INTERPERSONAL TRAITS OF INCLUSION AND CONTROL OF

NON-WORKING AND CAREER-ORIENTED WOMEN WHO

EXPRESS EQUALITARIAN AND TRADITIONAL

ATTITUDES TOWARD ROLE-TAKING

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

The present study is concerned with the relationship of traditional

or equalitarian role-taking as represented by non-working women and

career-oriented women. In addition, the relationship between female tra-

ditional or equalitarian role-taking and the personality traits of

inclusion and control in interpersonal interactions will be examined.

Need for the Study

According to Becker and Strauss (1956):

Freudian and other psychiatric formulations of personality
development probably overstressed childhood experiences. Their
systematic accounts end more or less with adolescence, later
events being regarded as the elaboration of, or variations on,
earlier experiences (p. 263).

Becker and Strauss (1956, p. 263) felt that "central to any account of

adult identity is the relationship of change in identity to change in

social position." Identity "is never gained nor maintained once and for

all" (Erikson, 1950, p. 57).

There is little doubt that contemporary women are going through a

difficult transitional period (Rapoport and Rapoport, 1971; Almquist and

Angrist, 1971; Lott, 1973; Sullerot, 1974; Greenburg, Straight, Hassenger,

and Raska, 1961). Social role expectations are not clearly defined at

this point in time and many of them remain ambiguous (Farmer and Bohn,

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Jr., 1970). "The source of this conflict is not the fact that more than one role is open to women, but is the cultural lag between social opportunity and social sanction" (Farmer and Bohn, Jr., 1970, p. 228). Arnott (1972b, p. 673) stated that two mutually supportive trends suggest an alternative to the traditional role of dependent homemaker: 1) home combined with employment; 2) a new wave of feminisim stressing autonomy (self-determination) for women. Because many more women are working by choice rather than necessity, career orientation and the importance of autonomy are at variance with traditional marriage and family relationships. Burr (1971) reported data which provide support to the theoretical point of view that role discrepancies explain a considerable amount of the variations in marital satisfaction. Krause (1971) found in her clinical experience that many women are "unable to integrate the traditional ideas of womenhood with the expanded experiences and opportunities of modern women" (p. 476). Even with extensive education and more effective birth control methods, many women are bound by an internalized image of the "natural" role of women, a wife and mother serving her husband and children and always placing their needs first. Krause (1971) also pointed out that some single women fear marriage and resist it due to the belief that marriage will end their individuality and freedom.

The need for further research concerning contemporary women's roles and related personality traits seems important for the following reasons:

1) Women's roles and status have changed over the years (Glick, 1948; Sullerot, 1974).

2) Many women are not satisfied in their present roles (Bebbington, 1973; Epstein and Bronzaft, 1972; Baker, 1972).

3) Society can place great pressure on conformity (Kando, 1972;

Broverman, Vogel, Broverman, Clarkson, and Rosenkrantz, 1972).

4) Society's role expectations for women are ambiguous (Lott, 1973; Burr, 1971; Farmer and Bohn, Jr., 1970).

5) Family influence is a major aspect of a woman's decision in role performance and yet her family model may conflict with her search for autonomy and self actualization (Arnott, 1972b; Lott, 1973).

6) Studies are not conclusive as to whether masculine and feminine personality traits are biological or cultural (Terman and Mile, 1936; White, 1959).

7) A woman's self-concept is reflected in her interpersonal relationships (Arnott, 1972a; Matthews and Tiedman, 1964; Meier, 1972).

Definition of Terms

Equalitarian

Equalitarian is defined as believing in the doctrine that every human being is equal in the social and political realms (based upon the definition given by The World Book Dictionary, 1963). It is intended in this study to describe marriage relationships in which role-taking is based on personal preferences rather than sex. A detailed description of an equalitarian marriage will be presented in the review of literature.

Traditional

Tradition is defined as cultural continuity embodied in a massive complex of evolving social attitudes, beliefs, conventions, and institutions rooted in the experience of the past and exerting normative influence on the present (based on the definition by Webster's Third New International Dictionary, 1961). In this study, traditional marriage

will represent the qualities of the above definition. A detailed des-
cription of a traditional marriage will be presented in the review of
literature.

Control

Schutz (1967) defines the interpersonal need for control as the
"need to establish and maintain a satisfactory relationship with people
with respect to control and power. Control behavior refers to the
decision-making process between people" (p. 5). Expressed control is the
control behavior an individual expresses towards others. Wanted control
is the behavior he wants others to express towards him (p. 4). Terms
that connote aspects of primarily positive control are "power, authority,
dominance, influence, control, ruler, officer, leader." Aspects of nega-
tive control are "resistance, follower, submissive, henpecked" (p. 5).

Inclusion

Schutz (1967) defines the interpersonal need for inclusion as the
"need to establish and maintain a satisfactory relationship with people
with respect to interaction and association" (pp. 4-5). Expressed
inclusion is the behavior an individual expresses towards others, while
wanted inclusion is the behavior he wants others to express towards him
(p. 5). Some terms that connote various aspects of positive inclusion
are "associate, interact, communicate, belong, attend to, member, join,
extravert, interested." Negative inclusion is connoted by "exclude,
isolate, outsider, lonely, detached, withdrawn, abandon, ignore" (p. 5).

Career-Oriented

A career-oriented woman will be defined in this study as one who considers her employment as a profession or career regardless of the social status of her employment. She will be an active member of at least one professional organization in which she has the opportunity to broaden her knowledge of her field. She considers her occupation as a measure of personal development rather than just as a form of financial supplement to her husband's income.

Purposes

The purposes of this study are:

1) To examine the attitudes concerning traditional or equalitarian role-taking of non-working women and career-oriented women utilizing the Marriage Role Expectation Inventory (Dunn, 1963) -- referred to throughout this study as the MREI.

2) To compare the personality interaction traits of the above sample using the Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation-Behavior (Schutz, 1967) -- referred to throughout this study as the FIRO-B.

3) To examine the relationship between attitudes toward traditional or equalitarian role-taking, as measured by the MREI and personality interaction traits, inclusion and control, as measured by the FIRO-B.

4) To examine the background characteristics and the family background characteristics of non-working women and career-oriented women.

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses will be examined:

1) There will be no significant differences in attitudes toward

traditional or equalitarian role-taking between non-working women and career-oriented women as measured by the MREI.

2) There will be no significant differences between non-working women and career-oriented women concerning <u>wanted</u> inclusion scores from the FIRO-B.

3) There will be no significant differences between non-working women and career-oriented women concerning <u>expressed</u> inclusion scores from the FIRO-B.

4) There will be no significant differences between non-working women and career-oriented women concerning <u>wanted</u> control scores from the FIRO-B.

5) There will be no significant differences between non-working women and career-oriented women concerning <u>expressed</u> control scores from the FIRO-B.

6) There will be no significant correlation between the MREI scores and the scores in each of the following areas of the FIRO-B: a) expressed inclusion; b) wanted inclusion; c) expressed control; and d) wanted control.

7) There will be no significant differences between non-working women and career-oriented women with regard to background characteristics and family background characteristics.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Rapoport and Rapoport (1969) state that the attitudes of the
majority of people toward married women working in Victorian England was
best expressed by Alfred Tennyson in "The Princess":

> Man for the field and woman for the hearth;
> Man for the sword and for the needle she;
> Man with the head and woman with the heart;
> Man to command and woman to obey;
> All else confusion (p. 4).

The views on the status of women have been changing over the years.
Helson (1972) stated that before World War II, single women and widows in
the United States worked. Also it was socially acceptable for young
women to work before they married. The prevailing norms directed the
females to marry, rear children, and provide support and assistance for
her husband's career. This was known as the traditional role for women
(Almquist and Angrist, 1971; Rossi, 1968).

World War II arrived and a new facet of the American woman appeared.
Women originally entered the work force to replace the men who were away
at war. Since the period immediately preceding World War II, the number
of women workers has more than doubled. But the number of working
mothers has increased eightfold. There were 4 out of 10 mothers in the
labor force in March, 1971 as compared to less than 1 out of 10 in 1940
(Women's Bureau Employment Standards Administration, 1972). Among the
31.7 million women who were in the labor force in March, 1971, 12.2

million were mothers. Nearly 7.9 million of these working mothers had children 6 to 17 years of age (none under six); two million had children 3 to 5 years of age (none under three); and 2.3 million had children under the age of three. These working mothers had a total of 25.7 million children, of whom 5.6 million were under six years of age (Women's Bureau Employment Standards Administration, 1972).

The median age of the working mothers was 37 years. Nearly one-third of all working mothers were 25 to 34 years old and slightly more than one-third were 35 to 44 years old (Women's Bureau Employment Standards Administration, 1972). Reasons for employment are varied, but in the 1950's and early 1960's, the view on women and work was that employment for married women was appropriate if her family required it financially and as long as her family and children came first (Helson, 1972).

Arnott (1972a) stated that a greater variety of role options confront married women today, especially those with an education. Women's movements have placed emphasis on the right of women to choose their roles from a continuum consisting of the traditional, conventional female role to the equalitarian, neo-traditional roles (Arnott, 1972a; Poloma and Garland, 1971). Arnott (1972a) reported that there are several role choices a woman may select:

1) Full-time homemaking
2) Dual role (marriage combined with non-family role)
   a) Volunteer work
   b) Further education
   c) Employment--part-time or full-time (p. 122).

Changing social values have led to uncertainty as to which roles are most desirable for women. A review of literature will be presented concerning the following related topics:

1) Traditional female roles.

2) Equalitarian female roles.

3) Biological or cultural personality traits.

4) Interpersonal traits of inclusion and control.

5) Female self concept and role socialization.

6) Non-working versus career-oriented role and husband's interaction.

7) Non-working role versus career-oriented role and children's interaction.

Traditional Female Roles

In her Marriage Role Expectation Inventory, Dunn (1963) defined the traditional woman as one who:

1) Is financially dependent on her husband.
2) Works only with her husband's permission.
3) Avoids competition with men.
4) Feels no responsibility for "earning".
5) Works outside the home only for charity, civic needs, or church.
6) Considers housework and cooking as her duty as a wife.
7) Is thrifty, religious, hard-working, and willing to sacrifice for her family.
8) Possesses skills of housekeeping and child care.
9) Is responsible for the care of the children.
10) Considers formal education beyond high school of little value for a married woman.
11) Tends to be uninterested in civic and world affairs-politics is for men.
12) Participates in women's activities.
13) Follows husband's lead-chooses activities that fit into his social life (p. 5).

A woman in a traditional role does not have to have all these traits, but she will possess a majority of them (Dunn, 1963).

Poloma and Garland (1971) studied the attitudes of traditional and equalitarian family roles of professional-career women. The 53 professional women included physicians, college professors, and lawyers.

Surprisingly, only one of the 53 women had a marriage that was classified as a truly equalitarian relationship (Poloma and Garland, 1971). While more women are demonstrating that it is possible to combine work and marriage, there is little evidence that they are in a position to combine a career with marital obligations. A career is defined as "a job that is highly salient personally, has a developmental sequence, and requires a high degree of committment" (Bebbington, 1973, p. 530). Poloma and Garland (1971) defined career responsibility as "... performing on an equal footing with their husbands and holding a man's <u>responsibility</u> for achieving career success" (p. 533). In their study, the majority of the women, especially those with children, did not want career responsibilities. The priority of the wife and mother role over the professional obligations was expressed by the majority of the respondents. Poloma and Garland (1971) suggested four main features of the traditional family:

1) The wife's career was equivalent to a hobby or viewed on par with volunteer work.
2) The husband is clearly the status-giving and income-earning member of the family, with the wife's income not being used for family needs.
3) The wife's principle role is that of wife and mother and homemaker.
4) Hired domestic help generally takes care of the bulk of the routine household chores, with the wife caring for the remainder of the feminine tasks such as entertaining, cooking, marketing, etc. (p. 535).

Neo-traditional relationship is one in which the husband and wife could objectively be seen as sharing the breadwinning role in the family. There were 27 of the 53 women who had neo-traditional marriages. Poloma and Garland (1971) suggested these two features for the neo-traditional family:

1) In most cases, the wife's income was needed and utilized to maintain the family's present standard of living. This standard of living was higher than the traditional family.
2) Wife's professional activity assumed a certain importance

in any decision the family made, particularly around the issues of moving to another city and vacation time (p. 535).

To summarize Poloma and Garland (1971), the respondents were aware of the fact that marriage and especially children limited their professional involvement, but they were content with the situation as it was. In exchange for the limitations placed on their careers by home and family, these wives had financial security provided by the husbands as breadwinners, while the women themselves enjoyed the option of working or not working. These professional women expressed great satisfaction in combining marriage and an occupation, with the "family role as the salient one and the professional role as supportive in the role hierarchy" (Poloma and Garland, 1971, p. 536). There were 37 of the 53 women who stated that they had not experienced sex discrimination in their professional roles (Poloma and Garland, 1971). Of the 16 who complained about sex discrimination, 9 were in academic professions. These women made numerous sacrifices in behalf of their marriages at the expense of their career such as relinguishing fellowships, turning down a chairmanship, or inability to accept a better job offer in another location because of husband's career. Very few of these women were willing to blame their marriages as causes of discrimination.

Equalitarian Female Roles

Dunn (1963) defined the equalitarian marriage relationship as one in which husband and wife:

1) Share responsibility for contributing financially if physically able and compatible with family goals; Wife may combine housework and career.
2) Consider housework as a responsibility of both. Doing 'woman's work' has no influence on status of husband.
3) Emphasize personality traits, and social skills of a

desirable companion for both husband and wife--compatible personalities, 'family minded', understanding, congenial.

4) Consider both responsible for children's care: emphasis on social and emotional development, and companionship between parents and children.

5) Consider education for both husband and wife important; education for personal growth as well as for a vocational need.

6) Participate in activities along interest rather than sex lines; they have both individual and companion interest (p. 5).

Dunn (1960) developed the MREI to examine the extent to which adolescent expectations reflect equalitarian or traditional concepts of marriage roles. The instrument consists of seven subscales: authority, home-making, child care, personal characteristics, social participations, education, and employment. Her sample consisted of 436 white, high school seniors enrolled in seven parishes of North Louisiana. The group consisted of 238 girls and 198 boys, ranging in age from 16 to 21 years old. More than three-fourths of each sex were 17 or 18 years of age. More than three-fourths of the group were Protestants and all five social classes were represented, the greater proportions being lower-middle and upper-middle classes. Dunn (1960) found that:

1) More than half of the group agreed with equalitarian items in all subclasses of the inventory; and less than half agreed with traditional items.

2) Reflection of equalitarian expectations was considerably stronger in care of children, personal characteristics, and social participation.

3) In response to items related to homemaking, 42% of the boys as compared with only 28% of the girls' expectations were classified as equalitarian. The majority of girls in this group seemed to believe that homemaking is very largely the wife's responsibility.

4) One important finding in this area was that in spite of traditional responses, the majority of both sexes indicated that the responsibility for homemaking will be shared if the wife works outside the home.

5) Attitudes toward the wife's working were very largely nega-tive on the part of both boys and girls. Although 89% of the group agreed that whether the wife works will depend upon 'what we as a couple think best for our own happi-ness,' only about one-third of the group agreed that the

wife would work even if she enjoys working outside the home more than staying at home.

6) As for authority almost three-fourths of both sexes responded that the wife's opinion would carry as much weight as the husband's in making decisions concerning children and money matters (pp. 100-102).

Dunn (1960) felt that the expectations of this sample concerning employment were not consistent with present-day practices. An unrealistically large number of both sexes expected that wives in their marriages would not work.

Raburn (1970) used the MREI with 311 male and female college students in Louisiana, 153 from secular schools and 158 from parochial schools to assess their role expectations in marriage. Her findings are supportive of Dunn (1960). Raburn (1970) reported:

1) Concepts of college students regarding marriage role expectations are more often equalitarian than traditional.
2) Traditional concepts are apt to be a part of most role expectations, even those classified as equalitarian. Although college students may appear to be in agreement concerning marriage roles in a general way, they may actually have disagreements in specific areas.
3) Males were more apt to hold traditional views regarding those roles which are traditionally assigned to men; females regarding those traditionally assigned to women.
4) College students achieving a high level of communication with their parents were more apt to have role expectations similar to their parents; and, conversely, college students achieving a low level of communication with parents were more apt to have role expectations dissimilar to their parents (p. 87).

Biological or Cultural Personality Traits

The question arises concerning the origin of feminine and masculine personality traits. Perhaps women are not biologically adapted to compete with men on an equal basis, but are only able to compete on a complimentary level. Durkheim (1933) postulated that sexual discrimination can be justified on natural physiological and emotional differences.

Mednick and Tangri (1972) stated that much research is needed in examining biological and behavioral variables before concluding that a relationship is innate. More recent research is beginning to show that certain traits that were considered biological may be more strongly influenced by environmental or other external controls. Myers, Lindenthal, Pepper, and Ostrander (1972) with their studies in stress factors proposed that there is a fine balance between the individual's psychic economy and the social milieu within which one is forced to adapt. Miller's recent work (1970) has suggested that the level of hormonal activity as well as psychological response to such activity may be strongly influenced by cultural factors. Bardwick (1971) defended the importance of female physiology in determining motivational and emotional components of personality, intellectual functioning, and even choice of life style. According to this view, new roles or alternative roles must be worked around the compelling demands of biologically based needs.

Phillips and Segal (1969) compared 141 women to 137 men on emotional disturbances. They were testing the hypothesis that women are more emotional than men and will experience more emotional disturbances. Their finding was:

> that while men and women are similar in that physical illness is associated with psychological and physiological complaints, women are far more apt to express specific psychological difficulties as their level of physical illness becomes more marked (Phillips and Segal, 1969, p. 63).

Phillips and Segal (1969) believe that this may not be "due to biological differences in frequency of disturbances, but rather to men's great reluctance to admit to certain unpleasant feelings since they are aware of cultural expectations regarding the male's expressive control" (p. 69).

Studies of stress (Myers, et al., 1972) have advanced the knowledge

of the relationship between an individual's overall well-being and the challenge of everyday living. Not only serious crises, but almost any event requiring attention and/or some form of behavioral adaptation may be potentially detrimental to one's mental health. The above findings may suggest that some cultural masculine characteristics such as being unemotional and repressing anger, may be unwise from a biological view-point.

Interpersonal Traits of Inclusion and Control

Schutz (1958) stated what he considers the postulate of interpersonal needs:

1) Every individual has three interpersonal needs: inclusion, control, and affection.
2) Inclusion, control, and affection constitute a sufficient set of areas of interpersonal behavior for the prediction and explanation of interpersonal phenomena (p. 13).

Schutz (1958) developed a paper and pencil test, the FIRO-B to measure an individual's orientations to these three interpersonal needs.

The primary purposes for developing FIRO-B are 1) to construct a measure of how an individual acts in interpersonal situations, and 2) to construct a measure that will lead to the prediction of interaction between people based on data from the measuring instrument alone (p. 58).

Bigg, Huneryager, and Delaney (1966) utilized the FIRO-B in their study of leadership behavior and interpersonal needs. Their sample consisted of 32 potential Youth Opportunity Center supervisors at Creighton University. The subjects were given the FIRO-B and the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (Fleishman, 1960) before and after their conference. Fleishman's instrument measured initiating structure (organization) and consideration for members in the group in which they will lead. At the conclusion of the conference, the high-structure group in

comparison to the low-structure group tended to have a significantly stronger need to express control and want affection. Biggs and his colleagues believe that the "structured-oriented person may consciously and/or subconsciously use his organizationally-vested authority as a means or mechanism for achieving the affection of others" (p. 318).

Kerckhoff and Davis (1962) utilized the FIRO-B as a measure of need complimentarity for 103 college couples who were seriously considering marriage. The two independent variables were a) the degree of consensus between the man and the woman on family values, and b) the degree of need complimentarity. The dependent variable was the degree of movement toward a permanent relationship between October and May (Kerckhoff and Davis, 1962, p. 297). Their findings concluded that consensus was found significantly related to progress for only the short-term couples (couples seriously dating less than 18 months) and degree of complimentarity was found significant for only the long-term couples (couples seriously dating for longer than 18 months) (Kerckhoff and Davis, 1962, p. 295). These findings were interpreted as indication that a series of factor (class, religion, etc.) operate early in the relationship, consensus on values somewhat later, and need complimentarity still later. Kerckhoff and Davis (1962) stated "The delay in the effectiveness of the complimentarity factor is seen as due to stylized boy-girl interaction and idealization of the loved one in the early states of the relationship" (p. 295).

Gorlow and Barocas (1964) studied social values and interpersonal needs of 50 young Finnish adults enrolled in a psychology of personality lecture course at the School of Social Sciences at Tampere, Finland. The ages of the subjects ranged from 20-25 and they were about equally

divided as to sex. The subjects completed the FIRO-B and another instrument concerning the kind of life the "simply would like to live" (Gorlow and Barocas, 1964). The findings were:

1) Individuals subscribing to a value committment where altruism is central, have strong interpersonal needs (inclusion) for association with others.
2) Subjects who wanted a contemplative, mediative life negatively related to both inclusion and control.
3) Those who value a life of action and enjoyment had a significant relationship with control.
4) Individuals wanting a life consisting of social interchange with an emphasis on concern for others had the strong need for inclusion (Gorlow and Barocas, pp. 236-238).

Female Self Concept and Role Socialization

Hartley (1964) believed that:

... sex role differentiation takes place through a _variety_ of highly complex processes, each of which contributed to a particular facet of status-related personality formation, perceptual sharpening, and response reinforcement (p. 14).

She also reported (Harley, 1964) "two types of sex role information: cognitions, indicating knowledge of what girls do and preferences, indicating what girls like to do" (p. 9). Therefore, a woman searching for her satisfactory role identity may face conflict and stress from ambiguous societal expectations.

Joffe (1971) observed 45 children in a nursery school that stressed equalitarian role-taking in its curriculum. Nevertheless, the children, however, continued with traditional sex role play. Joffe concluded that:

... the nursery school does not exist in a vacuum: teachers, parents, and children all bring to the school experiences from outside settings, e.g., the family, which often have drastically different conceptions about sex roles (p. 475).

Kando (1972) utilized the definition of role strain as "a feeling of difficulty or stress in fulfilling the demands of one's role obligations"

(p. 459). When a person is unwilling or unable to fulfill the demands of a certain role, she is experiencing strain in that area. Kando (1972) compared role strain among females, males, and transsexuals--about 17 in each group. He found that the females experienced the greatest amount of strain. These females expressed rejection of feminine self-ascriptions, while in fact possessing feminine roles and characteristics. The above findings suggested that these females experienced strain between the cultural demands placed upon them as women and their unwillingness to fulfill these demands (Kando, 1972).

Arnott (1972a) agrees with Kando's theory on role strain. Girls are taught feminine roles in the early years, but their educational experiences emphasize the male pattern of personal achievement. Many female students find themselves in ambiguous roles--being career-oriented may be against various cultural norms.

Broverman, et al. (1972) stated that:

> ... since more feminine traits are negatively valued than are masculine traits, women tend to have more negative self-concepts than do men. ... thus college students portray the ideal woman as less competent than the ideal man and mental health professionals tend to see mature healthy women as more submissive, less independent, etc., than either mature men or adults, sex unspecified. If women adopt the behavior, specified as desirable for adults, they risk censure for the failure to be appropriately feminine; but if they adopt the behaviors that are designated as feminine, they are necessarily deficient with respect to the general standards for adult behavior (p. 75).

White (1959) tested the hypothesis that each girl selects a role that is consistent with the self concept which has developed from her innate capacities and her social experiences. Identification with the parents is accepted as a major factor in the girl's selecting and learning a particular cultural role (White, 1959; Hartley, 1964). In a study of 81 freshmen girls from a junior college in California, White (1959)

concluded:

1) The mother was the parent with whom the girl was more closely identified and with whom she communicated more clearly; this indicated that the mother transmits to her daughter the culturally prescribed feminine role that she has learned.
2) Through differential sex training, a girl learns at an early age the culturally prescribed role which she is expected to follow.
3) Girls adhering to the traditional pattern were more closely identified with their parents; their ideals were similar to those of their parents and they perceived themselves as living up to their parent's ideals.
4) Girls with career-motivations tended to be individuals who came from homes in which the father was deceased or in which there was less communication between the girl and her parents; the dissatisfaction with themselves that girls with career-motivations expressed may be indicative of the strivings which propelled them toward occupations that deviate from typically feminine patterns.
5) Discrepancies among the girl and her parents' perceptions seem related to the girl's tendency toward masculine interests and career-motivation (pp. 204-206).

Gysbers, Johnson, and Gust (1968) agreed with White that parental influence had a strong effect on women. They suggested in their findings that primary committment to work, characteristic of career women, may be associated with a family background where higher education for both parents was the rule rather than the exception. They proposed that career-oriented college women are likely to be more intellectual and enterprising, while homemaker-oriented women are more social and conventional (Gysbers, et al., 1968).

Elton and Rose (1967) investigated the influence of personality and aptitude predictors in vocational choices among freshmen women at the University of Kentucky. Their finding suggests that women with feminine attitudes, but differing committment to intellectuality or conformity, make diverse occupational choices. Women may be equally accepting of their femininity, but also review different occupations as congruent with that femininity.

Matthews and Tiedeman (1964) studied the relationship of attitude towards career and marriage and the life style of women as they progress through adolescence and young adulthood. The above sample included 1,237 junior high school and senior high school girls and young adult women. Matthews and Tiedeman found that the life style of the young women is definitely related to attitudes toward career and marriage. The relationship is modified developmentally.

Angrist (1972) stated that career-oriented women do not simply reject traditional roles. Rather, these women are the products of familial, educational, and personal experiences which serve to enrich and broaden their outlook. In her study of 188 college girls, she found that many women decide on career or non-career aspirations during the college years. The women from the Angrist study vary greatly in their adult aspirations and many do not change their aspirations between the freshmen and senior years.

Career saliency is a dimension along which people vary. It can be defined as consisting of three elements (Masih, 1967):

1) The degree to which a person is career-motivated.
2) The degree to which an occupation is important as a source of satisfaction.
3) The degree of priority ascribed to occupation among other sources of satisfaction (pp. 653-654).

Almquist and Angrist (1971) interviewed 110 college seniors concerning career saliency. The findings reported:

1) Career salience is related to choice of fields chosen by male peers and male-dominated occupations.
2) Career salience is not significantly associated with the educational level of either parent, not with the father's occupational level.
3) Career-salient students more frequently have working mothers while non career-salient students have mothers who tend to be more active in leisure pursuits.
4) Career salience is related to having more work experience in a greater variety of jobs.

5) Non-career-salient women felt that peers, family members, or no one had influenced their occupational choice. Career-salient students had these same sources of influence, but they were most strongly influenced by college professors and occupational role models (pp. 276-277).

Richardson (1973) studied the responses of 97 senior women at Columbia University to examine the construct of career orientation and to explore the usefulness of the Self Concept Theory in understanding women's role orientation. The Self Concept Theory stated "that a person tended to choose an occupation which she perceived to be congruent with her self and with her picture of the ideal self" (Richardson, 1973, p. 5001). The two roles of interest in the study were concerned with the career and homemaking roles. In the analysis of the relationship among the 15 presumed career orientation variables and work values on the questionnaire, two relatively independent clusters were produced (Richardson, 1973). "The first cluster most closely approximated the definition of career orientation" (Richardson, 1973):

> ... consisting of a set of behaviors indicating motivation to pursue a career role, career-oriented women were found to have a high desire to work, to value a career more than marriage, to choose less traditionally feminine occupations, and to have high levels of aspiration. They also seek intrinsic rather than extrinsic satisfaction in work (p. 5002).

The second cluster identified by Richardson (1973) concerned "work orientation" and consisted of:

> ... subjects [who] seek intrinsic as well as certain extrinsic satisfactions in work. They appear to be women who have well-defined occupational aspirations and who plan to integrate work and homemaking roles into their plans for the future. Although they are interested in and committed to their work, they do not plan to make it a major career involvement (p. 5002).

In the examination of the relationship of self and role concepts to career orientation, Richardson (1973) found that women with high self-homemaker congruence were not career-oriented. But in the women whose

self concepts closely matched their concepts of the career woman, there were only slight relationships to the career orientation variables (Richardson, 1973). Richardson concluded that this "relationship was somewhat stronger for women who had a high level of self esteem" and who "differentiated clearly between the career and homemaking roles. ... Self-role congruence appears to be more closely related to the lack of career orientation than to its presence" (Richardson, 1973, p. 5002). Richardson further explained that perhaps the career role concept was the less stable one in our society and lacked the consistency between self-career role congruence and career orientation-behavior. She suggested that another possible explanation may have been that role conflict had affected the expected consistency between cognition, self and role concepts, and career orientation behavior for subjects who either viewed themselves as "similar to career women or evidenced career orientation behavior" (Richardson, 1973, p. 5002).

In another study of self concept, Gordon and Hall (1974) explored the relationship between types of role conflicts and methods of coping behavior to "1) self image of the individual woman; 2) her image of the feminine woman; and 3) her perception of the male image of the feminine woman" (p. 241). Questionnaires for rating stereotypes and self-image utilizing three sets of semantic differential adjectives were sent to 229 married female graduates of the University of Connecticut (Gordon and Hall, 1974). Gordon and Hall (1974) concluded that of the three image relationships, the woman's perception of the male stereotype was overall the most closely associated with conflicts. Conflict between the home role and the non-home role was reported by 31% of the sample (Gordon and Hall, 1974). As the number of conflicts involving non-home roles

decreased, the more "potent, supportive, and unemotional the woman per-
ceived the male stereotype of femininity to be" (Gordon and Hall, 1974,
p. 243). The study suggested that in the more male-dominated environment
outside the home, the man's standard of femininity created difficulties
for the woman (Gordon and Hall, 1974). Ultimately, it appeared to be the
"woman's own self image that determined her overall satisfaction and
happiness" (Gordon and Hall, 1974, p. 243).

Hjelle and Butterfield (1974) examined the relationship concerning
degrees of female self-actualization to attitudes toward women's rights
and roles in society. The "construct of self actualization" was selected
for investigation because of the "central role" it occupies in the
women's liberation struggle for personal and social development (Hjelle
and Butterfield, 1974). A diagnostic instrument designed to assess
values and self perceptions associated with self-actualization was given
to a pre-tested sample of 20 liberal and 20 conservative college females.
The results were that the liberal females scored significantly higher
than the conservative females in the areas of inner directedness, time
competency, feeling reactivity, spontaniety, self-regard, acceptance of
aggression, self-actualizing value, existentiality, self-acceptance, and
capacity for intimate contact (Hjelle and Butterfield, 1974). These
results suggested that liberal college students exhibited a markedly
higher level of personal growth than their "tradition-bound counterparts"
(Hjelle and Butterfield, 1974, p. 228).

In support of the research done by Hjelle and Butterfield,
Dempewolff (1974) attempted to determine the characteristics of individu-
als who supported or opposed the aims of the women's movement. "Feminists
state that they wish to break down cultural sex-role stereotypes and

establish a more flexible, less rigidly differentiated perception of sex

roles" (Dempewolff, 1974, p. 671). Dempewolff (1974) stated also that

one needed to have a "certain amount of autonomy" to view roles in this

manner and he defined autonomy as:

1) ... a general sense of control over one's destiny, a sense of efficacy, which permits an individual to accept changes in the environment without seeing them as personal threats.
2) ... independence from peer pressure concerning the 'proper way' to view sex roles.
3) ... a sense of security that enables one to view others as individuals rather than as stereotypes or as members of out-groups (p. 672).

Utilizing these three measures of autonomy, the results of a study of 112

students at the University of Cinncinnati supported the hypothesis that

persons supporting the aims of the women's movement would score higher on

measures of autonomy than those opposing the movement. The results, sig-

nificant at the .001 level, were as follows (Dempewolff, 1974):

1) The results for the Social Distance Scale indicated that, in this sample, opposers of feminism demonstrated more need to maintain distance from individuals they considered an out-group which may suggest a sense of insecurity about self worth.
2) ... the results for the Independence of Judgment Scale indicated that supporters of feminism ... valued creative work, placed particular value on the person as an individu- al, were independent, tended to be intraceptive rather than extraceptive, and had the ability to resist a group consen- sus. Opposers ... valued conformity and symmetry in most aspects of their lives, and were more likely to go along with a group consensus.
3) The results for the final measure of autonomy for the present sample indicated that supporters ... had a more 'modern' outlook about life in general, whereas opposers were more 'traditional' (p. 675).

Non-Working vs. Career-Oriented Role:

Husband's Interaction

Arnott (1972b) has presented a general thesis of interpersonal con-

gruency stating "that perceived congruency in the interpersonal matrix

leads to change" (p. 682). Her theory is strongly supported in a study of wives' self-concept, role behavior, and perceived attitudes of husbands. The husband's attitude plays a large part in a wife's decision concerning occupations. Arnott also postulated relevant attitude as a determining factor when adjustment in the interpersonal matrix required the sacrifice of one partner's preference or greater adjustment by one spouse. In the above case, attitude toward the right of women to self determination was the key: a liberal attitude proved to be associated with husband-adjustment and a conservative attitude with wife-adjustment. Arnott (1972b) found that women do seek, maintain, and restore congruency between self concept, behavior, and role performance of their husbands. Conservative (traditional) women tend to do so through self deception and self adjustment; moderate women through self deception and expectation of mutual adjustment; and liberal (equalitarian) women through a tolerance of temporary tension in anticipation of husband adjustment. Tension was evident in cases where the husband seemed to stand in the way of the wife's preferred role (Arnott, 1972b).

Bebbington (1973) stated that many sources of strain are more pronounced in the dual-career family. Externally, the discrepancy between the dual-career family and the prevailing social norms tends to entail conflict and a possible weakening of social relationships. Internally, the necessity of the husband and wife to perform adequately all the tasks in the home environment as well as their employment demands, can result in work overload and a number of dilemmas.

Applebaum (1952) disagreed with Bebbington by stating

Consensus of the research to date is that gainful employment of the wife is not a significant factor either in marriage success or marriage failure. It is a peg on which conflicts can be hung, a socially approved area in which to disagree (p. 13).

Bailyn (1970) found in a sample of 209 couples that 45% of non-working wives were not satisfied with their unemployment state and among the sub-sample who were gainfully employed, 40% reported that they are not in favor of married women engaging in long-range occupation commitments. The finding of Bailyn (1970) suggested that the fact of working is not a good indicator of a woman's career motivation. Many women are not satisfied in the role they are occupying.

Epstein and Bronzaft (1972) studied the responses of 1,063 freshman college students concerning traditional versus equalitarian roles. Among this group of students 48% saw themselves in 15 years as "married career women with children", while 28% saw themselves as a "housewife with one or more children." In a similar study done in 1965, 42% of the females had chosen "married career women" and 35% had chosen "housewife with one or more children." In both studies, no one chose to become a housewife with no children and very few chose to become either unmarried career women or married career women without children. The present study showed an even stronger rejection than the 1965 study of the traditional view of homemaker and at the same time, rejecting any suggestions of foregoing marriage or giving up having a family.

Warren (1956) studied the relationship of job satisfaction and marital satisfaction in a sample of 529 alumnae from a California college. The instrument utilized was the Strong Vocational Interest Blank for Women. Warren's findings were:

1) Alumnae who are married and have another occupation will have more clearly differentiated interest profiles than those whose role occupation is homemaking.
2) Married alumnae whose marital satisfaction scores are high will tend to have a higher score on the Housewife scale than will those whose marital satisfaction scores are lower.
3) Married alumnae who have occupations other than housewife

will tend to have higher marital satisfaction scores than will those who have no other occupation.

4) Alumnae who reject the housewife role as measured by the Strong Blank will tend to have lower marital satisfaction scores than will those who accept the housewife role as measured by the Strong Blank.

5) The greater the amount of job satisfaction claimed by the alumnae, the higher will be the relationship between measured interests and present occupation.

6) Alumnae whose job serves as a career will tend to have higher job satisfaction scores than will those whose jobs serve only as marking time or economic need.

7) Alumnae whose present occupation conforms with her measured interest will have tended as undergraduates:
   a) to have stated a vocational goal as a freshman consistent with their measured interest.
   b) to have selected major fields of study consistent with their measured interests (pp. 146-147).

Arnott (1972a) presented the view that satisfaction or dissatisfaction in the basic marital role can be expected to affect levels of aspiration in other roles. Therefore, satisfied and dissatisfied women may be found in both full-time homemaking and dual-career roles. Roles carry different meanings to individuals depending on their priorities; various roles can achieve the same objectives. Choice of roles can be expected to be based on comparison of alternatives offering more or less of valued rewards.

Maslow (1954) proposed a theory of personality development which stated "that not only do people reach a level of satisfaction with one type of reward, but also there is definite order in which various values become motivating forces" (p. 104). Maslow's "hierarchy of needs" has three main levels: 1) physiological and safety needs; 2) love and belongingness; and 3) esteem and self actualization. A woman's search for autonomy is centered on the third level.

Arnott suggested that when role choice is voluntary, married women select those roles which maximize their social reinforcement (money, prestige). Satisfaction or dissatisfaction in the basic marital role was

shown to affect future levels of aspirations and sense of freedom of choice.

The importance of the husband's actual acceptance of his wife working supported by Nye (1961) in a study of 197 working women and 395 nonworking women. His findings were:

1) There is no evidence that full-time employment of mothers improves marital adjustment for any socio-economic category; all analyses produced non-significant differences and all of these show a higher proportion of nonemployed mothers with good marital adjustment.
2) No difference was found significant in size of family to warrant interpretation. Marital adjustment does not appear to be more adversely affected by employment of mothers of large rather than of small families; the same was true for the age of the children if none were preschool or younger.
3) In families in which the wife is employed and the husband disapproves, marital adjustment averages poorer; however in families in which the wife is not employed, but the husband would approve of her entering the labor force, marital adjustment is poorer also (pp. 115-118).

The importance of Nye's findings is qualified by the fact that husbands of women employed full-time generally approve of the arrangement.

Ridley (1973) sampled 210 female teachers and 109 of their husbands on the premise that it is within professional groups where the greatest potential conflicts between work and marriage can be found. In Ridley's study, the job involvement variable concerned the time devoted to occupational role performance in excess of the normal work day: the amount of time devoted to reading, writing, talking, and thinking about the job. Ridley felt that it is this type of job involvement that is likely to interfere with the performance of marital roles. His findings suggested:

1) Significant association was found between teacher's job satisfaction and her marital adjustment when her husband had an education that was equal or less than hers.
2) The relationship between job satisfaction and marital adjustment for the husband is significant.
3) A significant association was found between the husband's job satisfaction and their marital adjustment when he was

> in the higher education level, higher income level or
> was in a professional group (pp. 232-234).

The above findings suggested that man is socialized to view work as important to self worth with few visible alternatives available for securing importance. Ridley (1973) also suggested that man has difficulty segregating the two major spheres of his life--work and family. The work-marriage relationship for females was more complex than for males. Some clarity can be achieved for the non-significant relationships and marital adjustment by focusing on the concept of dominance. Women view their work as secondary to the family. If a woman sees her work as relatively unimportant, it seems to make little difference in terms of the satisfaction or dissatisfaction derived from work and its impact on marital relations. On the other hand, a woman who views her work as important is in much the same position as the men when relating the impact of job satisfaction on her marital adjustment (Ridley, 1973).

Ridley (1973) found a significant relationship between job satisfaction and marital adjustment only when the couple had school age children. Perhaps it is not until the school age that work can become important to the mother. In the early years of marriage, the romanticism of being married can occupy the females' thoughts and actions, making it unnecessary to look outside the marital relationship for gratification. It is only when the children are out of the home much of the day and marriage relationship has settled that work can become an influential factor.

Non-Working vs. Career-Oriented Roles:

Children's Interaction

The Women's Bureau Employment Standards Administration (1972) stated that the presence of young children in the family affects a mother's decision whether to seek employment outside the home. The percentage of mothers who work is relatively low in families with young children. Among families with children under three years of age, only 27% of the mothers were in the labor force in March, 1971. For mothers with children between 3 and 5 years of age (none under three), the proportion was 38%. For those mothers with children 6 to 17 years of age only, the proportion was 52% of working mothers.

As for arrangement of child care, nearly one-half of the children under 12 years of age, in 1971, were cared for in their own homes. Only a small percentage received group care. The mother's decision to work, particularly full-time, was influenced by the ages of their children (Women's Bureau Employment Standards Administration, 1972).

Herzog (1960) feels that the children and family life are affected by the absence of the working mother. Several factors to consider are: accommodations of child care, homemaking tasks, and physical and psychological affect of carrying two jobs on the employed mother. But Herzog (1960) agrees that there is a strong and growing conviction among psychiatrists and social workers that some mothers are better mothers if their maternal activities are part-time rather than full-time. These children suffer adverse effects if the mother is forced into a homemaking role that she is not satisfied in.

Mead (1954) and Lott (1973) agree that children's needs can be adequately cared for by many warm friendly people and that one does not

have to be a woman to rear children. Fathers can satisfy their child-

ren's needs as well as mothers (Lott, 1973).

As for children's attitudes toward mother's employment, Broverman,

et al. (1972) conducted a study of 35 sons and 38 daughters of working

mothers. Their findings included:

1) Sons of employed mothers perceived a significantly smaller difference between women and men on the warmth and expressiveness cluster than did sons of homemaker mothers.
2) Daughters of employed mothers perceived women less nega- tively on the competency characteristics than did daughters of homemaker mothers (p. 74).

Lott (1973) stated that "daughters of working mothers tend to be

more assertive, less dependent, and less passive than other girls"

(p. 578).

Meier (1972) reported findings which suggest that the mother's role

is of considerable significance in shaping the sex role attitudes of

today's youth. In Meier's study of 219 students at the University of New

Mexico, two important and fairly distinct aspects of the mother's role

appeared:

1) The extent to which the mother predominates in the attitudinal socialization of the child.
2) The degree to which the mother exhibits attributes of social achievement in her own right; her children are aware of what women can be and can do (p. 120).

Also of importance are the modes of accommodation between domestic-

parental roles and her occupational-parental roles and her occupational-

community roles. Meier's findings suggest that perhaps the most

important vehicle for producing a more equalitarian conception of the

female roles, is through the non-traditional role of the mother.

This brief review of literature suggests that women are indeed going

through a transitional period concerning role decision. The contemporary

woman's role in society is ambiguous in many situations. Society is,

however, beginning to see the importance of sex role discrimination.
Factors a woman must consider before choosing her appropriate life style
are aspects of:

1) The traditional female role.

2) The equalitarian female role.

3) The biological or cultural personality traits.

4) The interpersonal traits of inclusion and control.

5) Female self concept and role socialization.

6) Husband's influence on decision of non-working vs. career role.

7) Children's influence on decision on non-working vs. career role.

It has been generalized that the traditional or equalitarian rela-
tionship is on a continuum--one may find traditional concepts in the
equalitarian marriage and conversely, one may find equalitarian concepts
in the traditional marriage (Raburn, 1970). Ort (1950) suggested that
the number of role conflicts within a marriage is significantly related
to the self-happiness of the individual. Much research needs to be done
in this area of broader role identification for women. The ambiguity and
stress between woman's search for autonomy versus external conflicts of
strict social role need to be replaced by freedom of choice. A woman
should have the opportunity to choose the life style most appropriate
for her and her family.

CHAPTER III

PROCEDURE

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship of non-
working and career-oriented women concerning traditional or equalitarian
attitudes towards role-taking to the interpersonality traits of inclusion
and control. In order to achieve the above purpose, the following steps
were followed: 1) selection of the subjects; 2) selection of the instru-
ments; 3) administration of the instruments; and 4) analysis of data.

Selection of Subjects

The subjects for this study were 57 non-working women and 51 career-
oriented women. The non-working women were selected from lists of
parents obtained from Stillwater Public Schools and a Welcome Wagon mem-
bership list from Tulsa. The women designated whether they were present-
ly not working or working on the questionnaires. The career-oriented
women were selected from several chapters of the American Business
Women's Association and the Business and Professional Women's Club in
Stillwater and Tulsa. Active membership in business and professional
clubs, regardless of type of employment was the criteria used for career
orientation in the selection of the subjects in this study. A systematic
selection of every third woman was utilized to obtain 300 possible
respondents---150 non-working and 150 career-oriented women. A woman
employed in what is considered as a professional field does not

necessarily guarantee that she is career-oriented, whereas a woman can be career-oriented in any field of employment if she finds self-fulfillment, personal growth, and pride in her occupation. By belonging to a professional organization, she is taking personal time from her family to invest in herself and her occupation. To obtain the membership lists of six organizations, a personal telephone call was placed to each of the chapter presidents explaining the specific purposes of this study, followed by a detailed letter addressed to the membership asking for individual cooperation. Approximately 40% or 120 of the questionnaires were returned, but only 108 questionnaires were utilized in the actual study. Eight questionnaires were not utilized because the respondents were not members of business clubs and four questionnaires were received after the data were already analyzed.

<div align="center">Selection of Instruments</div>

Marriage Role Expectation Inventory-Female Form

Dunn (1963) developed the self-administering MREI to help individuals understand the concepts of role expectations as a determinant of behavior. The inventory was used in the current study to determine the traditional and equalitarian attitudes of the respondents in their present situations. The MREI consisted of 71 statements, 37 items which determined traditional concepts and 34 items which determined equalitarian concepts. Respondents were asked to agree or disagree with each statement by circling the SA-strongly agree, A-agree, U-undecided, D-disagree, or SD-strongly disagree.

Dunn (1963) reported the validity of the instrument as being achieved in conceptual definitions of traditional and

equalitarian roles utilizing the consensus of judges, known to be familiar with the concepts, as the criteria in formulating and editing statements. The panel of judges was used to select the items; and no item was used that failed to discriminate at the .05 level of significance.

Dunn (1963) reported a measure of reliability for the instrument in which a split-half correlation coefficient was computed on scores of fifty respondents on the odd-numbered and on the even-numbered statements. An rho of .95 corrected by the Spearman-Brown formula to .975, compares favorably with those reported in the literature for attitude scales developed by the method of summated ratings.

Fundamental Interpersonal Relations-Orientation Behavior

The primary purposes of the FIRO-B (Schutz, 1958) are "1) to measure how an individual acts in interpersonal situations; and 2) to provide an instrument that will facilitate the prediction of interaction between people" (p. 58). To accomplish the second objective, two aspects of behavior in each dimension are assessed: the behavior the individual expresses towards others (expressed), and the behavior he wants others to express towards him (wanted). The two fundamental interpersonal dimensions used in this study were expressed inclusion and wanted inclusion and expressed control and wanted control.

The instrument consisted of 54 items in four subsets of statements. Respondents were asked to place a number which corresponded to an answer in the box left of the statement. Two of the sets of statements required answers of 1-usually, 2-often, 3-sometimes, 4-occasionally, 5-rarely,

6-never. The other two sets required answers of 1-most people, 2-many people, 3-some people, 4-a few people, 5-one or two people, and 6-nobody.

The FIRO-B scores reflected the amount of wanted and expressed behavior by an individual in the interpersonal areas of inclusion and control. The higher scores in expressed inclusion suggested the respondent had a high degree of actual interpersonal interaction. The higher score in wanted inclusion suggested the degree the respondent wanted others to include her in activities. The higher scores in expressed control suggested that the respondent manifested a high degree of control toward others, while the higher scores on the wanted control suggested that the respondent wanted others to control her in activities to a high degree.

Schutz (1967) reported a measure of reliability for the instrument utilizing: 1) Coefficient of Internal Consistency--since the scales of the FIRO-B are all Guttman scales, reproducibility was the appropriate measure of internal consistency. Reproducibility requires that not only all items measure the same dimension, but that all the items occur in a certain order. The usual criterion for reproducibility is that 90% of all responses were predictable from knowledge of scale score. The scales were developed on about 1,000 subjects and the reproducibility computed was .94.

2) Coefficient of Stability--the correlation between test scores and scores on retest after a time lapse of one month was .76. For the FIRO-B, the correlation of .76 was an important measure since interpersonal orientations were presumably stable traits (Schutz, 1967).

As to validity of the instrument, content validity was utilized. If the theory underlying the use of Guttman scales was accepted, then content validity was a property of the FIRO-B scales.

Administration of Instruments

The questionnaires were sent through the mail to non-working and career-oriented women. A self addressed business reply envelope was included. Each respondent was asked to return the completed questionnaire within two weeks of receiving date.

Analysis of Data

MREI: after applying the scoring key, the scores resulting from an item count of selected answers portrays the degree to which the respondent's attitude was "equalitarian" or "traditional". The higher scores reflected equalitarian concepts while the lower scores reflected traditional concepts. Respondents were grouped according to the following general classifications defined in the Teacher's and Counselor's Guide (Dunn, 1963): 0-18 traditarian; 19-35 moderately traditional; 36-53 moderately equalitarian; and 54-71 equalitarian. The instrument consisted of seven sub-scales: 1) authority; 2) homemaking; 3) care of the children; 4) personal characteristics; 5) social participation; 6) education; and 7) employment.

The Mann-Whitney U test was utilized to determine whether or not there were significant differences between non-working and career-oriented women. The Mann Whitney U was also utilized in determining if there were significant differences between non-working and career-oriented women concerning wanted and expressed inclusion and control scores on the FIRO-B.

The Spearman rank correlation coefficient was utilized to determine if there were any significant correlations between the MREI scores and the scores in each of the areas of the FIRO-B--wanted and expressed

inclusion and control scores.

 The chi-square analysis was utilized in determining if there were any significant differences between non-working and career-oriented women with regard to background characteristics and family background characteristics.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Description of the Subjects

Table I presents a detailed description of the 108 women who partic-
ipated in this study. There were 57 full-time homemakers and 51 career-
oriented women in the sample. Ages of the respondents ranged from 20 to
over 61 years, with the largest number (40.19%) of the total sample fall-
ing in the 31 to 40 years category. As for the non-working women, the
larger majority fell within the 31-40 group (67.44%) as compared to the
working women in the same category (32.56%). There was a higher percent-
age of working women (81.75%) than the non-working women (18.25%) in the
51-60 years category.

As for marital status of the non-working women, 60.22% were married
as compared to 39.78% who were employed. There were no single or widowed
homemakers and only one divorced homemaker.

Concerning religious preference, the greatest proportion (83.33%) of
the total sample were protestants, with 54.44% in the non-working group
and 45.56% in the working group. There were no respondents of the Jewish
religion. As for religious orientation, the greatest majority of both
groups, non-working (55.81%) as compared to working (44.19%), considered
themselves in the middle-of-road group. Comprising the conservative
religious groups were 51.27% of the non-working and 48.48% of working
respondents.

TABLE I

DESCRIPTION OF THE SUBJECTS

Variable	Classification	Non-Working		Working		Combined	
		N	%	N	%	N	%
Age	20-30 years	9	50.00	9	50.00	18	16.82
	31-40	29	67.44	14	32.56	43	40.19
	41-50	16	34.00	9	36.00	25	23.36
	51-60	3	18.75	13	81.25	16	14.95
	60 and over	0	0.00	5	100.00	5	4.67
Marital Status	Single	0	0.00	3	100.00	3	2.78
	Married	56	60.22	37	39.78	93	86.11
	Widow	0	0.00	5	100.00	5	4.63
	Divorced	1	14.29	6	85.71	7	6.48
Religious Preference	Catholic	6	60.00	4	40.00	10	9.26
	Protestant	49	54.44	41	45.56	90	83.33
	Jewish	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00
	Morman	1	50.00	1	50.00	2	1.85
	None	1	50.00	1	50.00	2	1.85
	Other	0	0.00	4	100.00	4	3.70
Family Religious Orientation	Orthodox/ Fundamentalist	1	33.33	2	66.67	3	2.86
	Conservative	17	51.52	16	48.48	33	31.43
	Middle-of-road	24	55.81	19	44.19	43	40.95
	Liberal	11	52.38	10	47.62	21	20.00
	None	3	60.00	2	40.00	5	4.76
Educational Attainment of Women	Attended high school, but didn't graduate	2	66.67	1	33.33	3	2.97
	Graduated from high school	12	54.55	10	45.45	22	21.78
	Attended college two or more years	11	57.89	8	42.11	19	18.81
	Attended professional school	5	22.73	17	77.27	22	21.78
	Graduated from 4 year college	23	74.19	8	25.81	31	30.69
	Completed or completing graduate school	1	25.00	3	75.00	4	3.96

TABLE I (Continued)

Variable	Classification	Non-Working		Working		Combined	
		N	%	N	%	N	%
Educational Attainment of Husband	Attended high school, but didn't graduate	2	66.67	1	33.33	3	2.86
	Graduated from high school	5	31.25	11	68.75	16	14.29
	Attended college two or more years	7	43.75	9	56.25	16	14.29
	Attended professional school	2	50.00	2	50.00	4	3.80
	Graduated from 4 year college	20	62.50	12	32.50	32	30.48
	Completed or completing graduate school	19	54.29	16	45.71	34	35.24
Woman's Role	Full-time homemaker	57	100.00	0	0.00	57	52.78
	Employed full time	0	0.00	51	100.00	51	47.22
Length of Marriage	1 month to 1 year	1	33.33	2	66.67	3	3.19
	2 years to 5 years	1	16.67	5	83.33	6	6.38
	6 years to 10 years	14	73.68	5	26.32	19	20.21
	11 years to 20 years	22	64.71	12	35.29	34	36.17
	21 years and longer	18	56.25	14	43.75	32	34.04
Number of Children	No children	0	0.00	10	100.00	10	9.43
	1 child	4	30.77	9	69.23	13	12.26
	2 children	28	62.22	17	37.78	45	42.45
	3 children	12	57.14	9	42.86	21	19.81
	4 or more	13	76.47	4	23.53	17	16.04
Satisfaction of Family Planning	Very satisfied	45	54.88	37	45.12	82	77.36
	Somewhat satisfied	6	46.15	7	53.85	13	12.26
	Somewhat dissatisfied	6	66.67	3	33.33	9	8.49
	Very dissatisfied	0	0.00	2	100.00	2	1.89

As for educational attainment of the women, 74.19% non-working women had graduated from a four-year college as compared to 25.81% career-oriented women. As for those who attended professional school, 22.73% were homemakers as compared to 77.27% who were employed.

As for educational attainment of the husbands, of those who had graduated from a four-year college, 62.50% had non-working wives, compared to 32.50% working wives. Of those men who graduated from high school, 31.25% had non-working wives as compared to 68.75% who had employed wives. As for the entire sample, the majority of men (65.72%) had graduated from a four-year college or had completed or were in the process of completing graduate school.

Concerning length of marriage, in the two years to five years category, 16.67% were non-working compared to 83.33% who were employed, whereas those women in the six years to ten years category, 73.68% were non-working as compared to 26.32% who were presently employed. For the entire sample, 70.21% had been married at least 11 years and longer.

As for the number of children in the family, the greatest proportion of the total sample (42.45%) had two children. Of the couples who had no children, there were no full-time homemakers. Of the couples who had one child, 30.77% were homemakers, while 69.23% were presently employed. Families with two children had 62.22% full-time homemakers and 37.78% working mothers. Those couples with four or more children were primarily homemakers (76.47%).

As for satisfaction with family planning, 77.36% of the entire sample were very satisfied. A greater proportion of non-working (54.88%) compared to working women (45.12%) were satisfied with their family planning.

Present Role-Taking Attitude Scale

In Table II, the respondents were requested to answer the questions as they pertained to their attitudes toward the role in which they are presently engaged. The 57 full-time homemakers were asked to respond to the statement, "As a full-time homemaker, I am very satisfied in my role." The great majority (75.44%) strongly agreed or agreed with the statement while 14.03% indicated dissatisfaction with their present role of homemaker.

The 51 career-oriented women were asked to respond to the statement, "I am very satisfied with my employment." There were 78.43% who strongly agreed or agreed with the statement whereas 9.80% were not satisfied with their employment.

The 51 career-oriented women were asked to respond to the statement, "I feel I have great potential for advancement in my occupation." Over 56% strongly agreed or agreed whereas 17.64% strongly disagreed or disagreed. One-fourth (25.49%) of the career-oriented women were neutral to the statement.

Analysis of the Marriage Role

Expectation Inventory

Analysis of the MREI scores revealed no respondents with traditional attitudes toward role-taking in marriage. The total number in the moderate traditional group was four. The moderately equalitarian and equalitarian groups were collapsed, and a total of 104 respondents comprised the equalitarian group.

TABLE II

PRESENT ROLE-TAKING ATTITUDE SCALE

Answer	Number	Percentage

"As a full-time homemaker, I am very satisfied in my role." The 57 home-makers responded:

Answer	Number	Percentage
Strongly Agree	29	50.88
Agree	14	24.56
Neutral	6	10.53
Disagree	7	12.28
Strongly Disagree	1	1.75

"I am very satisfied with my employment." The 51 career-oriented women responded:

Answer	Number	Percentage
Strongly Agree	19	37.25
Agree	21	41.18
Neutral	6	11.76
Disagree	3	5.88
Strongly Disagree	2	3.92

"I feel I have great potential for advancement in my occupation." The 51 career-oriented women responded:

Answer	Number	Percentage
Strongly Agree	13	25.49
Agree	16	31.37
Neutral	13	25.49
Disagree	4	7.84
Strongly Disagree	5	9.80

Examination of Hypotheses

Hypothesis I - <u>There will be no significant differences in attitudes
towards traditional or equalitarian role-taking as measured by the MREI
between non-working women and career-oriented women.</u> The Mann-Whitney U
analysis indicated that there were no significant differences in atti-
tudes towards traditional or equalitarian role-taking as measured by the
MREI between non-working and career-oriented women.

Hypothesis II - <u>There will be no significant differences between
non-working women and career-oriented women concerning wanted inclusion
scores from the FIRO-B.</u> The Mann-Whitney U indicated no significant
difference existed.

Hypothesis III - <u>There will be no significant differences between
non-working women and career-oriented women concerning expressed
inclusion scores.</u> The Mann-Whitney U was utilized and the analysis
showed no significant difference between the two groups.

Hypothesis IV - <u>There will be no significant differences between
non-working women and career-oriented women concerning wanted control
scores from the FIRO-B.</u> The Mann-Whitney U test indicated that there was
no significant difference between non-working and career-oriented women
concerning wanted control scores.

Hypothesis V - <u>There will be no significant differences between
non-working and career-oriented women concerning expressed control scores
from the FIRO-B.</u> By utilizing the Mann-Whitney U test, no significant
differences were found between non-working and career-oriented women con-
cerning expressed control scores.

Hypothesis VI - <u>There will be no significant correlation between the
MREI scores and the scores in each of the following areas:</u> (a) expressed

inclusion; (b) wanted inclusion; (c) expressed control; and (d) wanted control. Utilizing the Spearman rank correlation coefficient in Table III, only the scores on expressed control were found to have a significant correlation with scores on the MREI (significant at the .02 level). This finding indicated that a woman with higher equalitarian attitudes than her peers may express or wish to express more control over herself and those around her.

TABLE III

SPEARMAN RANK CORRELATION COEFFICIENT BETWEEN SCORES ON THE MREI
AND THE SCORES ON EXPRESSED CONTROL OF THE FIRO-B

Description	Spearman rank correlation coefficient	Level of Significance
Scores of Expressed Control and MREI	.235	.02

Hypothesis VII - There will be no significant differences between non-working women and career-oriented women in regard to background characteristics and family background characteristics. The chi square analysis revealed no significant differences between non-working women and career-oriented women in regard to the following background characteristics and family background characteristics: (a) religious preference; (b) family's religious orientation; (c) husband's educational attainment; (d) length of marriage; and (e) family planning.

Hypothesis VII (a) - There is no significant difference between

non-working women and career-oriented women with regard to age. A sig-
nificant difference was found to exist between non-working and career-
oriented women when classified according to age. Table IV shows a
chi-square value of 18.06 was obtained which was significant at the .01
level. More than twice as many women in the age cateogry 31-40 were
homemakers (67.44%) rather than career-oriented (32.56%). Whereas four
times as many women in the 51-60 category are career-oriented (81.25%)
rather than homemakers (18.75%).

TABLE IV

CHI-SQUARE VALUE REFLECTING DIFFERENCES BETWEEN NON-WORKING
WOMEN AND CAREER-ORIENTED WOMEN WITH REGARD TO AGE

Value Age	Non-Working N	%	Career-Oriented N	%	X^2	Level of Significance
20-30	9	50.00	9	50.00		
31-40	29	67.44	14	32.56		
41-50	16	34.00	9	36.00	18.06	.01
51-60	3	18.75	13	81.25		
61 and over	0	0.00	5	100.00		

Hypothesis VII(b) - There is no significant differences between
non-working women and career-oriented women with regard to marital
status. A significant difference was found to exist between non-working
and career-oriented women according to marital status. As may be seen in

Table V a chi-square value of 15.17 which was significant at the .01 level was found. There were 60.22% of the married women who were home-makers compared to 39.78% who were career-oriented. Whereas only one woman in the divorced category was a homemaker, and there were no home makers in the single or widowed categories. Even with such a small sample, this finding may indicate that women who are not presently mar-ried do not have the choice of being homemakers or career-oriented as do their married peers.

TABLE V

CHI-SQUARE VALUE REFLECTING DIFFERENCES BETWEEN NON-WORKING AND
CAREER-ORIENTED WOMEN WITH REGARD TO MARITAL STATUS

Value Marital Status	Non-Working		Career-Oriented		X^2	Level of Significance
	N	%	N	%		
Single	0	50.00	3	100.00		
Married	56	60.22	37	39.78		
					15.17	.01
Widowed	0	0.00	5	100.00		
Divorced	1	14.29	6	85.71		

Hypothesis VII(c) - There is no significant differences between non-working and career-oriented women with regard to their educational attainment. A significant difference was found to exist between non-working and career-oriented women according to their educational attain-ment. Table VI reports a chi-square value of 15.38 which was

significant at the .01 level. More than two-thirds more women who attended professional school (77.27%) were career-oriented than non-working (22.73%). Approximately two-thirds of the women who graduated from a four-year college were homemakers (74.19%) as compared to those who were career-oriented (25.81%).

TABLE VI

CHI-SQUARE VALUE REFLECTING DIFFERENCES BETWEEN NON-WORKING AND
CAREER-ORIENTED WOMEN WITH REGARD TO EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT

Value Educational Attainment of Women	Non-Working N	Non-Working %	Career-Oriented N	Career-Oriented %	χ^2	Level of Significance
Didn't graduate from high school	2	66.67	1	33.33		
Graduated high school	12	54.55	10	45.45		
Attended college 2 or more years	11	57.89	8	42.11		
Attended professional school	5	22.73	17	77.27	15.38	.01
Graduated from 4-year college	23	74.19	8	25.81		
Completed or completing graduate school	1	25.00	3	75.00		

Hypothesis VII(d) - <u>There is no significant differences between</u> <u>non-working and career-oriented women with regard to the number of child-</u> <u>ren in the family</u>. A significant difference was found to exist between non-working and career-oriented women concerning the number of children in the family. Table VII showed a chi-square value of 19.31 which was significant at the .001 level. More than twice as many women who had one child were career-oriented (69.23%) as compared with those women who had one child and were homemakers (30.77%). Of the women with two children, 62.22% were homemakers as compared to approximately 38% of those who were career-oriented. Almost two-thirds more women who had four or more children were homemakers (76.47%) as compared to those in the work force (23.53%).

TABLE VII

CHI-SQUARE VALUE REFLECTING DIFFERENCES BETWEEN NON-WORKING AND
CAREER-ORIENTED WOMEN WITH REGARD TO NUMBER OF CHILDREN

Value Number of Children	Non-Working		Career-Oriented		χ^2	Level of Significance
	N	%	N	%		
0	0	0.00	10	100.00		
1	4	30.77	9	69.23		
2	28	62.22	17	37.78	19.31	.001
3	12	57.14	9	42.86		
4 or more	13	76.47	4	23.53		

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY

The purposes of this study were (1) to examine the attitudes concerning traditional or equalitarian role-taking of non-working and career-oriented women utilizing the Marriage Role Expectation Inventory (Dunn, 1963); (2) to compare the personality interaction traits of wanted or expressed inclusion and control of the above sample utilizing the Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation-Behavior (Schutz, 1958); (3) to examine the relationship between attitudes towards traditional or equalitarian role-taking and personality interaction traits of inclusion and control; and (4) to examine the background and family background characteristics of the non-working and the career-oriented women.

The sample was composed of 57 non-working women and 51 career-oriented women from the Stillwater and Tulsa areas. The majority of these women were presently married with children. All of the women, except three, had graduated from high school, with a large majority having graduated from a four year college. The sample was predominantly protestant with moderate and conservative family religious orientation. The data were obtained in July, 1975.

The questionnaire included the following sections: a) an information sheet for securing background data; b) the Marriage Role Expectation Inventory (Dunn, 1963), designed to measure attitudes towards traditional and equalitarian role-taking; and c) the Fundamental Interpersonal

Relations Orientation-Behavior (Schutz, 1968) designed to measure the interpersonal traits of wanted and expressed inclusion and control.

The Mann-Whitney $\underline{U}$ test was utilized in examining the hypotheses concerned with the FIRO-B and non-working and career-oriented women. The Speakman rank correlation coefficient was utilized in examining the hypotheses concerned with the correlation of the FIRO-B scores with the scores from the MREI.

The chi-square test was utilized to examine the background and family background variables of: a) age; b) marital status; c) religious preferences; d) family's religious orientation; e) woman's educational attainment; f) husband's educational attainment; g) woman's present role-taking; h) length of marriage; i) number of children; j) satisfaction of family planning between non-working and career-oriented women.

The results of this study were as follows:

(1) There was no significant difference found in attitudes towards traditional or equalitarian role-taking as measured by the MREI between non-working women and career-oriented women. Since there were only four respondents in the traditional-moderately traditional category and 104 in the moderately equalitarian-equalitarian category, the woman's present role does not seem to be an indication of her attitudes. Apparently, some homemakers can be equalitarian and a career-oriented woman can be quite traditional in her home life. This finding coincides with the finding of Poloma and Garland (1971) who discovered that women in professional fields do not necessarily become equalitarian in home life. This writer's finding varies from the finding of Dunn (1960) who conducted her study in the late 1950's to measure marital role expectations of adolescents whereas this writer used Dunn's instrument to measure attitudes of

women who were already in the marriage role. Whereas Dunn's respondents were more or less equally divided in equalitarian and traditional scores, this study conducted fifteen years later provided a sample that was almost totally equalitarian. This finding may indicate that attitudes in role-taking for women are indeed changing.

(2) There was no significant difference found between non-working women and career-oriented women concerning FIRO-B scores on a) wanted inclusion, b) expressed inclusion; c) wanted control; and d) expressed control. This finding may indicate that as a woman has more freedom in choosing her role, personality traits may not be a major factor in determining her decision. Non-working women can express as much control over herself and her family as a career-oriented woman and both groups may have high wanted and expressed inclusion scores.

(3) There was no significant correlation found between the MREI scores and the scores in each of the following areas of the FIRO-B: a) expressed inclusion; b) wanted inclusion; and c) wanted control. This finding may have reflected the fact that the great majority of the respondents were in the equalitarian category.

(4) A significant correlation at the .02 level was found between MREI scores and expressed control scores from the FIRO-B. This finding suggested that the more equalitarian attitudes a woman possesses, the more control she expresses towards others. Biggs, et al. (1966) found that many leaders have a significantly stronger need to express control. Gorlow and Barocas (1964) found that persons who value a life of action and enjoyment expressed significantly higher expressed control scores.

(5) There were no significant differences found in the following background and family background characteristics between non-working and

career-oriented women: a) religious preferences; b) family's religious orientation; c) husband's educational attainment; d) length of marriage; and e) satisfaction of family planning.

(6) A significant difference at the .01 level was found to exist between non-working and career-oriented women classified according to age. More than twice as many homemakers (67.4%) than career-oriented women (32.6%) were in the 31-40 category. Four times as many career-oriented women (81.2%) than homemakers (18.8%) were in the 51-60 category. The finding which states that twice as many homemakers than career-oriented women were in the 31-40 category conflicted with the statistics of the Women's Bureau Employment Standards Administration (1972) which stated that the median age of the working mother in the U.S. was 37 years old. Of course the figures were taken from two different samples. This writer's sample may be composed of women who have younger children at an older age or women who are staying home until their children are in high school or college. This may account for the larger percentage of women who are working in the 51 to 60 category. These women may be in the empty nest stage and now have the time to pursue a career. Also, because the majority of this sample is from a middle or upper middle socio-economic level, the need to work for financial support may not be a deciding factor for earlier employment.

(7) A significant difference at the .01 level was found to exist between non-working and career-oriented women according to marital status. More than one-third of the women in the married category (60.2%) were homemakers rather than career-oriented (39.8%). There was only one homemaker in the divorced category and no homemakers in the single or widowed groups. Women who were presently married had the option of

working or not working whereas single, divorced, and widowed women must work to support themselves. This finding was supportive of the finding of Epstein and Bronzaft (1972) which stated that 48% of 1,063 students saw themselves as "married career women with children", while 28% saw themselves as a "housewife with one or more children", but no one chose to become a housewife with no children and very few chose to become either unmarried career women or married career women without children (p. 671). This suggests that while the majority of these students were rejecting the traditional role of homemaker, very few were thinking of foregoing marriage or giving up a family.

(8) A significant difference was found at the .01 level between non-working and career-oriented women with regard to their educational attainment. More than two-thirds of the women (77.3%) who attended professional school (business, secretarial, beautician, etc.) were career-oriented compared to the non-working (22.7%). It is of interest to note that of all the women who graduated from a four year college two-thirds (74.2%) were homemakers, as compared to those who were career-oriented (25.8%). This surprising finding is related to the Poloma and Garland (1971) study in which the professional women were very traditional in their home lives rejecting the hypothesis that professionally careered women were equalitarians not only on their jobs, but also at home. Assuming that this finding is related, the women in this writer's study may have chosen the role of homemaker over career. Having the satisfaction of completing a degree, these women had the self-confidence to chose either role. Poloma and Garland's (1971) respondents stated that it was as if they had the "best of two possible worlds". Another assumption may be that many of these women have young children and are not presently

able to pursue their careers. This finding conflicts with Gysbers, et al. (1968) who state that career-oriented college women are more intellectual and enterprising, while homemaker-oriented women are the more social and conventional types. Their finding is not necessarily true with this sample.

(9) A significant difference at the .001 level was found to exist between non-working and career-oriented women concerning the number of children in the family. Of all the women who had one child, more than twice as many were career-oriented (69.2%) than homemakers (30.8%). Of all the women who had two children, only 37.8% were career-oriented compared to 62.2% who were homemakers. Of the women who had four or more children, 76.5% were homemakers and only 23.5% were career-oriented. This finding indicates that the more children a woman has, the less likely she will be career-oriented--at least until her children are grown. This may explain why there were quite a few women working in the 51-60 age category.

This study does not indicate that there is a great difference between non-working and career-oriented women concerning traditional and equalitarian role-taking if they have the freedom of choosing their role. Of the 57 full-time homemakers, 75.44% expressed satisfaction with their roles. Of the career-oriented, 78.43% also expressed satisfaction with their roles. It is interesting that of these career-oriented women, only 25.49% felt that they have great potential for advancement in their occupations. They may be due to society's reluctancy to consider women as business equals. It is also possible that many of these women are in fields that offer very little advancement even though they take pride in their occupations. Other factors that may hinder advancement in

occupations are: a) married women are not as mobile as men; b) many employers do not consider women as management trainees; c) married women may place their jobs second to family--miss work if a child is ill; and d) pregnancy will prevent upward mobility.

There has been much literature written on the working wife and mother, but more research is needed in areas in which the women are strongly career-oriented. With more emphasis placed on women's self identity and sense of autonomy, many families will feel the strains of such relationships. Research is needed in understanding how such situations will affect each member of the family and what adjustments are important to consider in keeping the family members satisfied. Such research will be very helpful in marriage and family relations counseling. This information would also be very helpful to persons engaged in teaching family life education in which there is much concern about preparation for successful male and female role-taking.

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APPENDIXES

OKLAHOMA STATE UNIVERSITY · STILLWATER

Department of Family Relations & Child Development   74074
(405) 372-6211. Ext. 6084

Dear Respondent:

The roles of women are in the process of change in our society today.
Subsequently, women have more freedom in choosing relevant life styles
for themselves in relation to their families. Because of the increased
emphasis on the importance of the roles of women, I am conducting a
study concerned with women's role-taking in society. You have been
selected as an individual who would be well qualified to participate in
this project. It is hoped that the information gained from this study
will increase our understanding of the rewards and problems in various
life styles.

If you would be willing to assist me in this research, please fill out
the enclosed questionnaire, which will take approximately 20 minutes to
complete. A stamped, addressed envelope is enclosed for your conven-
ience. You are asked to return the questionnaire to me at the earliest
possible date.

You need not include your name on the questionnaire; therefore, your
anonymous response is assured. Please answer all the questions as
honestly as possible. If you would like a brief summary of the findings
of this research when it is completed, send me a postal card in a sepa-
rate envelope giving your name and address.

Your assistance with this research is greatly appreciated. It is
through participation of individuals, such as yourself, that we gain
greater knowledge and understanding of family interaction as it is
today.

Sincerely yours,

Mona Yee, Graduate Student
Family Relations and Child Development

Dr. Althea Wright, Professor and Major Advisor
Family Relations and Child Development

MY/AW:ch
847 725

Enclosures

GENERAL INFORMATION

Your cooperation in this research project is greatly appreciated. The absence of your name assures anonymity. Please check or fill in answers as appropriate to each question. The blanks at the extreme left of the page are for purposes of coding (do not fill in).

_____ 1.-3.

_____ 4. Age _____

_____ 5. Marital Status _____

_____ 6. Religious preference:

         _____ a. Catholic   _____ d. Morman
         _____ b. Protestant   _____ e. None
         _____ c. Jewish   _____ f. Other _____

_____ 7. Indicate your family's present type of religious orientation:

         _____ a. Orthodox/Fundamentalist
         _____ b. Conservative
         _____ c. Middle-of-road
         _____ d. Liberal
         _____ e. None

_____ 8. Education attainment of yourself and your husband:
       Yourself   Husband

Yourself	Husband		
_____	_____	a.	Less than grade 8
_____	_____	b.	Completed 8th, but haven't attended 9th
_____	_____	c.	Attended high school, but didn't graduate
_____	_____	d.	Graduated from high school
_____	_____	e.	Attended college two or more years
_____	_____	f.	Attended professional school
_____	_____	g.	Graduated from 4-year college
_____	_____	h.	Completed or completing graduate school

_____ 9. At present, are you:

         _____ a. A full-time homemaker
         _____ b. Employed by others full-time
         _____ c. Employed by others part-time
         _____ d. Self-employed
         _____ e. Other _____

_____ 10. If employed, please state your job title:

_____

_____ 11. Your husband's job title:

_____

_____ 12. How long have you been married to your present spouse? _____

_____13. How many children do you have? _____; Ages _____

_____14. Have you been satisfied with your family planning?

        _____ a. Very satisfied
        _____ b. Somewhat satisfied
        _____ c. Somewhat dissatisfied
        _____ d. Very dissatisfied

_____15. If you are dissatisfied with your family planning, please state reason (Example: too many children too soon):

_____

_____16. If you are employed, are you a member of the:

        _____ a. American Business Women's Association
        _____ b. Business and Professional Women's Club
        _____ c. Other business organization (name of group):

_____

For each item below, indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree by circling the response which best describes your feelings. There are no right or wrong answers because each person is entitled to her own opinion.

The response code is as follows:

        SA - Strongly Agree; A - Agree; N - Neutral; D - Disagree;
        SD - Strongly Disagree

_____17. SA A N D SD   I am very satisfied with my employment.

_____18. SA A N D SD   I feel I have great potential for advancement in my occupation.

_____19. SA A N D SD   As a full-time homemaker, I am very satisfied in my role.

_____20. SA A N D SD   If there is a difference of opinion, my husband will decide where to live.

_____21. SA A N D SD   My opinion will carry as much weight as my husband's in money matters.

_____22. SA A N D SD   I expect my husband to help with the housework.

_____23. SA A N D SD   It would be undesirable for me to be better educated than my husband.

_____24. SA A N D SD   If we marry before going to college, my husband and I will do our best to go on to earn college degrees.

_____ 25. SA A N D SD I expect to combine motherhood and a career if that proves possible.

_____ 26. SA A N D SD I expect my husband to be the "boss", who says what is to be done and what is not to be done.

_____ 27. SA A N D SD I will be as well informed as my husband concerning the family's financial status and business affairs.

_____ 28. SA A N D SD I expect my husband to leave the care of the children entirely up to me when they are babies.

_____ 29. SA A N D SD I expect my husband to be as interested in spending time with the girls as with the boys in our family.

_____ 30. SA A N D SD If I prefer a career to having children, I will have the right to make that choice.

_____ 31. SA A N D SD For the most successful family living, my husband and I will need more than a high school education.

_____ 32. SA A N D SD It will be more important for me to be a good cook and housekeeper than for me to be an attractive and interesting companion.

_____ 33. SA A N D SD Being married will not keep my husband from going to college.

_____ 34. SA A N D SD The family "schedule", such as when meals are served and when the television can be turned on, will be determined by my husband's wishes and working hours.

_____ 35. SA A N D SD My husband and I will share responsibility for work if both of us work outside the home.

_____ 36. SA A N D SD Keeping the yard, making repairs, and doing outside chores will be the responsibility of whoever has the time and wishes to do them.

_____ 37. SA A N D SD If my husband is a good worker, respectable, and faithful to his family, other personal characteristics are of considerably less importance.

_____ 38. SA A N D SD   It will be more important that, as a wife,
                              I have a good family background than that
                              I have a compatible personality and get
                              along well with people.

_____ 39. SA A N D SD   Almost all money matters will be decided
                              by my husband.

_____ 40. SA A N D SD   My husband and I shall have equal privi-
                              leges in such things as going out at night.

_____ 41. SA A N D SD   My husband's major responsibility to our
                              children will be to make a good living,
                              provide a home, and make them mind.

_____ 42. SA A N D SD   Since doing things like laundry, cleaning,
                              and child care are "woman's work", my hus-
                              band will feel no responsibility for them.

_____ 43. SA A N D SD   Week-ends to be a period of rest for my
                              husband, so he will not be expected to
                              assist with cooking and housekeeping.

_____ 44. SA A N D SD   If my husband helps with the housework, I
                              will help with outside chores, such as
                              keeping the yard, painting, or repairing
                              the house.

_____ 45. SA A N D SD   My husband and I will have equal voice in
                              decisions affecting the family as a whole.

_____ 46. SA A N D SD   After marriage, I will forget an education
                              and make a home for my husband.

_____ 47. SA A N D SD   I will love and respect my husband, re-
                              gardless of the kind of work he does.

_____ 48. SA A N D SD   I should work outside the home if I enjoy
                              working more than staying at home.

_____ 49. SA A N D SD   Both my husband and I will concern our-
                              selves with the social and emotional de-
                              velopment of our children.

_____ 50. SA A N D SD   It will be just as important for my hus-
                              band to be congenial, love, and enjoy his
                              family as to earn a good living.

_____ 51. SA A N D SD   It will be equally as important that, as a
                              wife, I am affectionate and understanding
                              as that I am thrifty and skillful in
                              housekeeping.

_____52.　SA　A　N　D　SD　It will be my husband's responsibility and privilege to choose where we will go and what we will do when we go out.

_____53.　SA　A　N　D　SD　Manage my time so that I can show a genuine interest in what our children do.

_____54.　SA　A　N　D　SD　I will let my husband tell me how to vote.

_____55.　SA　A　N　D　SD　My husband and I will take an active interest together in what's going on in our community.

_____56.　SA　A　N　D　SD　If I can cook, sew, keep house, and care for children, any other kind of education for me is unnecessary.

_____57.　SA　A　N　D　SD　Having compatible personalities will be considerably less important to us than such characteristics as being religious, honest, and hard working.

_____58.　SA　A　N　D　SD　It will be only natural that my husband be the one concerned about politics and what is going on in the world.

_____59.　SA　A　N　D　SD　Accept the fact that my husband will devote most of his time to getting ahead and becoming a success.

_____60.　SA　A　N　D　SD　Being married should cause little or no change in my husband's social or recreational activities.

_____61.　SA　A　N　D　SD　I will generally prefer talking about something like clothes, places to go, and "women's interests" to talking about complicated international and economic affairs.

_____62.　SA　A　N　D　SD　My activities outside the home will be largely confined to those associated with the church.

_____63.　SA　A　N　D　SD　Stay at home to care for my husband and children instead of using time attending a club meeting and entertainment outside the home.

_____64.　SA　A　N　D　SD　An education is important for me whether or not I work outside the home.

_____65.　SA　A　N　D　SD　I will keep myself informed and active in the work of the community.

_____66. SA A N D SD   Since my husband must earn a living, he can't be expected to take time to "play" with the children.

_____67. SA A N D SD   It is my job, rather than my husband's, to set a good example and see that my family goes to church.

_____68. SA A N D SD   It will be more important that my husband is ambitious and a good provider than that he is kind, understanding, and gets along well with people.

_____69. SA A N D SD   It will be equally as important to find time to enjoy our children as to do things like bathing, dressing, and feeding them.

_____70. SA A N D SD   Fit my life to my husband's.

_____71. SA A N D SD   Managing and planning for spending money will be a joint proposition between my husband and me.

_____72. SA A N D SD   I expect my husband to manage his time so that he will be able to share in the care of the children.

_____73. SA A N D SD   Having guests in our home will not prevent my husband's lending a hand with serving meals or keeping the house orderly.

_____74. SA A N D SD   We will permit the children to share, according to their abilities, with the parents in making family decisions.

_____75. SA A N D SD   I expect my husband to help wash or dry dishes.

_____76. SA A N D SD   My husband should be entirely responsible for earning the living for our family.

_____77. SA A N D SD   Staying at home with the children will be my duty, rather than my husband's.

_____78. SA A N D SD   An education for my husband will be as important in making him a more cultured person as in helping him to earn a living.

_____79. SA A N D SD   My husband should feel equally as responsible for the children after work and on holidays as I do.

_____80. SA   A   N   D   SD   My husband should make most of the decisions concerning the children, such as where they will go and what they may do.

_____81. SA   A   N   D   SD   It will be exclusively my duty to do the cooking and keeping the house in order.

_____82. SA   A   N   D   SD   My husband will forget about an education after he is married and support me.

_____83. SA   A   N   D   SD   My husband and I will share household tasks according to individual interests and abilities, rather than according to "woman's work" and "man's work".

_____84. SA   A   N   D   SD   As far as education is concerned, it is unimportant for either my husband or me, if both of us are ambitious and hard working.

_____85. SA   A   N   D   SD   My husband should earn a good living if he expects love and respect from his family.

_____86. SA   A   N   D   SD   Whether or not I work will depend on what we, as a couple, think is best for our own happiness.

_____87. SA   A   N   D   SD   If I am not going to work outside the home, there is no reason for my getting a college education.

_____88. SA   A   N   D   SD   As our children grow up, the boys will be more my husband's responsibility, while the girls will be mine.

_____89. SA   A   N   D   SD   My husband and I will feel equally responsible for looking after the welfare of our children.

_____90. SA   A   N   D   SD   I will take full responsibility for care and training of our children so that my husband can devote his time to his work.

For each statement below, decide which of the following answers best applies to you. Place the number of the answer in the box at the left of the statement. Please be as honest as you can.

1. usually   2. often   3. sometimes   4. occasionally   5. rarely   6. never

|___| 1.   I try to be with people.

|___| 2.   I let other people decide what to do.

|___| 3.   I join social groups.

|☐| 4. I try to have close relationships with people.

|☐| 5. I tend to join social organizations when I have an opportunity.

|☐| 6. I let other people strongly influence my actions.

|☐| 7. I try to be included in informal social activities.

|☐| 8. I try to have close, personal relationships with people.

|☐| 9. I try to include other people in my plans.

|☐| 10. I let other people control my actions.

|☐| 11. I try to have people around me.

|☐| 12. I try to get close and personal with people.

|☐| 13. When people are doing things together I tend to join them.

|☐| 14. I am easily led by people.

|☐| 15. I try to avoid being alone.

|☐| 16. I try to participate in group activities.

For each of the next group of statements, choose one of the following answers:

1. most people	2. many people	3. some people	4. a few people	5. one or two people	6. nobody

|☐| 17. I try to be friendly to people.

|☐| 18. I let other people decide what to do.

|☐| 19. My personal realtions with people are cool and distant.

|☐| 20. I let other people take charge of things.

|☐| 21. I try to have close relationships with people.

|☐| 22. I let other people strongly influence my actions.

|☐| 23. I try to get close and personal with people.

|☐| 24. I let other people control my actions.

|☐| 25. I act cool and distant with people.

|☐| 26. I am easily led by people.

|☐| 27. I try to have close, personal relationships with people.

For each of the next group of statements, choose one of the following answers:

1. most   2. many   3. some   4. a few   5. one or two   6. nobody
   people   people   people   people   people

|☐| 28. I like people to invite me to things.

|☐| 29. I like people to act close and personal with me.

|☐| 30. I try to influence strongly other people's actions.

|☐| 31. I like people to invite me to join in their activities.

|☐| 32. I like people to act close toward me.

|☐| 33. I try to take charge of things when I am with people.

|☐| 34. I like people to include me in their activities.

|☐| 35. I like people to act cool and distant toward me.

|☐| 36. I try to have other people do things the way I want them done.

|☐| 37. I like people to ask me to participate in their discussions.

|☐| 38. I like people to act friendly toward me.

|☐| 39. I like people to invite me to participate in their activities.

|☐| 40. I like people to act distant toward me.

For each of the next group of statements, choose one of the following answers:

1. usually 2. often 3. sometimes 4. occasionally 5. rarely 6. never

|☐| 41. I try to be the dominant person when I am with people.

|☐| 42. I like people to invite me to things.

|☐| 43. I like people to act close toward me.

|☐| 44. I try to have other people do things I want done.

|☐| 45. I like people to invite me to join their activities.

|☐| 46. I like people to act cool and distant toward me.

|☐| 47. I try to influence strongly other people's actions.

|☐| 48. I like people to include me in their activities.

|☐| 49. I like people to act close and personal with me.

|☐| 50. I try to take charge of things when I'm with people.

|☐| 51. I like people to invite me to participate in their activities.

|☐| 52. I like people to act distant toward me.

|☐| 53. I try to have other people do things the way I want them done.

|☐| 54. I take charge of things when I'm with people.

VITA

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Master of Science

Thesis: INTERPERSONAL TRAITS OF INCLUSION AND CONTROL OF NON-WORKING AND
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Personal Data: Born in Hong Kong, September 13, 1950, the daughter
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Honor Societies: Phi Upsilon Omicron; Omicron Nu.

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