

MARITAL STATUS AND EMPLOYMENT HISTORY:
IMPACT ON ATTITUDES AND
MORAL REASONING

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The emergence of industrialization as a way of life during the time period of 1750 to 1850 influenced the structure of the family as no other single event before or since (Oakley, 1974a). Prior to industrialization, the primary source of economic existence was the family business. Each family worked together to provide whatever labor was necessary to sustain the family. Children were considered as economic advantages for they contributed to the family business. The provision of food was regarded as the shared responsibility of husband and wife, and the role of "housewife" was nonexistent (Oakley, 1974b). The emergence of the role of housewife coincides historically with the emergence of an industrialized society.

As industrialization forced family members to leave the home in order to provide economic sustenance, the previously shared roles of home and child care were left to the member(s) who remained in the home (Oakley, 1974b). Generally, the man provided the income and woman cared for the home and children. Work became separate from family life and the family was no longer a productive unit. One member became the occupation holder while the other tended to the work of the family. From a historical perspective, "(t)he doctrine that woman's place is in the home is peculiarly the product of a period in which man had been lately displaced from the home as his workplace" (Hamilton, 1947, p. 315).

The nineteenth century brought further changes in the way women were viewed. Women were idealized during this Victorian period and were seen as essentially devoid of sexuality (i.e., "pure"). Thus, in Oakley's view, women who worked were flaunting their sexuality and were, therefore, viewed as immoral or vulgar (Oakley, 1974b). Femininity and employment were seen as mutually exclusive. This separation of work from the concept of the ideal female led to relegation of housework to hired servants and the idleness of a man's female dependents as one indication of prosperity (Dudden, 1983). This widespread use of domestic help freed women to spend more time with their children, which had become fewer in number due to economic restraints and advances in health care (i.e., higher infant survival rate). Consequently, woman's role became increasingly one of devoted attention to husband, children and home (Dudden, 1983; Oakley, 1974b). The role definition of the housewife continued to be shaped by the rapid changes occurring within the society.

With the outbreak of the First World War in 1914 came increasing opportunities for women. The war

. . . brought to women a dramatic opportunity to function directly-- rather than through the medium of the family--in vocations, sexual and political--community roles. It was as Mary Doe and Susie Roe, rather than as Mrs John Doe or Mrs Susie Roe, that women were called into service (Nottingham, 1947, p. 667).

The Victorian views of women's roles were shattered by the necessity of women in the paid work force. Although the number of women in the work force increased dramatically, the numbers decreased when the war effort was over (Oakley, 1974b). However, enough women had for the first time (as a direct result of the war) found fulfillment in their labors that a trend was begun, at least for a new group of nonmarried women, of seeking paid employment. By the

late 1930s, publications were beginning to appear designed to aid "girls" in securing and maintaining employment (Alsop & McBride, 1941; Maule, 1941). The overwhelming view, however, was that women or "girls" who worked must do so in addition to the still sacred duties of the housewife:

I do think a girl ought to assume full responsibility (sic) for the running of the household, and otherwise do everything she can to make her man feel that he isn't missing anything on the home side of his life by having married a wife with a job outside the home. If she can make him feel that she's a better manager--even a better cook--than the wives of his friends who don't work, the first thing she knows he'll be boasting to his friends about how much more interesting she is as a wife because, not being all tangled up in domesticity, she has so many stimulating outside interests. The main thing is the mental attitude on both sides. If that is right, man and girl (underline added) can usually come together on the 'practical arrangements' (Maule, 1941, p. 268).

Maule expresses well the dilemma of a woman caught between the needs of self, children and husband. It was acceptable for a woman to work outside the home, have children, run a home, and tend to her husband's needs--as long as she did all of them well. Those women who insisted upon employment in the paid work force generated heated debate about the effects on husband, children, and society in general (Maule, 1941).

According to Cox and Cox (1984), over the past 50 years the participation of women in the labor force has increased from 38% to 55% of the total female population. During the same period, participation of married women in the labor force has risen from 11% to 49% of the married female population--a 380% increase. This change has been reflected in the research on women's issues and

the family conducted in recent years. Researchers have focused attention on working mothers and their children (Guttman, 1983), working wives and their marriages (Krause, 1983; Ross, Mirowsky, & Huber, 1983), working women and affirmative action (Huckle, 1983), working women and fertility (Rosenberg, 1983), depression in housewives versus working women (Krause, 1983; Ross, Mirowsky, & Huber, 1983), stereotypes facing working women (Collins & Waters, 1979; Fabian, 1972; Miller & Garrison, 1982), need fulfillment in housewives versus working women (Betz, 1984), and a myriad of other issues related to women in the workplace. The women's movement has generated debate as to the differences between men and women in the areas of motivation to work (Redgrove, 1984), ability to supervise/manage (Schein, 1973, 1975), and basic sex-role differences (Bass, Krusell, & Alexander, 1971; Terborg, Peters, Ilgen, & Smith, 1977).

Statement of the Problem

The increased number of married women in the paid labor force has had an impact on the traditional family system by increasing the number of families in which both adults are employed full-time (Rapoport & Rapoport, 1978). Recent research on women's issues has mirrored these changes. Men and women in many types of work have served as subjects in research projects examining the various effects on society of greater numbers of women in the work force; yet, the research in this area has not focused on husband and wife units.

The primary focus of much of the research has been differences in attitudes between various groups of men and women. A more recent trend has been a focus on differences in moral decision-making. This research will examine the attitudes toward women in general, the attitudes toward women as managers, and the method of dealing with moral dilemmas in couples where the

wife works at home (i.e., homemaker) and couples where the wife works outside the home. The purpose for collecting and examining this information will be to determine whether differences exist among four groups: (a) women who do not work in the paid labor force, (b) husbands of women who do not work in the paid labor force, (c) women who work in the paid labor force, and (d) husbands of women who work in the paid labor force. This research is designed to answer the following question: What differences in attitudes toward women, attitudes toward women as managers, and method of solving moral dilemmas exist among women who work in the paid labor force and women who do not work in the paid labor force and the husbands of women in both groups?

Significance of the Study

In a 1982 study of how women deal with difficult issues such as abortion and other life-and-death issues, Gilligan provided an understanding of how men and women differ in their methods of dealing with these issues. According to Gilligan, women's focus on interpersonal issues results in a different perspective on moral problems than that provided by men's focus on individuation issues (Gilligan, 1982). This becomes important in view of Kohlberg's levels of moral development, where women usually fall one to two levels below men. Kohlberg has suggested that women's movement into the traditional working environment will decrease the discrepancy in levels of moral development between women and men (Kohlberg, Levine, & Hewer, 1983); therefore, one would expect to find within a marital relationship different views of moral issues, depending on the wife's choice whether to work outside the home. To date, there is no research addressing the issue of whether a wife's choice to work outside the home will affect: (a) the degree to which she may resolve moral issues differently from

her husband, and (b) the degree to which she may resolve moral issues differently from women choosing to work outside the home.

While both men and women have been used as subjects in the research focusing on women's issues, husbands and wives have seldom been researched as marital units. There appears to be no attempt to research the effects of the increased labor participation by married females on husbands and wives in marriages where women choose to work outside the home compared to those marriages where women choose to work at home. It is unclear whether attitudes vary from marriage to marriage or whether the spouse's similar or dissimilar attitudes have any relationship to the wife's attitudes and choice of work.

By gathering data from married women who work in the paid labor force, from married women who do not work in the paid labor force, and from the husbands of both groups, the issues of the correlation or relationship between a woman's choice of work and the attitudes of both husband and wife will be addressed. This information will contribute to knowledge of women's issues as they are related to spouses' similar or dissimilar attitudes. In addition, the information will be useful in understanding the interaction among work, attitudes, and moral development.

Limitations of the Study

The following limitations are inherent in this study:

1. Since the data gathered were from volunteers, the sample cannot be considered a random sample.
2. The generalizability of the results will be limited to the specified characteristics of the participants in the area from which the sample was drawn.
3. It is possible that respondents self-selected based on some criterion

not known to the researcher. This would place additional limits on the usefulness and generalizability of the results.

Definition of Terms

Women Not In the Paid Labor Force. This group was defined as women who were not employed outside the home at the time the research was conducted.

Women In the Paid Labor Force. This group was defined as women who were currently employed full- or part-time outside the home at the time the research was conducted.

Attitudes Toward Women. Attitudes toward women is defined as scores on the Attitudes Toward Women Scale (AWS). The AWS is a summated rating scale designed to assess attitudes toward the rights and roles of women in contemporary society. Scores range from 0 (extremely conservative) to 75 (extremely liberal).

Attitudes Toward Women as Managers. Attitudes toward women as managers is defined as scores on the Women as Managers Scale (WAMS). The WAMS is a summated rating scale designed to measure attitudes toward women as managers in a business organization. Higher scores indicate more favorable attitudes and lower scores indicate less favorable attitudes.

Method of Solving Moral Dilemmas. Method of solving moral dilemmas is defined as scores on Rest's Defining Issues Test (DIT). The DIT consists of six stories presenting various moral dilemmas. Scores range from 0 to 95 and indicate the relative importance an individual gives to principled moral considerations in making a decision about moral dilemmas.

Hypotheses

Based on the importance of issues raised but not resolved by research

conducted in this area, the data collected were used to test the following hypotheses:

1. There will be significant differences among women not in the paid labor force, women in the paid labor force, and the husbands of both groups in their attitudes toward women in general:
 - a. Women in the paid labor force will be less conservative than women not in the paid labor force in their attitudes toward women in general.
 - b. Women in the paid labor force will be less conservative than the husbands of both groups, while women not in the paid labor force will be more conservative.
 - c. There will be less difference between women in the paid labor force and their husbands than between women not in the paid labor force and their husbands toward women in general.
2. There will be significant differences among women not in the paid labor force, women in the paid labor force, and the husbands of both groups in their attitudes toward women as managers:
 - a. Women in the paid labor force will have more positive attitudes than women not in the paid labor force.
 - b. Women in the paid labor force will have attitudes which more closely resemble those of the husbands of both groups, than those of women not in the paid labor force.
 - c. There will be less difference between women in the paid labor force and their husbands than between women not in the paid labor force and their husbands toward women as managers.
3. There will be significant differences among women not in the paid labor force, women in the paid labor force, and the husbands of both groups in

the importance given to principled moral considerations in making a decision about moral dilemmas:

- a. Women in the paid labor force will give more consideration than women not in the paid labor force.
- b. The amount of consideration given by women in the paid labor force will more closely resemble the amount given by the husbands of both groups than the amount given by women not in the paid labor force.
- c. In consideration given to principled moral considerations there will be less difference between women in the paid labor force and their husbands than between women not in the paid labor force and their husbands.

Organization of the Study

Chapter I presents the history of the research problem, the significance of the study, and a statement of the research problem. This chapter ends with the hypotheses tested by the research. A review and discussion of literature relating to the research hypotheses is presented in Chapter II. This literature review is followed by Chapter III containing an explanation of the methods utilized in collecting and analyzing the data. This chapter also includes a discussion of the sample and the instruments used. The results of the data analyses are presented in Chapter IV. In Chapter V, the research findings are summarized, conclusions stated, and recommendations for further are indicated.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

A review of recent literature indicates a increasing interest in attitudes towards women's issues and the emergence of dual career couples as an alternative to more traditional marriages. The research appears to be reflecting society's increased sensitivity to the impacts of a rapidly changing world. Specifically, the increasing numbers of women in the paid work force have had an impact on the structure of the nuclear family and have altered the gender ratio in the work force. This chapter reviews the recent literature in three areas: (a) general attitudes toward women, (b) attitudes toward women as managers, and (c) adult moral development. A summary of the major findings of the three areas concludes the chapter.

General Attitudes Toward Women

One result of the influx of women into the paid work force has been the emergence of research projects dedicated to measuring attitudes toward women. Shaffer and Wegley (1974) used a 2x2x2 factorial to measure the attractiveness of competent women. High versus low success orientation and masculine versus feminine sex-role preference were presented in four stimulus females and rated on attractiveness using the Interpersonal Rating Form. When 48 male and 48 female undergraduate psychology students were presented with a description and resume of the stimulus females, the students preferred competent females expressing feminine sex-role preferences over competent females expressing

masculine sex-role preferences. Both males and females preferred those women who were more traditionally feminine; however, when asked to express a preference in the role of employer, subjects indicated greater willingness to hire competent females expressing masculine sex-role preferences than competent females expressing feminine sex-role preferences. Thus, competent females are perceived as more attractive if the female stereotype is preserved, yet they are less likely to be offered employment. The differences in attractiveness were significant based on: (a) gender of the subject, with males expressing a stronger desire than females to work with competent females, (b) whether the competent females were viewed as potential employees, and (c) whether the competent females were more masculine or feminine in their sex-role preference.

The results of the Shaffer and Wegley (1974) study indicate that undergraduate men and women view competent women differently. The sex-role stereotypes that exist in this population have an effect on attitudes toward females. Similar results were demonstrated by Petro and Putnam (1979) in their study of school counselors' sex-role stereotypes. Petro and Putnam explored the assumption that sex-role attitudes of school counselors would differ significantly from the original sample used to norm the Sex-Role Stereotype Questionnaire seven years earlier. Among 173 school counselors from urban and suburban public schools in New York, male counselors were found to disagree more frequently with the prior sample's perceptions than the female counselors. The male counselors held fewer traditional (more liberal) attitudes and beliefs about sex roles than did their female counterparts. No information was provided about marital status of the subjects, so it is uncertain what variables contributed to the male counselors' more liberal views.

The importance of considering marital status as it relates to attitudes toward women is pointed out by Margolin, Talovic, Fernandez and Onarato (1983)

in their discussion of sex-role considerations in behavioral marital therapy. According to Margolin et al. (1983), marital therapists must be sensitive to sex-role issues for individual couples in order to help couples change roles rather than change within roles. In their discussion of the tenets of behavioral marital therapy, Margolin et al. states that ". . . sex role issues must be examined for their impact on the relationship" (p. 141). As sex-role issues impact the marital relationship, it is possible that the marital relationship has equal impact on sex-role issues. Accordingly, marriage and family therapists need a greater understanding of sex-roles and women's issues in order to provide unbiased therapy. The therapist's own views must not be allowed to influence relationships of clients.

In order to examine any sex-role bias in marriage and family therapists, Hare-Mustin and Lamb (1984) surveyed 65 mental health professionals in community-based programs for adolescents. A total of 15 of the mental health professionals specialized in family therapy and 50 did not. There were significant differences between the two groups on the Attitudes Toward Women Scale and The Motherhood Inventory, with family counselors having more liberal attitudes. Within both subgroups, the women's attitudes were more liberal than the men's--a direct contrast to the Shaffer and Wegley (1974) study--indicating that sex-role stereotypes exist among those professionals trained as counselors. Since those professionals dealing primarily with marital and family therapy exhibit more favorable attitudes toward women, the question of an interaction between marriage and attitudes is again raised.

The literature focusing on attitudes toward women indicates that men and women generally differ in their attitudes toward women. Men and women's attitudes toward women differ based on: (a) Whether the observed women have a masculine or feminine sex-role preference (Shaffer & Wegley, 1974); (b) whether

the observed women are viewed as individuals, employees, or co-workers (Shaffer & Wegley, 1974); (c) the profession of the observers (Hare-Mustin & Lamb, 1984); and (d) the gender of the observers (Hare-Mustin & Lamb, 1984; Petro & Putnam, 1979; Shaffer & Wegley, 1984). Although there are inferences that one's marital status (Margolin et al., 1983) and attitudes toward marriage (Hare-Mustin & Lamb, 1984) may interact with one's attitudes toward women, the relationship has not been specifically researched.

Attitudes Toward Women as Managers

The growth of the female work population has focused research interest on the attitudes toward women in the workplace and in positions of authority, in addition to attitudes toward women in general. Business and professional populations were used as subjects in many research projects designed to measure attitudes toward women with reference to work. Bass, Krusell, and Alexander (1971) surveyed 174 males employed full-time in business or industry in order to assess attitudes of male managers and staff personnel toward women working. Administration of a 56-item questionnaire requiring responses of strongly agree, agree, uncertain, disagree, or strongly disagree, yielded the highest agreement among subjects on items indicating that women are not dependable, are incapable of supervising, and should be treated differentially. In their discussion of the results, Bass et al. (1971) state that ". . . the problem seems to be that societal norms do not sanction the placement of women in dominant positions" (p. 233). Classification of the date in terms of the managers' level of interaction with women (none, subordinate, peer, superior) indicated that men who did not work with women had more positive regard for women than the men who did.

Schein (1973), in the first of two studies on sex-role stereotypes and requisite management characteristics, confirmed her hypothesis that successful

middle managers are perceived to possess characteristics, attitudes, and temperaments more commonly ascribed to men than to women. A total of 300 male middle managers rated either women in general, men in general, or successful middle managers on 92 descriptive terms. Those subjects aged 49 and older had a higher rate of similarity between women in general and successful middle managers, indicating a positive attitude toward women as managers. The positive attitudes of those subjects aged 49 and older was attributed to their longevity in the workplace and their corresponding actual experience with working women. This is in direct conflict with the findings of Bass et al. (1971) who found that men who had worked with women had more negative attitudes.

In 1975, Schein replicated her 1973 study using 167 female middle managers. As was found with the male sample, the results confirmed the hypothesis that successful middle managers are perceived to possess characteristics, attitudes, and temperaments more commonly ascribed to men than to women. Even though the sex-role stereotypes affecting perceived managerial effectiveness are slightly less likely to occur in female middle managers than in male middle managers, both men and women have stereotypic views of women as professionals.

Two years after Schein's replication of her original study, Terborg, Peters, Ilgen, and Smith (1977) attempted to validate a scale designed to measure attitudes toward women as managers. Using a cross-section sample of 180 male and female employees, Terborg et al. found that females expressed significantly more favorable attitudes toward women as managers than the males. Those females with the highest education tended to have the most favorable attitude toward women as managers. Age and marital status were not appreciable contributors to the attitudes of the subjects.

Since later research--such as that by Collins, Waters, and Waters (1979)--supported the findings by Terborg et al. (1977), it seems possible that the changes taking place in society were reflected in attitudes toward women as managers. In the Collins et al. (1979) study, the Women as Managers Scale and the Bem Sex-Role Inventory were administered in mixed-sex groups to 117 male and 222 female undergraduate students enrolled in lower division courses in psychology. Females had significantly more positive attitudes toward women as managers than males. A Pearson r of both the Women as Managers Scale and the Bem Sex-Role Inventory indicated a significant relationship between sex-role orientation and attitudes toward women as managers. As males become more masculine-stereotyped and females become more feminine-stereotyped, their attitudes toward women as managers become less favorable. Collins et al. found that those women choosing the more traditionally stereotyped female work role of housewife could be predicted to have less favorable attitudes toward women as managers than those women choosing a less traditional work role. This raises the question whether men who choose a less traditional marital arrangement would also have more favorable attitudes toward women.

Powell and Butterfield (1979) added a new dimension to the measurement of what makes a good manager by differentiating between masculine managers and androgynous managers. Powell and Butterfield hypothesized that a good manager would be seen as androgynous (possessing both masculine and feminine characteristics) and tested their hypothesis by administering the Bem Sex-Role Inventory (BSRI) to 685 business students. The subjects were asked to complete the BSRI twice: once to describe themselves and once to describe a good manager. The results indicated an overwhelming preference for masculine managers rather than androgynous or feminine managers by both the males and the females. Although over 50% in each sex group preferred the masculine

manager, there was a tendency to define a good manager as the subjects defined self. Within the androgynous self-group, there was a preference for androgynous managers; analogous results were found for the masculine and feminine self-groups. According to the results obtained by Powell and Butterfield, one's perception of self affects one's perceptions of the characteristics necessary for a good manager.

Research focusing on attitudes toward women as managers and women in the work force have shown that: (a) women generally have more favorable attitudes toward women as managers (Collins et al., 1979; Schein, 1973, 1975); (b) sex-role stereotypes held by both sexes equate the good manager with traditionally masculine qualities (Powell & Butterfield, 1979; Schein, 1973, 1975); (c) one's view of one's own sex-role has an impact on attitudes toward women as managers (Collins et al., 1979; Powell & Butterfield, 1979); and (d) women who choose more traditional stereotyped work roles tend to have less favorable attitudes toward women as managers (Collins et al., 1979). Most of the research is five to fifteen years old and may not reflect current attitudes. In addition, none of the research on attitudes toward women as managers involves husbands and wives in order to determine: (a) whether attitudes within more versus less traditional marriages are similar for husband and wife, or (b) whether attitudes between more versus less traditional marriages are similar for husbands and wives.

Adult Moral Development

The majority of the research on gender differences in moral development has been conducted with children and adolescents, although there are some notable exceptions. Haan, Smith, and Block (1968) administered a paper-and-pencil version of the Kohlberg Moral Judgment Scale to 516 subjects composed

of college students and Peace Corps volunteers undergoing training. After classifying the subjects into five moral types (Level 1 was omitted) based on their responses to moral dilemmas, the groups were analyzed according to self and ideal descriptions, political-social behavior, family background, and perceptions of mother and father. The women in group 5--principled moral thinking at its highest level--described themselves as guilty, doubting, restless, impulsive, and not feminine. Both men and women in this group described themselves as autonomous, interpersonally responsive, and self-expressive. Analysis of family background for this group indicated that a conflict with mother is positively related to moral maturity in females while a curvilinear relationship exists for males. For males, intense family conflict (especially with the father) is positively related to the lower levels of moral thinking, mild family conflict to the higher levels. The application made by Haan et al. of this data indicates that ". . . the development of an autonomous, principled morality may be a more difficult task for girls because it involves conflict with the culturally defined feminine role" (p. 197).

A more in-depth examination of Haan et al.'s findings indicates a possible relationship between the self-descriptions of the principled females and their memory of conflicts with mother. The terms "guilty," "doubting," and "not feminine" (p. 199) may be the result of the remembered mother-daughter conflicts. If so, those women who remember having the most conflict with their mothers may have reached a higher level of moral development because of the separation from their mothers, and yet retain feelings of guilt because they chose to differ with their mothers. The results of the Haan et al. study indicate that both men and women at the highest levels of moral reasoning have had significant conflict with the same-sex parent. The men, however, do not attribute feelings of guilt to the parental conflict.

In her book entitled In a Different Voice, Gilligan (1982) addresses the apparent disparities in the moral development of men and women. She begins by examining the landmark studies conducted by Kohlberg in 1968 in which he determined that there are six moral states. Gilligan points out that Kohlberg's initial research (and much of his subsequent research) was conducted exclusively with male subjects and may be biased. According to Gilligan, Kohlberg's original work began with an acceptance of Piaget's concept of morality as justice and of moral development as movement toward autonomy. Gilligan proposes a second moral orientation of beneficence and care and states that this orientation is the morality of most females. This expands the concept of morality into two related but separate concepts--the ethic of care and the ethic of justice. It is Gilligan's assertion that these two ethics comprise, separate, gender-differentiated tracks of moral development and that Kohlberg's method of determining level of moral development measures the justice ethic.

In a 1983 publication by Kohlberg, Levine, and Hewer, a response to Gilligan is presented along with revisions and expansions of Kohlberg's theory of moral development. According to Kohlberg et al., Gilligan's conceptualization of an ethic of care is an important addition to the concept of moral development. It is not, however, a separate form of moral development. Kohlberg et al. quote a 1982 review by Walker of 68 studies of moral development. In this review, Walker (1982) found that of 11 studies examining sex differences in moral reasoning in adulthood, four significant differences favoring men were reported. The studies that reported significant differences controlled for neither education nor occupation; therefore, gender was confounded with educational attainment and/or occupational differences. In addition, most of the female samples were comprised of housewives. Kohlberg et al. summarize Walker's review by stating that ". . . the only studies showing fairly frequent sex differences are those of

adults, usually of spouse housewives" (p. 129). Although the use of techniques such as step-down regression analyses can statistically control for occupation and education, Kohlberg et al. suggest that studies controlling for these variables are better suited to examine sex difference.

Two doctoral dissertations are cited by Kohlberg et al. in which males and females were matched on education, job status, and responsibility. The subjects were (a) kibbutz males and females aged 12 to 24 in Snarey's study (1982), and (b) male and female graduate students in Weisbroth's study (1972). The egalitarian framework of the first group was cited as the reason for finding no significant difference between the sexes. The matched education and occupational aspiration in the second group was credited for similar findings. By presenting these studies, Kohlberg et al. support their view that males as well as females use both the care and justice ethics:

Given these results as well as Kohlberg's general contention that amoral Stages 4 and 5 depend upon a sense of participation, responsibility, and role-taking in the secondary institutions of society such as work and government, then it appears necessary to control for such factors as education and employment when assessing sex differences in the use of advanced stages of justice reasoning (Kohlberg et al., 1983, p. 129).

Returning to the findings of Haan et al. (1968), one observes that the men and women using the highest level of moral reasoning were matched on education and reported conflict with the same-sex parent, yet described themselves differently. Gilligan's (1982) explanation for this difference is the ethic of care: Since women prefer to preserve relationships rather than exact justice, a high level of justice morality as measured by Kohlberg's Moral Judgment Scale would be ego dystonic. Kohlberg et al. (1983), however, state that both the ethic of

justice and the ethic of care are used by men and women and are adequately measured by the Kohlberg instrument. No mention is made by Kohlberg et al. as to self-descriptions by men or women at any stages. In addition, most of the studies using female subjects involve college students or housewives.

One can conclude from the research on adult moral development that research is needed to more closely examine the moral reasoning of women. Specifically, research is needed to compare females who are housewives to females who are not housewives. There is research supporting the hypothesis that females who are housewives and females who are not housewives will differ in moral reasoning. These two groups are also cited in the literature as possessing different attitudes toward women in general and toward women as managers, possibly due to sex-role stereotypes. For that reason, the present study is designed to assess any interaction among these three variables (attitudes toward women, attitudes toward women as managers, and level of moral development) in married women who are housewives and married women who in the paid work force. In addition, the husbands of these two groups will be measured on the same three variables in order to determine whether there are gender differences and, if so, whether they are related to one's marital partner's attitudes and/or moral reasoning.

Summary

A review of research dealing with women's issues has indicated that women have a more favorable attitude than men toward women in general and toward women as managers. It is less clear what factors contribute toward this difference, since marital status and work history have not been adequately represented. In addition, discrepant results have been reported for men's attitudes toward women in business. In some studies, men who have experience

working with women report negative attitudes, while in other studies the same group of men report positive attitudes. The effect of marital status on this difference has not been researched. It is possible that a marital partnership in which the wife works may have an effect on the husband's attitudes--or may alter the wife's attitudes. For that reason, research involving married couples with working and nonworking wives may be a valuable contribution to existing literature on attitudes of men and women.

In the area of moral judgment and moral decision-making, women are described in the literature as being less sophisticated. Whether this is due to a difference in gender-based perspective or to work experience is still debated. For that reason, further research is indicated. It is especially important to utilize both working women, nonworking women, and their husbands to determine whether any differences in moral decision-making are related to gender, work experience, or some combination.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This chapter includes a description of the subjects used in this research, as well as a description of the instruments used to gather the data. A full explanation of the procedure used in collecting the data is followed by a discussion of the research design and data analyses.

Subjects

Married couples from a suburban city in the southwestern United States comprise the subjects for this study. In half of the couples, the wives work at home as a housewife. In the remaining couples, the wives are employed in the paid labor force and work outside the home. Volunteers were solicited from a pool of 450 couples composed of members and spouses of eight professional and business clubs (i.e., AMBUCS, Kiwanis, University & Professional Women, Women's Club, Chamber of Commerce, etc.). Eighty-four couples responded by returning completed inventories. In 40 of the couples, the wife worked in the paid labor force; in the remaining 44 couples, the wife did not work in the paid labor force. The subjects ranged in age from 22 to 79, with a mean age of 47. Educational attainment ranged from attainment of a high school diploma to attainment of a doctoral degree, with a mean educational level of some graduate hours, but less than a master's degree. Couples varied in their marital status with some couples married less than one year and others married 52 years. The mean number of years married was 22.8.

Instrumentation

The Attitudes Toward Women Scale

The Attitudes Toward Women Scale (AWS) was designed by Spence and Helmreich (1972) to measure attitudes toward the rights and roles of women in contemporary society. The AWS was used in this study to measure these attitudes among married women who are housewives, married women who are in the paid labor force, and the husbands of both groups.

The original AWS consisted of 55 items which can be categorized into six theme areas: (a) vocational, education, and intellectual roles; (b) freedom and independence; (c) dating, courtship and etiquette; (d) drinking, swearing, and dirty jokes; (e) sexual behavior; and (f) marital relations and obligations (Beere, 1979). Items were included that described "roles and patterns of conduct in major areas of activity in which men and women were, in principle, capable of being granted equal rights" (Spence & Helmreich, 1972, p. 3). After some preliminary analyses which led to revising, eliminating, and adding items, a 78-item version of the scale was administered to 100 college students. Item analyses and factor analyses were performed on the responses. The results of the statistical analyses and some judgmental factors resulted in the elimination of three items from the scale. Therefore, a 15-item instrument was developed based upon this instrument for the purpose of comparing scores across groups and ease of administration (Spence, Helmreich, & Strapp, 1973). The 15-item instrument has a correlation of .91 with the 55-item version and was therefore used as the instrument in this study.

The AWS items consist of declarative statements to which four response alternatives are possible: agree strongly, agree mildly, disagree mildly, and disagree strongly. Scoring for this instrument involves assigning a number from

zero to three to each item with zero reflecting a traditional, conservative attitude and three reflecting a liberal pro-feminist attitude. A final score is derived from summing the values for the individual items yielding possible scores from 0 to 100.

Validity. Researchers have compared groups of respondents and obtained results consistent with expectations. Spence and Helmreich (1972) report that college students scored significantly higher than their parents. Lunneborg (1974) obtained significant differences between samples drawn from the North and from the South of the U.S. Numerous demographic indices (e.g., church affiliation, major, grade point average, marital status, race, size of town, mother employed, religiosity, number of children) have significantly predicted AWS scores (Beach & Kimmel, 1976; Etaugh, 1975a). Evidence of construct validity is derived from the successful results of studies using interventions designed to change attitudes toward women's roles, with these changes being measured by the AWS (Canty, 1977; Fiedler & Loeffler, 1977; Lunneborg, 1974).

Scores on the Belief Pattern Scale for Measuring Attitudes Toward Feminism (Beere, 1979), which provided the basis for the development of the AWS, were correlated with scores on the AWS in order to determine construct validity. The correlation for 37 men was .86; the correlation for 39 women was .87; and the correlation for the combined group was .87 (Doyle, 1975). The correlation between scores on the AWS and scores on the Equalitarian Sex Role Preference Scale (Beere, 1979), a measure of attitudes toward male-female sex role equality, was .90 for a sample of 30 boys and 30 girls (Kirsch, Shore, & Kyle, 1976).

Reliability. Test-retest reliabilities, with an average interval between testings of 3.8 months, were .93 for 61 college women and .92 for 52 college men (Etaugh, 1975b). Test-retest reliabilities for three groups of college women,

with a three-month interval between testings, were .85, .89, and .88 (Canty, 1977).

Corrected split-half reliability based on the responses from 294 college students was .92 (Stein & Weston, 1976). The corrected split-half reliability based on 27 ninth graders was .80 (Grant, 1977). The corrected split-half reliability based on 22 ninth graders who were taking the test for the second time was .86 (Grant, 1977).

Women As Managers Scale

The Women As Managers Scale (WAMS) was designed by Peters, Terborg, and Taynor (1974) to measure attitudes toward women as managers in a business organization. The WAMS was used in this study to measure these attitudes among married women who are housewives, married women who work in the paid labor force, and the husbands of both groups.

The WAMS was compiled from a pool of 55 items representing two general areas: (a) "general descriptive traits/behaviors of managers" and (b) "female-specific stereotypes thought to represent carriers to the successful integration of women into managerial positions" (Peters, Terborg, & Taynor, 1974, p. 5). Some of the 55 items were selected from existing scales, and others were written by the authors. Each of the items was written in two ways: for one form of the item, agreement would reflect a positive attitudes; for the other form of the item, agreement would reflect a negative attitude. Two forms of the test were then constructed and administered to 541 college students. Items were omitted if they: (a) did not differentiate between persons holding significantly different attitudes; (b) consistently elicited different responses based on direction of the stem; or (c) did not have a minimum, distinct loading of .40 on a principle components analysis (Peters, Terborg, & Taynor, 1974).

The 21 items which currently comprise the WAMS were used in this study. Ten of the items are phrased to reflect a positive attitude toward women and eleven are phrased to reflect a negative attitude. Using a 7-point Likert-type scale, response options are: strongly disagree, disagree, slightly disagree, neither disagree nor agree, slightly agree, agree, and strongly agree. The 21 items represent three factors: (a) general acceptance of females as managers, (b) feminine barriers to full-time, permanent employment, and (c) personality traits usually ascribed to managers (Beere, 1979). Low scores indicate less favorable attitudes toward women as managers and high scores indicate more favorable attitudes toward women as managers.

Validity. Using the results from 541 college students, Peters, Terborg, and Taynor (1974) computed separate means for males and females on each of the factor scores and on the total score. In every comparison, means for females were significantly more positive than means for males. Matteson (1976) and Terborg, Peters, Ilgen, and Smith (1977) also found significant differences between the responses of men and women. Both studies reported that significantly more positive attitudes were expressed by women.

Peters, Terborg, and Taynor (1974) correlated scores on the WAMS with responses to a question asking about attitudes toward the women's rights movement. The correlation for males was .54 and the correlation for females was .42.

Terborg et al. (1977) examined the relationship between the WAMS and degree of career commitment. The correlation was consistent with the prediction that women who had greater career commitment would have more positive attitudes on the WAMS.

Reliability. The corrected split-half reliability for the 541 college students completing the scale was .91 (Peters et al., 1974). The split-half,

corrected reliability for a sample of 280 full-time employees was .92 (Terborg et al., 1977).

Defining Issues Test

The Defining Issues Test (DIT) was designed by Rest to ". . . tap the basic conceptual frameworks by which a subject analyzes a social-moral problem and judges the proper course of action" (Rest, 1979b, p. 5.1). The DIT was used in this study to measure differences on a developmental continuum among married women who are housewives, married women who work in the paid labor force, and the husbands of both groups.

The DIT is composed of six stories describing different social-moral problems. Each story is followed by twelve considerations to be rated as of great importance, much importance, some importance, little importance, or no importance in dealing with the presented problem. The DIT is based on the developmental theory of Kohlberg and assumes a developmental continuum of moral development. Although Rest based his instrument on a developmental framework similar to that of Kohlberg, the stages measured by the DIT cannot be assumed to have an exact correlation with Kohlberg's stages (Rest, 1979). The stages described by Rest, while not synonymous with Kohlberg's stages, are comparable. Scoring for the DIT consists of determining weighted ranks for six stages in order to indicate the relative importance of considerations at each stage in handling social-moral problems. A rank is assigned for Stages 2, 3, 4, 5A, 5B, and 6. A "P" score is derived from the sum of the weighted ranks of Stages 5 and 6. This P score represents ". . . the relative importance a subject gives to principled moral considerations in making a decision about moral dilemmas" (Rest, 1979, p. 5.2) and ranges from 0 (no importance) to 95 (great importance).

Validity. In a sample of 1,080 ninth grade, high school, and college students, statistically significant differences were found among groups of subjects divided according to age and education (Rest, Cooper, Coder, Masanz, & Anderson, 1974). Subjects' scores on the DIT increased as age and education level increased. Doctoral students in moral philosophy and political science served as an "expert group" and were found to have significantly higher scores than either ninth grade, high school, or college students.

The DIT averages a correlation of .50 with various versions of Kohlberg's test and with the Comprehension of Moral Concepts test (Rest, 1979, p. 6.5). Other measures of validity include a low "fake good" index (Rest, 1979, p. 6.6) indicating that subjects cannot score above their actual level of moral development, and a longitudinal measure (Rest, Davison, & Robbins, 1978) indicating significant upward trends over four to six years with three to four testings.

Reliability. Davison and Robbins (1978) reviewed studies using the DIT and found test-retest reliabilities in the .70 to .80 range for the P index. Internal consistency was determined for 1,080 students (Rest et al., 1974). The alpha for the P index was .77.

The objective scoring of the DIT and the single form negate any need for interjudge reliability or alternate forms reliability. Since the six stories were written to tap different social-moral problems, split-half reliability is inappropriate (Rest, 1974).

Demographic Data Sheet

In addition to the AWS, WAMS, and the DIT, subjects were asked to complete a Demographic Information Sheet. The information requested related to gender, age, level of education, number of years married, and annual income.

Additional information was requested regarding number and ages of children. Since the information utilized from the Demographic Information Sheet was factual information, no reliability or validity trials were performed.

Procedure

Members of eight business and professional groups were asked to participate in the study. At a regularly scheduled meeting time, the members were given a packet containing: (a) a cover letter explaining the study (see Appendix A), (b) two copies of the three instruments (Appendix B, C, D), (c) two requests for informed consent (Appendix E), and (d) two requests for demographic information [(age, educational attainment, income) (Appendix F)]. The members were asked to complete one set of the instruments and to elicit their spouse's cooperation in completing the second set. A self-addressed, stamped envelope was provided to send the completed packet to the researcher by return mail.

Informed consent was obtained by having each subject read and sign a consent statement. Each member who took a packet was asked to provide a name and address on a 3x5 index card. These cards provided information needed to send a follow-up mailing to all subjects within one week. The mailing thanked those who had returned their packets and served as a reminder to those who had not. Of the 115 packets taken, 91 were returned. This indicated a response percentage of 79%. Seven couples were dropped due to incomplete packets, leaving a total sample of 84 couples (a response rate of 73%).

Research Design and Data Analyses

The research was constructed as a causal-comparative study since there was no manipulation of any form of the independent variable to create a

difference in any dependent variable. The groups used were established groups and were not created or randomly selected for the purpose of the research project.

The results from each instrument were analyzed using the One-Way Analysis of variance test (ANOVA) of the SPSS-X which is designed to determine whether there are significant differences among the means of the four populations from which the samples were drawn. The One-Way ANOVA was used because the data collected was score data. Three ANOVAs were performed, one for each instrument. Where significant differences were found among the four groups, Tukey's Honestly Significant Difference (HSD) was used to identify the pair or pairs of population means which were significantly different. An experiment- wise error rate of .05 was set for significance in these analyses.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present the results of the statistical analyses of the data collected in this study. Three specific hypotheses were tested using the attitudes and the level of moral reasoning of married couples in which the wife is or is not employed outside the home. In general, the study was designed to determine if, according to their attitudes and level of moral reasoning, the husbands of women in the paid labor force, the husbands of women not in the paid labor force, the women in the paid labor force, and the women not in the paid labor force were different in terms of: (1) their general attitudes toward women, (2) their attitudes toward women who occupy managerial roles, and (3) their level of moral reasoning.

Test of Hypotheses

Hypothesis One: There will be no significant differences among women in the paid labor force, women not in the paid labor force, and the husbands of each group in their attitudes toward women in general. The results of the One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) reported in Table 1 reveal that there are significant differences ($F=2.60$, $df=3,163$, $p < .05$) among the four groups. Tukey's Honestly Significant Difference (HSD) test for unequal Ns was used to determine which groups were significantly different from one another. The

results indicated that the husbands of women not in the paid labor force were significantly ($q=3.63$, $df=124$, $p < .05$) more traditional and conservative in their attitudes than were the women in the paid labor force. No other differences were found to be significant. Therefore, hypothesis one is rejected when the responses of women in the paid labor force and the husbands of women not in the paid labor force are considered.

Table 1

Analysis of Variance, AttitudesToward Women Scale

| Source of Variation | Sum of Squares | DF | Mean Square | F | Significance of F |
|---------------------|----------------|-----|-------------|-------|-------------------|
| Subject Groups | 793.434 | 3 | 264.478 | 2.972 | 0.033 |
| Explained | 793.434 | 3 | 264.478 | 2.972 | 0.033 |
| Residual | 14507.799 | 163 | 89.005 | | |
| Total | 15301.234 | 166 | 92.176 | | |

Hypothesis Two: There will be no significant differences among women in the paid labor force, women not in the paid labor force, and the husbands of each group in their attitudes toward women as managers. The results of the One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) reported in Table 2 reveal that there are significant differences ($F=3.60$, $df=3,163$, $p < .05$) among the four groups. Using

Tukey's HSD to determine which groups were significantly different from one another revealed two significant differences. The attitudes toward women as managers demonstrated by the women in the paid labor force were significantly ($q=3.63$, $df=124$, $p < .05$) more favorable than those demonstrated by both groups of husbands. That is, the women in the paid labor force showed significantly more favorable attitudes toward women as managers than both their own husbands ($p < .05$) and the husbands of women not in the paid labor force ($p < .05$). Thus, hypothesis two is rejected when the responses of women in the paid labor force, the husbands of women in the paid labor force, and the husbands of women not in the paid labor force are considered.

Table 2

Analysis of Variance, WomenAs Managers Scale

| Source of Variation | Sum of Squares | DF | Mean Square | F | Significance of F |
|---------------------|----------------|-----|-------------|-------|-------------------|
| Subject Groups | 2200.728 | 3 | 733.576 | 2.941 | 0.035 |
| Explained | 2200.728 | 3 | 733.576 | 2.941 | 0.035 |
| Residual | 40652.122 | 163 | 249.400 | | |
| Total | 42852.850 | 166 | 258.150 | | |

Hypothesis Three: There will be no significant differences among women in the paid labor force, women not in the paid labor force, and the husbands of each group in their level of moral reasoning. A comparison of the scores among the four groups using the One-Way Analysis of Variance indicates that there are no statistically significant differences ($F=2.60$, $df=3,163$, $p > .05$) in the level of moral reasoning among the populations from which the samples were drawn. Therefore, hypothesis three is not rejected. Results of the One-Way ANOVA are presented in Table 3.

Table 3
Analysis of Variance,
Defining Issues Test

| Source of Variation | Sum of Squares | DF | Mean Square | F | Significance of F |
|---------------------|----------------|-----|-------------|-------|-------------------|
| Subject Groups | 304.832 | 3 | 101.611 | 2.002 | 0.116 |
| Explained | 304.832 | 3 | 101.611 | 2.002 | 0.116 |
| Residual | 8271.324 | 163 | 50.744 | | |
| Total | 8576.156 | 166 | 51.664 | | |

Additional Analyses

Using the data collected from the demographic sheets, three additional

ANOVAs were performed for each instrument. The four groups of subjects were collapsed for the purposes of these additional analyses. Scores of the subjects on the Attitudes Toward Women Scale, the Women as Managers Scale, and the Defining Issues Test were examined for significant differences by age, by level of education, and by number of years married. Testing for interactions among the four groups (women in the paid labor force, women not in the paid labor force, and husbands of both) based on age, education, and years married was not possible due to the unequal cell means.

When the total sample of 168 subjects was divided into age categories of 21 to 35 years, 36 to 50 years, 51 to 65 years, and over 65 years, statistically significant differences were found (using a One-Way ANOVA) among the four age categories on the Attitudes Toward Women Scale ($p < .001$), on the Women as Managers Scale ($p < .001$), and on the Defining Issues Test ($p < .001$), all at $F=4.83$, $df=3,163$. The results of the One-Way ANOVAs are presented in Table 4. Tukey's HSD was used to determine which pair(s) differed significantly from one another on each instrument. Regarding attitudes toward women, the over 65 group was found to have significantly more conservative and traditional attitudes than the 21 to 35 group ($q=4.40$, $df=124$, $p < .01$) and the 36 to 50 group ($q=3.63$, $df=124$, $p < .05$). The same significant differences were found in attitudes toward women as managers with the over 65 group having significantly less favorable attitudes toward women as managers than the 21 to 35 age group ($p < .01$) and the 36 to 50 group ($p < .05$). Similarly, the over 65 group showed a significantly lower level of moral reasoning than the 21 to 35 group ($p < .01$) and the 36 to 50 group ($p < .05$). Thus, age of the subjects from the populations represented contributed to consistent and statistically significant differences on all three instruments.

Table 4
Analysis of Variance, Age Groups

| Source of Variation | Sum of Squares | DF | Mean Square | F | Significance of F |
|-------------------------------------|----------------|-----|-------------|--------|-------------------|
| <u>Attitudes Toward Women Scale</u> | | | | | |
| Age Groups | 1855.364 | 3 | 618.455 | 7.497 | 0.000 |
| Explained | 1855.364 | 3 | 618.455 | 7.497 | 0.000 |
| Residual | 13445.870 | 163 | 82.490 | | |
| Total | 15301.234 | 166 | 92.176 | | |
| <u>Women As Managers Scale</u> | | | | | |
| Age Groups | 4960.245 | 3 | 1653.415 | 7.112 | 0.000 |
| Explained | 4960.245 | 3 | 1653.415 | 7.112 | 0.000 |
| Residual | 37892.605 | 163 | 232.470 | | |
| Total | 42852.850 | 166 | 258.150 | | |
| <u>Defining Issues Test</u> | | | | | |
| Age Groups | 1823.919 | 3 | 607.973 | 14.677 | 0.000 |
| Explained | 1823.919 | 3 | 607.973 | 14.677 | 0.000 |
| Residual | 6752.236 | 163 | 41.425 | | |
| Total | 8576.156 | 166 | 51.664 | | |

The second additional analysis involved collapsing across the four groups of subjects and placing them into categories of highest level of formal education. Subjects were identified as having (1) a high school diploma, (2) some college hours, (3) a bachelor's degree, (4) graduate hours, (5) a master's degree, or (6) a doctoral degree. Three One-Way ANOVAs (see Table 5) indicated statistically significant differences among the six educational groups on the Attitudes Toward Women scale ($F=2.60$, $df=3,163$, $p < .05$), the Women as Managers Scale ($F=4.83$, $df=3,163$, $p < .001$), and on the Defining Issues Test ($p < .05$). The results of the Tukey's HSD used to determine which pair(s) were significantly different on each instrument revealed that, regarding attitudes toward women, those people with some graduate hours but less than a master's were significantly ($q=3.63$, $df=124$, $p < .05$) more conservative and traditional than the subjects with some college hours but less than a bachelor's degree. Regarding attitudes towards women in managerial positions, those people with some college hours had significantly less favorable attitudes than those people with bachelor's degrees ($q=5.17$, $df=124$, $p < .001$), those people with master's degrees ($p < .001$), and those people with doctoral degrees ($p < .001$). Subjects with doctoral degrees were found to assign significantly more importance to principled moral considerations (i.e., operate at a significantly higher level of moral decision-making) than either the subjects with a high school diploma ($p < .05$) or the subjects with some college hours ($p < .05$).

The third additional analysis collapsed the four groups of subjects and then placed them into one of four categories, depending upon the years married. The first group had been married for 15 years or less; the second groups had been married from 16 to 30 years; the third group, from 31 to 45 years; and the fourth group, from 46 to 52 years. Three One-Way ANOVAs (see Table 6) indicated that in their attitudes toward women, those subjects married 46-52 years showed

Table 5

Analysis of Variance, Education Groups

| Source of Variation | Sum of Squares | DF | Mean Square | F | Significance of F |
|-------------------------------------|----------------|-----|-------------|-------|-------------------|
| <u>Attitudes Toward Women Scale</u> | | | | | |
| Education Groups | 1206.324 | 5 | 241.265 | 2.756 | 0.020 |
| Explained | 1206.324 | 5 | 241.265 | 2.756 | 0.020 |
| Residual | 14094.909 | 161 | 87.546 | | |
| Total | 15301.234 | 166 | 92.176 | | |
| <u>Women As Managers Scale</u> | | | | | |
| Education Groups | 6524.199 | 5 | 1304.840 | 5.783 | 0.000 |
| Explained | 6524.199 | 5 | 1304.840 | 5.783 | 0.000 |
| Residual | 36328.651 | 161 | 225.644 | | |
| Total | 42852.850 | 166 | 258.150 | | |
| <u>Defining Issues Test</u> | | | | | |
| Education Groups | 748.948 | 5 | 149.790 | 3.081 | 0.011 |
| Explained | 748.948 | 5 | 149.790 | 3.081 | 0.011 |
| Residual | 7827.208 | 161 | 48.616 | | |
| Total | 8576.156 | 166 | 51.664 | | |

Table 6
Analysis of Variance, Number of
Years Married Groups

| Source of Variation | Sum of Squares | DF | Mean Square | F | Significance of F |
|-------------------------------------|----------------|-----|-------------|--------|-------------------|
| <u>Attitudes Toward Women Scale</u> | | | | | |
| Number of Years Married Groups | 1211.654 | 3 | 403.885 | 4.672 | 0.004 |
| Explained | 1211.654 | 3 | 403.885 | 4.672 | 0.004 |
| Residual | 14089.579 | 163 | 86.439 | | |
| Total | 15301.234 | 166 | 92.176 | | |
| <u>Women As Managers Scale</u> | | | | | |
| Number of Years Married Groups | 3218.352 | 3 | 1072.784 | 4.412 | 0.005 |
| Explained | 3218.352 | 3 | 1072.784 | 4.412 | 0.005 |
| Residual | 39634.499 | 163 | 243.156 | | |
| Total | 42852.850 | 166 | 258.150 | | |
| <u>Defining Issues Test</u> | | | | | |
| Number of Years Married Groups | 1407.460 | 3 | 469.153 | 10.667 | 0.000 |
| Explained | 1407.460 | 3 | 469.153 | 10.667 | 0.000 |
| Residual | 7168.695 | 163 | 43.980 | | |
| Total | 8576.156 | 166 | 51.664 | | |

significantly less favorable attitudes than those subjects married 0-15 years ($F=2.60$, $df=3,163$, $p < .05$) and those subjects married 16-30 years ($p < .05$). Regarding attitudes toward women in managerial positions, those subjects married 31-45 years have significantly ($p < .05$) less favorable attitudes than those subjects married 0-15 years. Using Tukey's HSD, four pairs of significant differences were found among the four groups on level of moral decision-making. The subjects married 0-15 years have significantly higher levels of moral decision-making than both those subjects married 31-45 years ($q=3.63$, $df=124$, $p < .05$) and those subjects married 46-52 years ($q=5.17$, $df=124$, $p < .001$). The group of subjects married 16-30 years also have significantly higher levels of moral decision-making than both the 31-45 years group ($p < .05$) and the 46-52 years group ($p < .001$).

The means and standard deviations for the subject groups for the Attitudes Toward Women Scale, Women as Managers Scale, and the Defining Issues Tests are presented in Table 7. The means and standard deviations for non-gender-related variable groups for the Attitudes Toward Women Scale, Women as Managers Scale, and the Defining Issues Test are presented in Table 8.

Table 7

Means and Standard Deviations of Subject Groups

| | | Attitudes Toward Women Scale | | Women As Managers Scale | | Defining Issues Test | |
|----------------------------------------------------|------|---------------------------------|------|----------------------------|-------|-------------------------|------|
| | | Mean | S.D. | Mean | S.D. | Mean | S.D. |
| <u>Subject Groups</u> | | | | | | | |
| Women Not In Paid Labor Force | N=44 | 79.77 | 9.58 | 122.82 | 16.07 | 20.37 | 7.17 |
| Husbands of Women Not In Paid Labor Force | N=44 | 76.41 | 9.58 | 119.91 | 16.07 | 21.98 | 7.17 |
| Women In Paid Labor Force | N=40 | 82.50 | 9.58 | 129.05 | 16.07 | 23.55 | 7.17 |
| Husbands of Women In Paid Labor Force | N=40 | 79.00 | 9.58 | 120.20 | 16.07 | 23.70 | 7.17 |

Table 8
Means and Standard Deviations of
Non-Gender-Related Variables

| | | Attitudes Toward Women Scale | | Women As Managers Scale | | Defining Issues Test | |
|-------------------------------------------|------|---------------------------------|------|----------------------------|-------|-------------------------|------|
| | | Mean | S.D. | Mean | S.D. | Mean | S.D. |
| <u>Age Groups</u> | | | | | | | |
| 21-35 | N=44 | 83.41 | 9.58 | 129.14 | 16.07 | 24.02 | 7.17 |
| 36-50 | N=60 | 79.77 | 9.58 | 125.67 | 16.07 | 24.73 | 7.17 |
| 51-65 | N=24 | 79.75 | 9.58 | 115.75 | 16.07 | 22.92 | 7.17 |
| 65+ | N=39 | 74.00 | 9.58 | 116.56 | 16.07 | 16.46 | 7.17 |
| <u>Education Groups</u> | | | | | | | |
| High School | N= 4 | 71.00 | 9.58 | 107.00 | 16.07 | 14.50 | 7.17 |
| Less Than Bachelors | N=24 | 82.92 | 9.58 | 126.50 | 16.07 | 20.17 | 7.17 |
| Bachelors | N=33 | 80.88 | 9.58 | 128.61 | 16.07 | 21.79 | 7.17 |
| Less than Masters | N=26 | 74.92 | 9.58 | 110.77 | 16.07 | 22.92 | 7.17 |
| Masters | N=51 | 80.04 | 9.58 | 123.61 | 16.07 | 22.06 | 7.17 |
| Ph.D. | N=29 | 78.72 | 9.58 | 126.00 | 16.07 | 25.90 | 7.17 |
| <u>Number of Years Married Groups</u> | | | | | | | |
| 0-15 | N=74 | 81.39 | 9.58 | 126.89 | 16.07 | 23.99 | 7.17 |
| 16-30 | N=41 | 80.17 | 9.58 | 124.00 | 16.07 | 24.59 | 7.17 |
| 31-45 | N=30 | 77.77 | 9.58 | 117.50 | 16.07 | 19.67 | 7.17 |
| 46-52 | N=22 | 73.32 | 9.58 | 115.77 | 16.07 | 16.36 | 7.17 |

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The purpose of this study was to determine whether marital status and employment affect attitudes toward women in general, attitudes toward women as managers, and moral reasoning. The variables were operationally defined by scores on the Attitudes Toward Women Scale, the Women as Managers Scale, and Rest's Defining Issues Test, respectively. Using the One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), the goal of the research was to determine whether there were statistically significant differences among women who work outside the home, their husbands, women who do not work outside their home, and their husbands on the variables operationally defined as scores on the three instruments above. In addition, the variables of age, number of years married, and number of years of education were also examined for statistically significant differences on the three instruments measuring attitudes toward women in general, attitudes toward women as managers, and level of moral reasoning.

The subjects of this study were 84 couples in which one spouse was a member of one of eight social service organizations (i.e., AMBUCS, Kiwanis, University and Professional Women, Women's Club, Chamber of Commerce, etc.) in a suburban area of a large city in the Southwest. Couples participated on a volunteer basis. In 44 of the couples, the wife was employed outside the home; in the remaining 40 couples, the wife was not employed. It was hypothesized

that there were no significant differences among the four groups of subjects on: (a) attitudes toward women in general, (b) attitudes toward women as managers, and (c) level of moral reasoning. Three One-Way ANOVAs were performed and an experiment-wise alpha level of .05 was used.

A statistically significant difference ($p < .05$) was found in attitudes toward women between the employed wives and husbands of the non-employed wives with the former group having less traditional and conservative attitudes toward women than the latter. When age, education, and number of years married were examined (collapsing across the four groups of subjects), additional statistically significant differences were found. Those subjects over age 65 had significantly more conservative and traditional attitudes than the subjects ages 21 to 35 ($p < .001$) and the subjects ages 36 to 50 ($p < .05$). Those subjects who had some graduate hours but less than a master's degree had significantly more traditional and conservative attitudes toward women than did the following groups of subjects: subjects with some college hours but less than a bachelor's degree ($p < .01$), subjects with a bachelor's degree ($p < .001$), subjects with a master's degree ($p < .01$), and subjects with a Ph.D. ($p < .01$). Those subjects who had been married 46-52 years had significantly less favorable attitudes than those married 0-15 years ($p < .01$) and those married 16 to 30 years ($p < .05$).

A statistically significant difference was also found in attitudes toward women as managers among employed wives, husbands of employed wives, and husbands of non-employed wives. Employed wives had significantly ($p < .05$) more favorable attitudes toward women as managers than both their own husbands (husbands of employed wives) and the husbands of non-employed wives. When age, education, and number of years married were examined (collapsing across the four groups of subjects), additional statistically significant differences were found. Those subjects over age 65 had significantly less favorable attitudes

than subjects 21-35 years of age ($p < .01$) and those subjects 36-50 years of age ($p < .05$). Subjects 21-35 years of age had significantly more favorable attitudes toward women as managers ($p < .01$) than subjects 57-65 years of age. With regard to education, those subjects with some graduate hours but less than a master's degree had significantly less favorable attitudes toward women as managers than the following groups of subjects: subjects with some college hours but less than a bachelor's degree ($p < .01$) and subjects with a Ph.D. ($p < .01$). When considering number of years married, subjects married 0-15 years had significantly ($p < .05$) more favorable attitudes than subjects married 31-45 years and subjects married 46-52 years.

In level of moral reasoning, no statistically significant differences were found among employed wives, husbands of employed wives, non-employed wives, and the husbands of non-employed wives. When age, education, and number of years married were examined (collapsing across all four groups), statistically significant differences emerged. Those subjects over age 65 utilized a significantly lower level of moral reasoning than subjects 21-35 years of age ($p < .001$), subjects 36-50 years of age ($p < .001$), and subjects 51-65 years of age ($p < .001$). Thus, the subjects over age 65 utilized a significantly lower level of moral reasoning than all the remaining subjects 21-65 years of age. With regard to education, subjects with a Ph.D. utilized a significantly higher level of moral reasoning than subjects with a high school diploma ($p < .05$) and subjects with some college hours but less than a bachelor's degree ($p < .05$). When considering number of years married, subjects married 0-15 years exhibited a higher level of moral reasoning than subjects married 31-45 years ($p < .05$) and subjects married 46-52 years ($p < .001$). Subjects married 16-30 years also exhibited a higher level than both subjects married 31-45 years ($p < .05$) and subjects married 46-52 years ($p < .001$).

Conclusions

From the research presented, conclusions can be drawn about differences among the four groups of subjects on attitudes toward women and attitudes toward women as managers. The conclusions drawn will be limited here to the population from which the subjects were drawn; however, useful inferences regarding other groups are possible.

Based upon the findings of this research, the following conclusions were drawn:

1. The results indicate a significant difference between employed wives and husbands of non-employed wives in attitudes toward women with the former having more liberal and non-traditional attitudes. This finding is consistent with earlier research (Hare-Mustin & Lamb, 1984; Petro & Putnam, 1979) demonstrating male-female differences in attitudes toward women. The results of the research presented here also demonstrate non-significant male-female differences; therefore, the male-female differences appear to be a function of marital status or choice of marital partner. It is possible that those men choosing wives who prefer not to work outside the home are making choices consistent with previously held attitudes about women. Thus, males with more conservative, traditional attitudes toward women could be expected to marry women who demonstrate a more conservative traditional wife role (i.e., not working outside the home). As demonstrated by Shaffer and Wegley (1974), competent females expressing feminine sex-role preferences were perceived as more attractive than competent females expressing masculine sex-role preferences. The female subjects in the present study can be roughly divided into a more stereotypically feminine sex-role preference (i.e., homemaker or housewife) and a more stereotypically masculine sex-role preference

(i.e., working wife, working wife and mother). The working wives, by virtue of their own non-traditional role, would be expected to have more non-traditional and liberal attitudes toward women. The husbands of working wives could then be described as having made a choice of marital partner consistent with pre-existing favorable attitudes toward women, or as having modified previously held attitudes as a result of being married to a non-traditional wife. The non-working wives fulfill a more conservative, traditional role in their relationships within the marital system; thus, their husbands would be expected to hold more conservative, traditional attitudes toward women. The husbands of non-working wives and the working wives appear to have significantly different attitudes toward women, while their respective spouses have more moderate (i.e., less extreme) attitudes. These results indicate that the differences in attitudes toward women held by both males and females are not based solely on gender.

The ages of the subjects in the present study indicate that the older subjects (over 65) maintain a more conservative, traditional attitude toward women. This is consistent with the more conservative era (in terms of male-female relationships and roles) in which these older subjects were reared. The significantly more liberal views of the 21-50 year old subjects reflect a difference in the prevailing attitudes of the culture. It is also possible that the older subjects are less flexible in their attitudes, possibly a reflection of the drastically changing societal norms during their lifetime. The number of years these subjects have been married also demonstrates significant differences in attitudes toward women, with those couples married the longest demonstrating the most traditional, conservative attitudes. The significant differences in number of years married and in age demonstrate a similar pattern, i.e., the younger subjects are the ones who have been married for fewer years, while the

older subjects are the ones who have been married for more years. The subjects who have been married 0-30 years (the subjects ages 21-50) have significantly more liberal and non-traditional attitudes toward women than the subjects married 46-52 years (the subjects over 65 years of age). Thus, there may be some interaction between age and number of years married related to attitudes toward women; however, that is beyond the analyses used in this study.

The education level of the subjects indicated a significant difference between subjects with some college hours but less than a bachelor's degree and the subjects with some graduate hours but less than a master's degree, with the former group having more liberal and non-traditional attitudes toward women. A possible explanation for this difference is an assumption that those subjects who dropped out of college were somehow more open-minded and non-traditional than those subjects who continued to graduate school before dropping out. It is possible for this group of subjects that since the socioeconomic level of the college dropouts is similar to that of the graduate school dropouts, those subjects who dropped out of college worked diligently and overcame obstacles to reach their present level. If that hypothesis were true, those subjects might be more sympathetic to others (i.e., women in managerial positions) who also challenged obstacles and stereotypes. Since these results do not support the assumption that increased education corresponds positively with more liberal attitudes, further research would be needed to substantiate and adequately interpret the differences in attitudes between these two groups.

2. Significant differences in attitudes toward women as managers were found among the employed wives and both groups of husbands, with the women demonstrating more favorable attitudes. This is consistent with the previous research (Bass, Krusell, & Alexander, 1971; Collins, Waters, & Waters, 1979; Terborg, Peters, Ilgen, & Smith, 1977) reporting that females tend to have more

favorable attitudes toward women as managers than males. What is noteworthy about the present findings, however, is that the non-employed wives did not have significantly different attitudes toward women as managers than either group of husbands. It appears that those women who (as discussed above) choose more non-traditional roles will have more favorable attitudes regarding other women in similar positions. The men, however, have difficulty with these non-traditional choices because ". . . people who behave or have traits or preferences which are very different from the norms for their gender jar us, and we tend to reject them" (Bardwick, 1979, p. 51). In addition, men may feel threatened or see working women as competition for already-scarce advancement opportunities. If that is the case, men will tend to view working women and women in managerial positions less favorably than will those women who are employed (Bardwick, 1979). Since the most significant gender differences in attitudes towards women as managers are seen between employed wives and men, there is some factor or trait related to the choice to be employed which creates or contributes to the difference in attitudes. As with attitudes toward women in general, there are no significant differences between the two groups of wives. This may indicate a common ground among the wives with the employed wives having experiences or attitudes which are unique to them and significantly different from the husbands. The data would support a conclusion that the experiences or attitudes unique to the employed wives are related directly or indirectly to their employment status and choice to pursue a non-traditional role.

When age of the subjects is examined, the significant differences in attitudes toward women as managers indicate that subjects over age 65 have less favorable attitudes than subjects ages 21-50. As with general attitudes toward women, the differences in attitudes probably reflect more conservative

upbringing and subsequent different life experiences. This is inconsistent, however, with the significant difference between the subjects ages 21-35 and subjects ages 57-65 with the former having less favorable attitudes toward women as managers. Since the majority of new college graduates are in the 21-35 age group, the less favorable attitude of this group may be an indication of the competition for jobs and for the advancements to fast-track positions. In general, the 57-65 age group is more settled in the workforce and less likely to feel threatened by the managerial women. In addition, the family life is also more settled for this older age group; the need for wives to juggle work and family (especially with small children) is less of an issue.

As with general attitudes toward women, those subjects with graduate hours but less than a master's degree have significantly less favorable attitudes. Their attitudes toward women as managers were less favorable than the following groups: those subjects with college hours but less than a bachelor's degree, subjects with a bachelor's degree, subjects with a master's degree, and subjects with a Ph.D. The only group of subjects whose attitudes toward women as managers were not significantly more favorable than the less-than-a-master's-degree group is the group of subjects with a high school diploma. This represents some trait, belief, or experience on the part of the graduate school dropouts which correlates positively with their less favorable attitudes toward women as managers. Since this same group of subjects also has more conservative and traditional attitudes toward women in general, their uniqueness is more obvious. It is unclear from the present data what separates this group of subjects from those with less education as well as from those with more education.

3. The results indicate no significant differences in moral reasoning among employed wives, non-employed wives, and the husbands of both groups.

Thus, the findings of Gilligan (1982) and Haan et al. (1968) that women and men differ in level of moral development are contradicted. As cited by Kohlberg et al. (1983) many recent studies indicate no significant gender differences. Since contradictory hypotheses have been supported by research, it is likely that factors other than gender are being measured. Since the decision by wives to work outside the home or to remain unemployed does not appear to contribute to any significant difference in moral reasoning, other factors may account for the differences, such as age and education. It is unclear whether male-female differences in moral reasoning have ever existed separate from the factors mentioned above, since few studies examined non-gender-specific attributes.

For the subjects in the present study, number of years married also indicated significant differences in level of moral reasoning. Subjects married 0-30 years exhibited significantly higher levels than subjects married 31-52 years. This is consistent with the age difference discussed earlier, in that couples who have been married more than 30 years are generally older than subjects married less than 30 years.

Recommendations for Future Research

Analyses of the data supported the hypotheses that significant differences exist among employed wives, non-employed wives, and the husbands of both groups in attitudes toward women and attitudes toward women as managers. The hypothesis of significant differences in level of moral development was not supported. Based on these results, the following recommendations are made:

1. Due to the multiplicity of factors contributing to differences in attitudes among groups of males and females, it is probably of little benefit to label these differences as gender-related. The assumption that men and women have different attitudes toward women as managers and toward woman in

general should be carefully examined in light of additional variables (i.e., choice of traditional vs. non-traditional role, education level, marital status, etc.).

2. Further exploration of differences among the four groups of subjects utilized in this study would be useful in clarifying interactions between or among the variables examined. This would best be facilitated by case studies or in-depth interviews of the subjects.

3. The results presented here should be compared to other population groups (i.e., higher or lower socioeconomic status, different geographic location, other racial groups) to ascertain the generalizability of the data gathered. Differences between subject groups would provide additional useful information in clarifying which variables interact to positively or negatively affect attitudes.

4. Future research with similar subjects (marital dyads) should focus more specifically on hypothesized relationships between attitudes and the variables of education, age, and numbers of years married. The present research was limited by design characteristics and did not assess interactions.

5. Based on the significant differences between graduate school dropouts and other education levels on the variables measured, additional research is needed to assess what is unique about this group in terms of attitudes toward women. It is likely that other important variables contribute to, predispose, or interact with this particular education level in regard to these attitudes.

6. Special case study or interview data collected from similar subjects who are employed wives would be a beneficial contribution to the isolation of the variables which contribute to the significant differences analyzed in the present study.

Recommendations for Counseling Practitioners

1. Any practitioner working with marital couples in which the wife works in the paid labor force should exercise caution in assuming that both husband and wife hold similar attitudes toward the wife's work.
2. Married women who hold managerial positions may tend to feel isolated and misunderstood due to the sometimes vastly different attitudes held by their own spouses. For that reason, a careful exploration of work-related issues and attitudes would provide a more in-depth understanding of these women, as well as increase the effectiveness of any interventions utilized in therapy.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

COVER LETTER



Oklahoma State University

APPLIED BEHAVIORAL STUDIES IN EDUCATION

STILLWATER, OKLAHOMA 74078
116 NORTH MURRAY HALL
(405) 624-6040

January 27, 1986

As a doctoral student in counseling psychology, I am interested in understanding the components of good communication patterns between husbands and wives. There is still much to be learned about what contributes to a couple's ability to communicate effectively. I hope that new research will provide information useful in teaching communication skills to couples and families; therefore, I have chosen to conduct research in that area for my doctoral dissertation.

The enclosed instruments include some of the areas of communication identified by various researchers as important to married couples. Couples like you and your spouse could assist in assessing any patterns of communication which may exist in regard to these specific areas. Therefore, I would appreciate your help in this study, especially since the number of respondents requested to participate is small. The instruments should take no more than an hour of your time. Please complete them and return in the enclosed stamped and addressed envelope AS SOON AS POSSIBLE.

The two sets of instruments enclosed should be completed independently by you and your spouse. It is important that you not discuss this research with your spouse until AFTER both sets of instruments have been completed. The usefulness of this research and its applicability to marriage and family therapy is contingent upon your being straightforward in completing the instruments. You WILL NOT be identified with your answers. The code listed in the upper right-hand corner of the instruments will be used only to match a couple's responses in the event the instruments should be separated.

If you have any questions regarding this study and/or would like a summary of our findings, please don't hesitate to contact me. Again, thank you for your time and invaluable input.

Sincerely,

Rebecca Heng

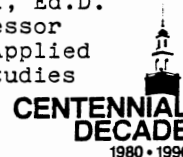
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Oklahoma State University

APPLIED BEHAVIORAL STUDIES IN EDUCATION

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IDENTIFICATION OF COMMUNICATION
PATTERNS IN MARRIED COUPLES

The responses to our survey are being received from couples throughout the Edmond-Oklahoma City area. We are enthusiastic about how the results of this study can be of benefit to married couples, and we greatly need your input. If you have not already done so, would you please take a few minutes of your time to complete the survey today?

If you have questions or need a copy of the survey, give us a call. Thanks for your assistance.

Rebecca Heng

Rebecca Heng, M.Ed
Doctoral Student
Counseling Psychology Program
(405) 348-4730

Judith E. Dobson

Judith Dobson, Ph.D.
Professor
Department of Applied
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Alfred Carozzi

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APPENDIX B

ATTITUDES TOWARD WOMEN SCALE

PLEASE NOTE:

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These consist of pages:

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300 N Zeeb Rd., Ann Arbor, MI 48106 (313) 761-4700

QUESTIONNAIRE NUMBER 1

| Instructions | Rating Scale |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <p>The following items are an attempt to assess the attitudes people have about women. The best answer to each statement is your <u>personal opinion</u>. The statements cover many different and opposing points of view; you may find yourself agreeing strongly with some of the statements and disagreeing just as strongly with others. Whether you agree or disagree with any statement, you can be sure that many people feel the same way.</p> | <p>1=Agree Strongly 2=Agree Mildly 3=Disagree Mildly 4=Disagree Strongly</p> |
| <p>Using the numbers from 1 to 4 on the rating scale on the right, mark your personal opinion about each statement in the blank that immediately precedes it. Remember, give your <u>personal opinion</u> according to how much you agree or disagree with each item. Please respond to all 25 items. Thank you.</p> | |
| <p>_____ 1. Swearing and obscenity are more repulsive in the speech of a woman than a man.</p> <p>_____ 2. Women should take increasing responsibility for leadership in solving the intellectual and social problems of the day.</p> <p>_____ 3. Both husband and wife should be allowed the same grounds for divorce.</p> <p>_____ 4. Telling dirty jokes should be mostly a masculine prerogative.</p> <p>_____ 5. Intoxication among women is worse than intoxication among men.</p> <p>_____ 6. Under modern economic conditions with women being active outside the home, men should share in household tasks such as washing dishes and doing the laundry.</p> <p>_____ 7. It is insulting to women to have the "obey" clause remain in the marriage service.</p> <p>_____ 8. There should be a strict merit system in job appointment and promotion without regard to sex.</p> <p>_____ 9. A woman should be as free as a man to propose marriage.</p> <p>_____ 10. Women should worry less about their rights and more about becoming good wives and mothers.</p> <p>_____ 11. Women should assume their rightful place in business and all the professions along with men.</p> <p>_____ 12. Women earning as much as their dates should bear equally expense when they go out together.</p> <p>_____ 13. A woman should not expect to go to exactly the same places or to have exactly the same freedom of action as a man.</p> <p>_____ 14. Sons in a family should be given more encouragement to go to college than daughters.</p> | |

- _____ 15. It is ridiculous for a woman to run a locomotive and for a man to darn socks.
- _____ 16. In general, the father should have greater authority than the mother in the bringing up of the children.
- _____ 17. Women should be encouraged not to become sexually intimate with anyone before marriage, even their fiances.
- _____ 18. The husband should not be favored by law over the wife in the disposal of family property or income.
- _____ 19. Women should be concerned with their duties of childrearing and house tending, rather than with desires for professional and business careers.
- _____ 20. The intellectual leadership of a community should be largely in the hands of men.
- _____ 21. Economic and social freedom are worth far more to women than acceptance of the ideal of femininity which has been set by men.
- _____ 22. On the average, women should be regarded as less capable of contribution to economic production than are men.
- _____ 23. There are many jobs in which men should be given preference over women in being hired or promoted.
- _____ 24. Women should be given equal opportunity with men for apprenticeship in the various trades.
- _____ 25. The modern girl is entitled to the same freedom from regulation and control that is given to the modern boy.

APPENDIX C

WOMEN AS MANAGERS SCALE

QUESTIONNAIRE NUMBER 2

| Instructions | Rating Scale |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <p>The following items are an attempt to assess the attitudes people have about women in business. The best answer to each statement is your <u>personal opinion</u>. The statements cover many different and opposing points of view; you may find yourself agreeing strongly with some of the statements, disagreeing just as strongly with others, and uncertain about others. Whether you agree or disagree with any statement, you can be sure that many people feel the same way.</p> | <p>1=Strongly Disagree 2=Disagree 3=Slightly Disagree 4=Neither Agree nor Disagree 5=Slightly Agree 6=Agree 7=Strongly Agree</p> |

Using the numbers from 1 to 7 on the rating scale on the right, mark your personal opinion about each statement in the blank that immediately precedes it. Remember, give your personal opinion according to how much you agree or disagree with each item. Please respond to all 21 items. Thank you.

- _____ 1. It is less desirable for women than for men to have a job that requires responsibility.
- _____ 2. Women have the objectivity required to evaluate business situations properly.
- _____ 3. Challenging work is more important to men than it is to women.
- _____ 4. Men and women should be given equal opportunity for participation in management training programs.
- _____ 5. Women have the capability to acquire the necessary skills to be successful managers.
- _____ 6. On the average, women are less capable of contributing to an organization's overall goals than are men.
- _____ 7. It is not acceptable for women to assume leadership roles as often as men.
- _____ 8. The business community should someday accept women in key managerial positions.
- _____ 9. Society should regard work by female managers as valuable as work by male managers.
- _____ 10. It is acceptable for women to compete with men for top managerial positions.
- _____ 11. The possibility of pregnancy does not make women less desirable managers than men.
- _____ 12. Women would no more allow their emotions to influence their managerial behavior than would men.
- _____ 13. Problems associated with menstruation should not make women less desirable than men as employees.

- _____ 14. To be a successful executive, a woman does not have to sacrifice some of her femininity.
- _____ 15. On the average, a woman who stays at home all the time with her children is a better mother than a woman who works outside the home at least half time.
- _____ 16. Women are less capable of learning mathematical and mechanical skills than are men.
- _____ 17. Women are not ambitious enough to be successful in the business world.
- _____ 18. Women cannot be assertive in business situations that demand it.
- _____ 19. Women possess the self-confidence required for a good leader.
- _____ 20. Women are not competitive enough to be successful in the business world.
- _____ 21. Women cannot be aggressive in business situations that demand it.

APPENDIX D

DEFINING ISSUES TEST

OPINIONS ABOUT SOCIAL PROBLEMS

This questionnaire is aimed at understanding how people think about social problems. Different people have different opinions about questions of right and wrong. There are no "right" answers in the way that there are right answers to math problems. We would like you to tell us what you think about several problem stories. The papers will be fed to a computer to find the average for the whole group, and no one will see your individual answers.

Please give us the following information:

Name _____ Female
Age _____ Class and Major _____ Male

In this questionnaire you will be asked to give your opinions about several stories. Here is a story as an example. Read it, then turn the page.

Frank Jones has been thinking about buying a car. He is married, has two small children and earns an average income. The car he buys will be his family's only car. It will be used mostly to get to work and drive around town, but sometimes for vacation trips also. In trying to decide what car to buy, Frank Jones realized that there were a lot of questions to consider. On the next page there is a list of some of these questions.

If you were Frank Jones, how important would each of these questions be in deciding what car to buy?

PART A. (SAMPLE)

On the left hand side of the page check one of the spaces by each question that could be considered.

GREAT importance
 MUCH importance
 SOME importance
 LITTLE importance
 NO importance

- ___ ___ ___ ___ 1. Whether the car dealer was in the same block
 where Frank lives.
 ___ ___ ___ ___ 2. Would a used car be more economical in the long
 run than a new car.
 ___ ___ ___ ___ 3. Whether the color was green, Frank's favorite
 color.
 ___ ___ ___ ___ 4. Whether the cubic inch displacement was at least
 200.
 ___ ___ ___ ___ 5. Would a large, roomy car be better than a compact
 car.
 ___ ___ ___ ___ 6. Whether the from connibilities were differential.

PART B. (SAMPLE)

From the list of questions above, select the most important one of the whole group. Put the number of the most important question on the top line below. Do likewise for your 2nd, 3rd, and 4th most important choices.

Most important 5
 Second most important 2
 Third most important 3
 Fourth most important 1

HEINZ AND THE DRUG

In Europe a woman was near death from a special kind of cancer. There was one drug that the doctors thought might save her. It was a form of radium that a druggist in the same town had recently discovered. The drug was expensive to make, but the druggist was charging ten times what the drug cost to make. He paid \$200 for the radium and charged \$2000 for a small dose of the drug. The sick woman's husband, Heinz, went to everyone he knew to borrow the money, but he could only get together about \$1000, which is half of what it cost. He told the druggist that his wife was dying, and asked him to sell it cheaper or let him pay later. But the druggist said, "No, I discovered the drug and I'm going to make money from it." So Heinz got desperate and began to think about breaking into the man's store to steal the drug for his wife.

Should Heinz steal the drug? (Check one)

Should steal it

Can't decide

Should not steal it

GREAT importance
 MUCH importance
 SOME importance
 LITTLE importance
 NO importance

HEINZ STORY

On the left hand side of the page check one of the space by each question to indicate its importance.

- | | | |
|-------------------------------------------|-----|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ | 1. | Whether a community's laws are going to be upheld. |
| _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ | 2. | Isn't it only natural for a loving husband to care so much for his wife that he'd steal? |
| _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ | 3. | Is Heinz willing to risk getting shot as a burglar or going to jail for the chance that stealing the drug might help? |
| _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ | 4. | Whether Heinz is a professional wrestler, or has considerable influence with professional wrestlers. |
| _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ | 5. | Whether Heinz is stealing for himself or doing this solely to help someone else. |
| _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ | 6. | Whether the druggist's rights to his invention have to be respected. |
| _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ | 7. | Whether the essence of living is more encompassing than the termination of dying, socially and individually. |
| _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ | 8. | What values are going to be the basis for governing how people act towards each other. |
| _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ | 9. | Whether the druggist is going to be allowed to hide behind a worthless law which only protects the rich anyhow. |
| _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ | 10. | Whether the law in this case is getting in the way of the most basic claim of any member of society. |
| _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ | 11. | Whether the druggist deserves to be robbed for being so greedy and cruel. |
| _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ | 12. | Would stealing in such a case bring about more total good for the whole society or not. |

From the list of questions above, select the four most important:

- Most important _____
- Second most important _____
- Third most important _____
- Fourth most important _____

STUDENT TAKE-OVER

At Harvard University a group of students, called the Students for a Democratic Society (SDS), believe that the University should not have an army ROTC program. SDS students are against the war in Viet Nam, and the army training program helps send men to fight in Viet Nam. The SDS students demanded that Harvard end the army ROTC training program as a university course. This would mean that Harvard students could not get army training as part of their regular course work and not get credit for it towards their degrees.

Ageeing with the SDS, the Harvard professors voted to end the ROTC program as a university course. But the President of the University stated that he wanted to keep the army program on campus as a course. The SDS students felt that the President was not going to pay attention to the faculty vote or to their demands.

So, one day last April, two hundred SDS students walked into the university's administration building and told everyone else to get out. They said they were doing this to force Harvard to get rid of the army training program as a course.

Should the students have taken over the administration building? (Check one)

Yes, they should take it over

Can't decide

No, they should not take it over

GREAT importance
 MUCH importance
 SOME importance
 LITTLE importance
 NO importance

STUDENT TAKE-OVER

- | | |
|-----------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| — — — — — | 1. Are the students doing this to really help other people or are they doing it just for kicks. |
| — — — — — | 2. Do the students have any right to take over property that doesn't belong to them. |
| — — — — — | 3. Do the students realize that they might be arrested and fined, and even expelled from school. |
| — — — — — | 4. Would taking over the building in the long run benefit more people to a greater extent. |
| — — — — — | 5. Whether the President stayed within the limits of his authority in ignoring the faculty vote. |
| — — — — — | 6. Will the take-over anger the public and give all students a bad name. |
| — — — — — | 7. Is taking over a building consistent with principles of justice. |
| — — — — — | 8. Would allowing one student take-over encourage many other student take-overs. |
| — — — — — | 9. Did the President bring his misunderstanding on himself by being so unreasonable and uncooperative. |
| — — — — — | 10. Whether running the university ought to be in the hands of a few administrators or in the hands of all the people. |
| — — — — — | 11. Are the students following principles which they believe are above the law. |
| — — — — — | 12. Whether or not university decisions ought to be respected by students. |

From the list of questions above, select the four most important:

Most important _____
 Second most important _____
 Third most important _____
 Fourth most important _____

APPENDIX E

INFORMED CONSENT STATEMENT

INFORMED CONSENT STATEMENT

In order to protect your confidentiality and to provide a record of your willingness to participate in this research project, the following statement must be read and your signature provided. Please be sure that both you and your spouse sign a consent statement. If both statements are not signed, none of the information you provide will be used.

"I _____ (please print your name) understand that I am participating in a research project. This participation consists of completing three questionnaires and demographics form. I understand that I can refuse to participate, that I will be protected in regard to the confidentiality of all information provided, and that my name will not be used in any manner without my express written permission."

Signature _____

Date _____

APPENDIX F

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Please provide the following information. It is important that you answer each question in order to determine what things you have in common with other respondents. Groups will be determined based on personal information, family information, and employment history. The form requires between 5 and 10 minutes to complete; please respond to each item. Thank you.

PERSONAL

1. Sex: M F
2. Age: _____
3. Education:
 Grade School Some Graduate Work
 High School Master's Degree
 Some College Doctorate
 Bachelor's Degree

FAMILY

1. Number of years married: _____
2. Children: Yes No
3. Number of children: _____
4. Ages of children: _____

EMPLOYMENT

1. Check all that apply:
 Currently employed full-time (for how long? _____)
 Currently employed part-time (for how long? _____)
 Not employed (for how long? _____)
 Retired (for how long? _____)
 Worked full-time prior to marriage but do not work now
 Worked full-time when first married but do not work now
2. If currently employed, rate in order of importance the following reasons for your employment (1 is most important):
 Financial necessity
 Personal satisfaction/fulfillment
 Community involvement
 Other (please state) _____

3. What is your yearly income (not combined with your spouse's income) to the nearest \$100 dollars? _____

VITA

Rebecca Miles Heng

Candidate for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

Thesis: MARITAL STATUS AND EMPLOYMENT HISTORY: IMPACT ON
ATTITUDES AND MORAL REASONING

Major Field: Applied Behavioral Studies

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Blytheville, Arkansas, August 27, 1957. Married to Bruce Heng on March 22, 1980.

Education: Graduated from Enid High School, Enid, Oklahoma, in May, 1975; received Bachelor of Science Degree in Psychology from Oklahoma Christian College in May, 1978; received Master of Education degree from Central State University in May, 1981; completed requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy degree at Oklahoma State University in December, 1987.

Professional Experience: Director of Career Counseling Center and Instructor of Psychology, Oklahoma Christian College, July, 1981, to June, 1984; Practicum Counselor, Continental Oil Company, Ponca City, Oklahoma, August, 1984, to May, 1985; Practicum Counselor, Marriage and Family Counseling Services, Stillwater, Oklahoma, June, 1985, to May, 1986; Clinical Psychology Intern, Children's Medical Center, Tulsa, Oklahoma, September, 1986, to August, 1987; Child and Adolescent Psychiatry, University of Texas Medical Branch, September, 1987, to present.