBERS OF CONGRESS	
	#	%
PRACTICING FAITH		
Catholic	64	67
Other	1	1
None	17	18
No answer	14	14
RELIGION AND OCCUPATIONAL ROLES		
Religion help legislators in performance of his job	23	24
Other answers	73	76
NUMBER OF CASES	96	

TABLE ME-XI

RELIGIOSITY AND SECULARISM ACCORDING

TO SOCIAL MOBILITY

MOBILITY:	MEMBERS OF CONGRESS			
	UP		STABLE	
	#	%	#	%
PRACTICING FATIH				
Catholic	40	71	22	58
Other	-	-	1	2
None	11	20	6	16
No answer	5	9	9	24
RELIGION AND OCCUPATIONAL ROLES				
Religion helps in performance of occupation	14	25	8	21
Other answers	42	75	30	79
NUMBER OF CASES	56		38	

MEXICO

TABLE ME-XI

RELIGIOSITY AND SECULARISM ACCORDING TO NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION

NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION:	MEMBERS OF CONGRESS					
	HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW	
	#	%	#	%	#	%
PRACTICING FAITH						
Catholic	12	92	17	61	33	62
Other	-	-	-	-	9	17
None	1	8	6	21	10	19
No answer	-	-	5	18	1	2
RELIGION AND OCCUPATIONAL ROLES						
Religion helps in performance of occupation	7	54	6	21	9	17
Other answers	6	46	21	75	44	83
No opinion	-	-	1	4	-	-
NUMBER OF CASES	13		28		48	

PART V

ANNEXES

BRAZIL

APPENDIX A: THE SAMPLES

Managers

Managers in the sample are all executives who have taken an intensive training course offered by the School of Business Administration maintained by the Fundação Getúlio Vargas in São Paulo in cooperation with Point IV. The executive training course, modeled on those offered by Harvard University, has been given since 1954. The sample was taken from a list of 427 graduates of the course who at last report had been living or employed in Rio de Janeiro or São Paulo.

Using a sampling interval of 17, ten independent samples were taken from the list. Two of the samples had 26 cases, the remaining eight had 25 cases each. This method was used because a relatively high rate of failures was anticipated with a group of busy top executives such as those in our sample. By dividing the sample into independent sub-samples it was possible to estimate overall sample performance while the field work was under way and later to estimate the effects on sampling variances of differences in sampling performance. A minimum of three call-backs were made after the first visit on managers not reached. A special intensive effort to reach a sub-sample of the most difficult cases produced no additional interviews. The table below summarizes results on the full sample of 252

cases; losses were quite symmetrically distributed over the ten sub-samples.

Interviews completed	174
Not located (wrong address, untraceable)	18
Moved away from Sao Paulo or Rio de Janeiro	21
Deceased	1
Out of town temporarily	2
Refused	4
Evasive, not reached	32
	252

Skilled workers

The skilled worker sample was obtained in the Sao Paulo plant of Elevadores Atlas, S.A. Atlas maintains in Brazil one of the world's largest elevator construction, installation, and service plants. The plant employs a large number of highly skilled operatives with a great variety of specializations. The enterprise is very modern in organization and outlook, and the workers are selected for above average intelligence. The workers have a strong union, and because of the shortage of skilled operatives in the Sao Paulo area are individually and as a group in a good bargaining position.

The sample was drawn from the January, 1961 payroll. The payroll carried the job title and hourly rate of each worker. Of the 1687 operatives on that payroll, 962 were qualified specialists. These included mechanics, coil winders,

joiners, polishers, electricians, locksmiths, carpenters, painters, and many other specialties. A small number of border line cases (apprentices or helpers with a high hourly rate) were counted as skilled workers.

Field work began in March with two independent samples totalling 201 cases. In the first days of March there was a brief strike in protest over a company ruling requiring workers to carry visible identification tags (during working hours) indicating the section of the plant in which they work, The matter was successfully negotiated within the space of a few days. During that month, 18 of the 201 workers in our sample were separated from the company. An examination of the monthly figures for separations going back over all of 1960 and the first months of 1961 indicated that this number of separations was not unusual and was probably not importantly related to the strike. To compensate for the 18 separations and for an additional 16 who were working on company projects in other cities (mainly in Brasilia), an additional independent sampling of 30 cases was drawn from the same January payroll.

Workers were individually interviewed on company time in the cafeteria by trained interviewers who were clearly identified as having no connection with the company. Except for a check-off by an interviewing superviser as a sample control, the respondent was not asked further to identify himself and was assured of the anonymity of his responses. A great part of the sampling loss occurred in the final

sample of 30 cases, when it was no longer possible to interview during company time because of the disruption in work schedules occasioned by the interviewing. The effort to interview those workers just before or just after going on shift was only partially successful (See Sample C below).

	Sample A	Sample B	Sample C
Completed	83	77	13
Separated from Co.	8	10	-
Unavailable (out of Sao Paulo on Co. business)	8	8	-
Transferred to white collar job	1	-	-
Refused	2	4	8
Failed to report for interview	-	-	7
Incomplete interviews	-	-	2
	102	99	30

Favelados

The sample of favelados presented the greatest technical difficulties because of the almost total absence of reliable guides for establishing a probability base for selection of sampling sites, households, or respondents. No one really knows how many favelas there are in Rio nor how many people live in favelas. The job of mapping even one of the major favelas was far beyond the resources of the project and not really necessary, since the aim was not to get precise estimates of attitudes in the favela population but rather to contrast favela views with those of other social levels in Brazil.

BRAZIL

In 1960 UNESCO'S Latin American Social Research Center in Rio de Janeiro identified 132 favelas on aerial maps of the city. Of those, 20 were chosen at random for field work on a Center project. The present sample is drawn from five favelas in turn selected at random from among the 20 originally in the UNESCO sample. Forty interviews were carried out in each; thirty with men and ten with women. According to 1950 census estimates the favela population is about half male and half female the median age for the population 15 year and older in both groups being about 30 years. Men were over-sampled in the present case to ensure sufficient numbers for comparing male favelados with skilled workers and managers. The women serve as a check on male responses and provide an opportunity to estimate overall sentiment on questions where there are sharp differences by sex. Interviewers thus worked with sex and age quotas, interviewing three men to every woman and alternating persons above and under thirty years of age. Care was also taken to spread the interviews out over each favela so that they were not concentrated in the most accessible areas.

Primary and Secondary School Teachers

The samples of primary and secondary school teachers were drawn from pay rosters provided by the Ministry of Education covering all public primary schools and liceos in Santiago. The objective was to bring within the universe sampled all primary schools and liceos giving full time instruction to children of school age. That is, liceos and primary schools giving evening instruction principally to adults were excluded. Within the schools, only individuals whose main function is teaching were included. School principals, inspectors, persons giving religious instruction, and some offering art and music courses (unless they had a teaching degree) were excluded. Teachers working in more than one school were counted as "half a case" on the assumption that few of them would work in more than two schools, thus gaining an advantage in terms of probability of entering into the sample.

Once the lists had been cleared according to the above criteria, about 250 cases were chosen at each level using a fixed interval from a random starting point. The resulting samples departed by as much as four per cent from the universe in distributions by sex, years of service, or type of teaching degree held with respect to only one category among secondary teachers. A sub-sample of those cases not reached after a minimum of three attempts has been taken but was not completed in time to be included in the present

analysis. The results of the sampling operation are shown in the following table.

SAMPLE PERFORMANCE: PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

	Primary	Secondary
Number designated for interview	249	252
Interviews completed	193	201
Not located	39	33
Refusals	11	5
Moved or out of town	4	5
Deceased or ill	2	1
In sample twice	-	4
Incomplete interviews	-	3

University Professors

The lists of professors, especially that for the Catholic University, were not as satisfactory as those for teachers at lower levels. They were, nevertheless, the most complete listings that university officials were able to provide. The lists erred principally in having out-dated addresses for some professors and in carrying some individuals no longer connected with the University. Though there is no sure way of estimating omissions from the list, the number cannot be very large.

All individuals denominated as "docentes" were included in the lists from which the samples were drawn. Teaching assistants were systematically excluded, even if they held

degrees from a school other than that in which they were currently studying and serving as teaching aides. Again, a sub-sample was taken from among those cases not located after a minimum of three calls and an intensive drive made to get these cases as an estimate of the population not reached. These interviews were not completed in time to be processed for this analysis.

SAMPLE PERFORMANCE: UNIVERSITY PROFESSORS

	University of Chile	Catholic University
Number designated for interview	124	130
Interviews completed	84	84
Not located*	28	29
Refusals	7	3
Moved or out of town	2	9
Deceased or ill	-	2
No longer teaching	-	3
Dropped from sample**	2	-

*A sub-sample of those originally not located was obtained and provides an estimate for this group (refer to text).

**The two are a Cabinet Minister not actively teaching and a research specialist who participated in the planning and sample design for the survey.

Exact Sciences

In the study of professional training in Argentina, three groups in each profession were studied: first year students in the University of Buenos Aires, last year students in the University of Buenos Aires, and graduates resident in the Federal Capital as distinct from Greater Buenos Aires.

In the Faculty of Exact and Natural Sciences of the National University of Buenos Aires, only students following the course work toward degrees in mathematics, physics, and the combined physics and mathematics program were chosen. Students with fewer than four approved courses completed were considered to be in the first year; they totalled 188, half of whom were randomly chosen as a sample. Last year students were defined as those with over ten courses passed; since they totalled 73, all were interviewed. The Faculty maintains an up-to-date file of graduates, from among whom were chosen those resident in Buenos Aires who had completed the degree work in the three fields indicated. All of the 84 graduates were included in the target sample.

Determined efforts were made to reach all cases, but complete success was obtained only in the case of last year students, all 73 of whom were interviewed. Performance in the Exact Sciences sampling may be summarized as follows:

SAMPLE PERFORMANCE: EXACT AND NATURAL SCIENCES

	First Year	Last Year	Graduates
Number designated for interview in available lists	94	73	84
Interviews completed	71	73	57
Address unknown	4	-	7
No reply to letter requesting interview, letter not returned, address not verified	16	-	-
Refused	-	-	1
Out of town temporarily or moved	1	-	19
All other reasons	2	-	-

Economic Sciences

The samples for these studies were all drawn from lists maintained by the Faculty of Economic Sciences administrative office. Unfortunately the records were not well-kept and were far from being up-to-date. Once again only students were chosen for the first year sample who appeared to be truly embarked on their studies in a way viewed as normal within the University, and persons were considered as being in their last year only if they could reasonably hope to finish during the course of the academic year involved.

The final list compiled included 8,245 persons in the first year of their studies in economics. Using a sampling interval of 41, two hundred names were drawn in a single sample. Of this total, 158 interviews were completed. As

usual, a minimum of three calls was made for each case, and individuals were visited in their homes if they did not respond to the requests for an interview. Special care was taken in every case to discover the reasons for the failure to elicit an interview.

Two samples were drawn for last year students, one from a June, 1960 listing containing 1,988 names. Of these, 196 were chosen using a sampling interval of ten. One hundred thirty-five interviews were completed in this sample.

After the initial work with the samples demonstrated difficulties with the file system, the Faculty attempted to update the records. The number then considered by the Faculty to be immediately preparing for graduation was reduced to 1,420; persons already interviewed were removed from this number, and a sample of 99 cases drawn using an interval of 13 from a random starting point. Only one invitation was sent to this sample, and interviewing was stopped after the first 49 cases had been completed, which brought the total number of interviews among the graduating seniors to 184.

The list of graduates totalled 2,978 residents in Buenos Aires. Of this number 199 were drawn using an interval of 15; a total of 181 interviews was completed.

SAMPLE PERFORMANCE: FACULTY OF ECONOMIC SCIENCES

	First Year	Last Year*	Graduates
Number designated for interview on available lists	200	196	199
Interviews completed	158	135	181
Address unknown	13	19	12
Abandoned studies	16	1	-
Already graduated	7	24	-
Out of town temporarily or moved	6	7	4
Rejections	-	5	-
All other reasons	-	5	2

*A second sampling of 99 cases was drawn from an updated listing after the completion of this first sample. The first 49 from among these 99 who presented themselves for interview were accepted and no further follow up was made with the remaining cases.

Medical Sciences

Medicine presented the greatest technical difficulties in Argentina because of the poor condition of all the files used. The result was a far greater number of unexplained failures than in either of the other two faculties, indubitably because of two factors: great doubt as to whether individuals had abandoned their studies or not, and massive inaccuracy of the addresses and telephone numbers on record. In any event, a list was compiled of 1,963 students who had

passed their entrance examinations or had passed through the pre-introductory year, and seemd to be serious students. Of this number we took a first sample of 200 using a fixed interval and a random starting point, and a second sample of 101 by the same method. Graduating seniors were defined as persons with 25 courses completed, numbering a little over 1,600. Once again two samples were selected, the first of 201 cases, the second of 95.

Graduate physicians were selected from a list maintained by the Ministry of Public Health of all those physicians in the Federal Capital permitted to issue prescriptions. This list, too, was very much out-of-date; parts of it had not been corrected for fifteen years. The following table summarizes the sample results.

SAMPLE PERFORMANCE: MEDICAL SCHOOL

	First Year	Last Year	Graduates
Number designated for interview on available lists	301	296	279
Interviews completed	230	196	200
Address unknown	10	34	29
No reply to letter requesting interview, letter not returned, address not verified	38	24	-
Already graduated	-	27	-
Refused	3	1	19
Out of town temporarily or moved	1	5	18
Deceased or ill	-	-	13
All other reasons	19	9	-

The Congress

The Congressmen in the sample were selected from the official lists of the memberships of both the upper and lower chambers in Mexico. The Senate numbers 60, the Chamber of Deputies, 159. The sample was a straight 50 per cent selected by choosing every other name on both lists, yielding 30 Senators and 79 Deputies, a total of 109.

A total of 96 interviews was completed, including 23 Senators and 73 Deputies.

THE INDEX OF SOCIAL MOBILITY

APPENDIX B:

Two principal problems were faced in the construction of an index of social mobility. The first was clearly to establish in conceptual terms what would constitute social mobility for the kinds of groups we were sampling, and the second was the devising of a practical procedure for determining mobility in every case.

The fact that our sample groups included such disparate social elements in the several countries meant that the complexities posed by the problem of defining and measuring the effects of the process of movement across class lines were dramatically present in our minds from the beginning. It was clear that however we chose to identify the socially mobile in the various samples, they would be different in a variety of important ways. They would differ in their class of origin and the class to which they had risen (or descended). Mobility, presumably, would mean something different to the son of a Brazilian tenant farmer who becomes a mechanic in a Sao Paulo elevator plant than for the son of an immigrant storekeeper in Argentine who becomes a physician. Mobile individuals would differ as well in the chief means of ascent -- whether through education, an accumulation of savings that made possible the beginning of a small business, or through dedicated work leading to successive promotions in business or government service. The study groups also included individuals at a variety of

life stages -- some who were clearly in terminal occupations, others whose careers plainly showed continued prospects for social advance and a conscious orientation toward seeking further gains. For some the experience of social ascent was a private, competitive struggle in fields with restricted opportunity; others were part of a substantial mass swept along in a broad current of economic expansion.

These considerations led to the formulation of an idea of mobility more fluid than is conventionally applied in surveys of this kind, and also to a search for a variety of meanings or effects of the experience of mobility in connection with education and development. An occupational classification was devised that distributed all occupations into a five-point scale of prestige potential. The five-point prestige scale cut across separate occupational situses,[1] each of them clustering at different positions on the scale, a few covering the full range. (Refer to charts at end of this Appendix.) The various criteria for occupational ranking (e.g., remuneration, educational requirements, social usefulness, etc.) are presumed to have different weights within each situs. However, equivalent rankings within situses are also presumed to mean approximately equal rank in the society at large. An individual was considered mobile upward if he had moved occupationally into a vocational sphere with a higher prestige potential than that of

1. We acknowledge our indebtedness to the work of Robert North and Paul K. Hall in this respect.

his father. The individual might not have fully realized the potential in his occupation; the important consideration was that he had moved into a social position that meant a significant expansion of opportunities for social rewards in comparison with his family of origin.

This approach to mobility involves, of course, a number of assumptions that cannot be defended in detail here. It assumes that occupations can be ranked with respect to the prestige they potentially command, that groups of quite different occupations can be regarded as roughly equivalent with respect to prestige potential, and that the groups that our classification distinguishes actually have in effect different "ceilings" in prestige, so that a move from one position to another means a significant expansion of prestige potential. No time was available for the kind of extended empirical testing required to validate all of these assumptions and to demonstrate their applicability in the four survey countries. The classification offered represents an effort based on the knowledge and experience of the writers, and must stand or fall at this point on the basis of its internal logic and the results it produces.

Since in most cases the survey groups were defined occupationally, their position on the scale of prestige potential was fixed and uniform. In these circumstances, the prestige level of the father's occupation served directly as an index of mobility for respondents. For example, in Chile the primary and secondary school teachers

as "community professionals" both fall into the middle position (score 3) on the prestige scale. Thus those whose fathers had occupations at levels 1 or 2 were considered downwardly mobile, while those whose fathers had level 3 occupations were considered stable. The incidence of individuals with fathers in level 4 or 5 occupations was negligible, but these would have constituted the upwardly mobile contingent. A similar procedure was followed with university professors in Chile, the students and professionals in Argentina, and the Mexican legislators. These are all occupations very high in prestige potential. In all these groups, respondents with fathers in occupations at levels 1 or 2 were classified as stable with regard to mobility and all others as upwardly mobile.

In those cases where the survey group was itself heterogeneous with respect to occupational prestige level, a cross-tabulation had to be carried out between respondents' and fathers' prestige scores. For example, among favelados in Brazil an appreciable number of skilled and white collar workers along with a sprinkling of proprietors of small businesses had in effect risen socially above their fathers, albeit modestly. In the favelas were found as well a small proportion who had begun life in better circumstances, although again usually only a step above the level 4 and 5 occupations in which almost all favelados cluster. Similarly, the managers who had completed the intensive course offered by the Fundação Getulio Vargas, though concentrated

in top level positions, were also found to include some men still in the second echelons of management or in small though modernly oriented enterprises. A few on the list appeared to be aspirants to managerial positions seeking to better their chances for promotion, rather than fully active executies. After examining the variant cases carefully, income was used to divide the managers into three groups -- those in the highest range (above 80,000 cruzeiros a month) were classed as 1's in occupational prestige potential, those between 60 and 80,000 cruzeiros were classed as 2's, and the small number earning less than 60 were considered 3's. This classification was then cross tabulated with the fathers' prestige scores to discriminate the three mobility groups. Table VII in the series for each country shows the mobility distributions for the various samples.

SCALE OF OCCUPATIONAL PRESTIGE POTENTIAL (PART I)

Prestige Scale	PROFESSIONALS	ARTS, COMMUNICATIONS AND ENTERTAINMENT	INDUSTRY AND COMMERCE	POLITICAL
(1)	Liberal professions Sciences and humanities (professors in universities or independent scholars)	Fine artists (painters, writers, composers, sculptors) National celebrities	Proprietors or directors of large scale enterprises of national or regional importance	Elected or appointed government or party officials at national level
(2)	Applied scientists in government or industry	Writers artists reporters, directors, in mass media but not technicians	Proprietors or directors of large local enterprises Union leaders at national level Middle level administrative personnel in large scale enterprise, national or regional	Elected or appointed government or party officials at state, provincial, or metropolitan level
(3)	Community professionals (pharmacists, social workers, teachers below university level)	Sports and other entertainment occupations except celebrities	Small businessmen Local Union leaders White collar workers Skilled workers	Local elected or appointed government and party officials (mayors, councilmen)
(4)		Circus, carnival, amusement park, street performers	Semi-skilled workers	
(5)			Unskilled workers	

SCALE OF OCCUPATIONAL PRESTIGE POTENTIAL (PART II)

Prestige Scale	MILITARY	RELIGIOUS	AGRICULTURE, FISHING, AND HUSBANDRY	SERVICES
(1)	Marshals, admirals, and general officers	Cardinals and archbishops	Proprietors of large farms or ranches	
(2)	Majors and colonels	Bishops and monsignore	Proprietors of medium sized ranch, farm, or orchard (with commercial production) Managers and administrators of large farms, ranches, or plantations	High administrative posts in national government or major state or provincial government
(3)	Non-commissioned officers	Parish priests, nuns, monks, and brothers		White collar workers in government Middle level administrative posts in local federal, state, or municipal services
(4)	Enlisted men and recruits		Independent subsistence farmer	Local government service workers (police, firemen, mailmen) Specialized and semi-specialized service workers (barbers, barmen, dry cleaners)
)			Tenants, squatters, farm laborers	Unskilled workers in government or services Domestics

THE INDEX OF NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION

APPENDIX C:

Time did not permit the careful construction of a scale for the attitude dimension that is being called "national identification." A great many of the items in the questionnaire were designed to tap various aspects of the generalized disposition to accept the state as the arbiter of conflict, as the highest institutionalized secular authority. Since it was not possible to carry out a careful item analysis in time for this report, a number of arbitrary choices had to be made in the construction of the tentative index used here. Despite its limitations, the index revealed differences in the directions anticipated among the major sample groups in all countries. The differences <u>within</u> samples were less clear-cut, but almost all of the statistically reliable differences by national identification support the contention that a particular kind of orientation to the national community and state is closely linked to development values.

Four approximately parallel items were used in each country for this preliminary index of national identification. The first of the items is included as an indicator of support for the state as arbiter of conflict in an area where a strong competing authority, the Church, claims primacy. In Brazil, Argentina, and Chile respondents were asked whether they favored or opposed divorce for those persons who desired it. In Mexico, where civil divorce already

exists, the question used asked respondents whether they favored or opposed state financial support for religious educational institutions.[1]

The second set of items sought to gauge the disposition to accept the right of the state to impose certain social obligations or controls on action within occupational roles. Professionals (physicians, scientists, and economists in Argentina and the educators in Chile) were asked whether control of the profession should lie exclusively with the practitioners themselves or to some degree within the state. Brazilian managers, skilled operatives and favelados answered with respect to government interference in labor conflicts. In Mexico, a legislator was accounted as positive on national identification if he placed the capacity to analyze national problems from an independent viewpoint above loyalty to party or to other interest groups.

The third item in the index was practically identical everywhere and tested acceptance of state control or direction of the economy.

The final question was different from others in the index in that it did not test acceptance of state authority in a particular sphere, but rather sought to capture something of the general feeling tone of this acceptance. Responses to an open question about the most appropriate ways to celebrate holidays commemorating national independence was used for this purpose. Responses calling for a genuine

1. The exact wording of the questions used in each country is given at the end of this appendix.

renewal of loyalty to national values or for some practical contribution to national or community progress were rated as indicative of "national identification," as contrasted with more traditional "patriotic" type answers.

The general procedure was to dichotomize responses to each of the four items just described and assign a value of one to a "national identification" answer and a value of zero to all others. All of the items thus have equal weight. Scores on the index range from zero to four. Because of the small size of the samples the five index scores were further grouped into three categories. High (four or three), Medium (two), and Low (one or zero).

In the list of questions below the responses marked with asterisks are those which were considered positive for "national identification."

QUESTION ITEMS INCLUDED IN INDEX OF NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION

A. Church versus State (affirmative answers "positive" for index)

(Argentina and Chile) "Do you believe in divorce for those who desire it?"

(Brazil) "Do you favor or oppose divorce?"

(Mexico) "Do you believe the establishment of schools and universities sponsored by religious groups should be allowed in Mexico?"

B. Occupation and State

(Argentina and Chile) "With which of the following phrases do you most agree?"

a. The control of the exercise of the profession should be in the hands of private professional associations

* b. The control of the exercise of the profession should be in the hands of mixed agencies composed of professionals and delegates of the appropriate ministry.

* c. The control of the profession is a state responsibility.

(Brazil Managers and Workers) "Which of these phrases best describes what ought to be the situation of the labor unions whose work vitally affects the national interest?"

a. They should have complete liberty to carry on their relations with employer groups

* b. They should submit their demands to the mediation and conciliation of government representatives before coming to final decisions.

* c. They should accept the decisions of the Ministry of Labor on all labor issues.

(Mexican Congress) "This is a list of qualities which might describe the action of a legislator. Please indicate the relative importance you ascribe to each, by giving each a number between one and five, the most important getting number one and the least important number five.

* a. Intellectual capacity for analyzing national problems from an independent point of view.

b. Loyalty to party

c. Loyalty to the interests of the state he represents

d. Loyalty to the interests of his own sector within his party

e. Attention to the problems of those who elected him.

(Mexican intellectuals) "What do you consider your most significant contribution in your field of specialization? What makes you feel that way?"

Two types of answers were counted as positive for the index those indicating the contribution was considered important primarily in terms of its significance in the solution of a social or community problem and those which weighed the contribution chiefly as a step forward for the national culture or science.

C. Economy and the State

(All countries) "With which of these phrases do you most agree?"

a. The economic sector should develop without any state intervention.

* b. The state should intervene in the economic sector only when private enterprise is in trouble.

* c. It is the state's responsibility to control the economy in accord with the national interest.

(Brazil Favelados) "In your opinion should commerce and industry:

a. Have complete freedom of action?

b. Have some government supervision?

c. Be controlled by the government?

D. National Independence Celebrations

(Argentina and Chile) "What in your judgment would be the most appropriate way to celebrate (national independence date)?

a. Participating in some public commemoration.

b. Treating the day like any patriotic or religious holiday.

c. Treating the day like any other day of rest.

d. Other answers and comments

(Brazil and Mexico) "What in your judgment would be the most appropriate way to celebrate (national independence date?)

* In both cases, responses that volunteered the idea of making some practical contribution to the nation or community or that called for a genuine, internal renewal of national feeling rather than for conventional ceremonial were considered positive on national identification.