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THE RELATIONSHIP OF WOMEN'S LIFE-STYLE PREFERENCE
AND PERSONALITY DURING COLLEGE

DISSERTATION

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for
the Degree Doctor of Philosophy in the Graduate
School of the Ohio State University

by
Donald J. Nash, B.S., M.A.

The Ohio State University
1974

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This dissertation is dedicated to my
Mother, who, throughout her difficult life, has
exhibited courage, strength and fortitude when
faced with seemingly insurmountable obstacles.
Her example has been largely responsible for my
ability to sustain the motivation and perseverance
that I found necessary to the attainment of the
Ph.D. degree.
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Problem Overview

Thirty-three million women work outside their homes (U. S. Department of Labor, 1973). This number amounts to 43 percent of all American women and about one-third of the total labor force. Furthermore, while only 30 percent of all women workers were married and living with husbands in 1940, today that figure has doubled (U. S. Department of Labor, 1971).

Glenn and Walters (1966) identified what they considered the important factors leading to an increase in the number of women in the labor force. These factors included: easing of household tasks through technological advancement; women's desire for interests outside the home; a desire for a higher standard of living; and the needs of an expanding economy.

Epstein (1970) cited factors which appear to have become increasingly important within the last few years, namely: the spread of an ideology of equality; the lifting of some legal restrictions concerning women at work; and the growing numbers of women pursuing higher education.
Of particular interest to this study is the fact that it is the "educated" woman who is the most likely to work outside the home. Of those women who completed junior high school, 31 percent worked outside the home. Of those women who completed high school, 50 percent participated in the labor force. Of those who completed college, 56 percent were employed. And of those who completed at least one year of graduate study, 71 percent were involved in paid employment (U. S. Department of Labor, 1971).

Beyond these statistics one must look at the implications of the fact that increasing numbers of women, especially married women, are becoming gainfully employed outside the home. What is the impact of the woman's employment on her family? How are children affected by the employment of their mother? How do the specific problems of the family relate to the general state of the society? These are significant questions and when the life roles of women are examined their importance becomes apparent.

Statistics that reveal the numbers of women working and much of the current popular literature that has come out of the women's liberation movement are indications that society is beginning to accept a changing, more versatile role for women. A number of studies likewise indicate a greater acceptance of women in the less traditional roles. For example, Wilson (1971) found that there is an expanding perception among female college freshmen of women's roles as less traditional and more liberal with respect to occupational equality. In a recent poll of college students, it was found that there is a growing interest in breaking down some barriers between the sexes.
(Yankelovich, 1972). The thrust of the women's liberation movement seems to have brought a greater awareness to society, men and women alike, of the special problems of women.

While there are indications that American society is accepting the movement toward less traditional roles for women, there is still significant resistance. The barriers providing the resistance are both psychological and sociological and appear to be deeply imbedded in our culture. For example, Kaley (1971) investigated why women were not pursuing specific professional careers to a greater degree now that society is supposedly more tolerant. Findings indicated that while married professional women had positive attitudes toward the professional woman's dual role (family-career), married professional men had negative attitudes toward professional women mixing family and career. Nelson and Goldman (1969) found general acceptance by men of the notion of women operating in a dual role except in the case of their own wives. Studies like these clearly indicate the retention of traditional values with regard to women, the specific expressions of which are more easily understood within the context of our culture.

Epstein (1970) discussed the existence of a well established socialisation process undergone by young girls which inhibits their pursuit of careers by limiting their horizons. Rossi (1967) pointed out that sex-defined social roles are so pervasive in our culture that it is as socially unacceptable for men to show negative attitudes toward work as it is for women to show negative attitudes toward marriage and children.
In essence, what we presently have is a mixture of some acceptance of change and significant resistance surrounding the issue of an expanded role definition for women. And it is this set of contradictory forces that makes the issue so complex.

As young women approach college today, their attempt to develop meaningful life goals and a sense of individual identity is complicated by the society's ambivalence about their eventual role. While this has probably always been a problem for women, the present state of affairs has heightened the concern. Since their career interests are generally stronger, and their opportunities more numerous, college women probably face a more difficult life planning task than women in general. This is also the case when compared to men.

Douvan and Kay (1962) pointed out that while the identity issue for boys is primarily an occupational-vocational question, self-definition for girls depends more directly on marriage. In a sense, men have been educated to be working members of society, but there has been no such clear-cut definition for women. They also pointed out that a woman's identity centers more exclusively on her sex role and focuses on questions such as "whose wife will I be?" and "what kind of family will I have?" In the case of men, their self-definition forms about two nuclei—husband and father as well as worker. A similar view of this situation was offered by Erikson (1968), who maintained that identity for a woman is formed and expresses itself in her search for the kind of man by whom she wishes to be sought. Chickering (1969) suggested that the development of
purpose for men primarily involves clarification of vocational plans and aspirations. However, for women, the importance of vocational plans is reduced by impending marriage or engagement, or is complicated by ambiguity and uncertainty in regard to marriage.

When viewed along with the motivation of planning and goal orientation, the identity problem for women becomes even more complex. Miller, Galanter and Priban (1960) elaborated in detail on how plans and purpose guide behavior. They asked whether or not a plan supplies the pattern for the essential connection of knowledge, evaluation and action. Their book then went on to answer the question in the affirmative. Murphy (1960), in studies at Sarah Lawrence, identified the same dynamic referred to by Miller, Galanter and Priban.

Allport (1961) tied the mechanics of the identity problem and the life plan together nicely when he observed that the core of the identity situation for the young adult is the selection of an occupation or other life goal. In Allport's view, the young adult knows that the future must follow a plan and in this regard a sense of selfhood takes on a dimension that is absent during childhood. It is the pursuit of major goals, Allport observed, that configurates one's life.

Evidence suggests that the life-planning process is not the same for men as it is for women. If plans and goals are important, and if the woman must base her future plans largely on the type of husband and family she will have, her plans take on a contingent
nature that complicates the process and delays important decisions. The alternative would be to offer women data-based programs that will facilitate their planning. In this study data were collected and analyzed in order to provide information that may be useful in the development of programs that will help college women plan life goals earlier and more effectively.

Study Purpose and Objectives

Statement of purpose

The purpose of this study is to explore the life-style preferences of a current population of junior and senior college women by gathering, examining and analyzing self-report data and personality data. This purpose is aimed at producing data that will be useful in planning student development programs for college women.

Objectives of the study

In order to carry out the stated purpose, the following objectives were pursued.

(1) To determine the life-style orientations of a current population of junior and senior college women.

(2) To determine to what extent the junior and senior women changed their life-style orientation after beginning college.

(3) To identify some factors which influenced a change of life-style orientation in the women during college.
(4) To determine if there are significant personality differences among groups of college women who prefer different life-style orientations.

(5) To determine if there are significant differences in the direction of change in personality characteristics during college among groups of women who prefer different life-style orientations.

Definition of Terms

The following terms and categories are important to this study and are operationally defined below.

Life-style, for the purpose of this study, is considered to be a situation that combines in various ways the variables of career, marriage, and children, and their relationship to movement of women in and out of the labor force.

Career, for the purpose of this study, is considered to be any expected full-time involvement of the woman outside the home.

Therefore, career, work, or job are considered one and the same. Even a commitment outside the home, such as volunteer work where no salary would be earned, is considered a career.

Family-oriented women are those who consider their home and family to be their highest concern. Some of these women plan to work part-time or full-time after their youngest child is in school, while others plan never to work outside the home after marriage and children.

Career-oriented women are those who consider their work as their highest concern. These women do not plan to marry, or if they do, do not plan to have children.
Dual-oriented women are those who consider their work and their family of equal concern and plan to pursue both without a significant interruption in work for the purposes of childbirth or child care. These women plan to return to their jobs after a short absence for childbirth or sometime before their youngest child is of school age.

Significance of the Study

The problem overview pointed out the special needs of women as they relate to life planning and the development of identity. College women in particular, because of their motivation, education, and opportunities, are in need of assistance as they attempt to sort out life alternatives and develop goals. There is a need to approach the situation of college women in a systematic way through the planning and implementation of activities and programs designed to facilitate their personal development.

Bloom's study of human characteristics (1964) demonstrated that the greatest change occurs when a powerful environment is brought to bear on personal characteristics that are in a state of growth potential. Feldman and Newcomb (1969), after their exhaustive review of research related to the impact of college on students, concluded that a college provides the type of environment described by Bloom, and that the college student has a number of personal characteristics that are susceptible to the stimuli present on a college campus.

The Hazen Foundation report (1968) pointed out that since colleges do influence the development of their students, they also
have a responsibility for the quality and direction of the development. On the surface this observation sounds simplistic and is one that would generate little disagreement. However, when restated to emphasize the need for systematic programs that facilitate affective development in the same manner that the curriculum is focused on the cognitive domain, the importance of the observation becomes clearer.

Within the context of an educational institution the thrust of student development programming should be toward the planning of activities and experiences that will foster the development of each woman’s potential, regardless of the direction of her interests. The emphasis should be on exploring life options and alternatives in order that each woman may develop an understanding of the implications inherent in her decisions.

In order to move in the direction of planning effective student development programs for college women, the literature strongly suggests the need to develop a sound data base because it is very questionable whether one presently exists (Doherty, 1973; Carlson, 1972; Mednick and Tangri, 1972; Suniewick, 1971; Astin, 1971; Osipow, 1968). This study represents an effort to contribute to the development of that base.

Katz (1969) reported that each year more and more colleges are administering a psychological inventory to their entering freshmen. The rationale behind the collection of these "intake" data is based on the premise that colleges will be able to couple it with "outcome" data and use the information to plan, actualize
and evaluate student development programs. It was with this process in mind that this study was conceived. Since this study is utilizing intake and outcome personality data as well as self-report data about past and present life-style preferences, this study can contribute to the implementation of the procedure outlined by Katz.

**Limitations of the Study**

There are two major limitations of this study. They are (1) the difficulty of generalizing the findings and (2) the use of retroactive self-reporting as a means of gathering some of the data.

The study population consists of the junior and senior women of a small, Catholic-affiliated, liberal arts-oriented college. Therefore, as in all studies, an attempt to generalize the findings to a larger population must be approached with caution. However, the methods and the findings of this study, combined with those of other studies, may provide an effective means of working with college women in their quest for satisfying life-styles.

The other limitation of the study is a function of the use of the self-report technique to gather some of the data. On a general level, asking the women to report a life-style preference assumes that they will respond honestly. To elicit honest responses, an appeal to the subjects indicating the potential of the study and its relationship to their responses was made.

The literature relating to the accuracy of retroactive self-reporting indicates that responses become less dependable as the
subjects are asked to go back farther and farther in time. In the case of this study, most women were operating from a time lapse of only three to four years.

In an attempt to gather more accurate and detailed information from the self-report, the women were offered seven detailed life situations (later described) and their choices were then subsumed into three study groups representing different life orientations. Other studies, for example, have simply asked women whether they were family or career-oriented without defining the orientations very carefully.

Organization of the Study

The first chapter covers the introduction to the study by presenting an overview of the problem, the purpose and objectives of the study, definitions of important terms, the significance of the study, and the study's limitations. The second chapter focuses on a review of related literature while Chapter III presents the methodology utilized in the study and discusses the study population, instrumentation, procedures followed to collect the data, study groups, and the statistics used to test the study hypotheses. Chapter IV is devoted to reporting and discussing the findings and Chapter V summarizes the study, develops its implications and suggests further research.
CHAPTER II

THE LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter focuses on five major areas of literature that relate to the study topic. The review begins with a look at sex-role stereotyping as it manifests itself in our culture.

The second section reports the literature on the chronology of life-style development and its many determinants.

Section three presents research in which an attempt has been made to determine the life-style preferences of women and some categories of life-styles that have been identified.

Section four summarizes related aspects of the Vassar studies (Sanford, Freedman, Webster, Wilson, Brown & Katz) and offers a sampling of present day reaction to them. The Vassar studies remain as the most elaborate attempt to study college women.

The final section discusses personality research as it applies to women and the relationship of personality to life-styles.

Introduction

Our society has long held the belief that men and women are markedly different in regard to their biological and psychological make-up. The roles they are expected to assume are largely based
upon these differences. A recent attempt to clarify and reexamine such differences has been launched, and the thrust has been helped by a number of books that deal with the psychology and physiology of women. These are exemplified by Janeway (1973), Bardwick (1971 & 1972), Fogarty (1971), Jensen (1971), Sochen (1971), Sherman (1971), Epstein (1970) and Harding (1970). These works attempt to examine the subject of women from a changing societal perspective. Recent changes, that have resulted from a heightened awareness of the role and lives of women, are absent in such earlier books as Deutsch (1944 & 1945) and Mead (1949).

Countless professional journal articles have recently focused on the subject of women. A number of the journals have devoted entire issues to the subject. They include: American Journal of Sociology (January, 1973), American Personnel and Guidance Journal (October, 1972), Counseling Psychologist (Number 1, 1973), Journal of Social Issues (28, 1972), and Trans-Action (November and December, 1970).

In addition, an increasing number of articles in the popular journals such as Redbook, Cosmopolitan, Ladies Home Journal, and Ms. have undoubtedly had an impact in the home.

The review of the literature that follows mainly deals with the articles and studies that have been reported in the scholarly journals.

Sex-role Stereotyping

An understanding of sex-role stereotyping is vital to an
understanding of the development of women's life-styles. There seems
to be little doubt about the pervasiveness of sex-role stereotyping
in our society. Sheriffs and McKeel (1957) found that both male and
female college students rated women lower than men on the possession of
desirable personal traits. Results of the Vassar studies, which will
be reviewed later, are in line with this finding.

Taylor (1959), speaking about men, approaches the situation
from another direction. He points out that the American man has
fewer educational alternatives because of his automatic commitment
to the idea of success, and therefore tends to overlook humanistic
and liberal arts considerations in favor of preparing for business,
professional or scientific careers. This contrasts with the situation
of women.

Cohen's (1966) comments summarize the opinions of others in
regard to the problem of sex-role identity and the influence it
exerts. Cohen observed that much of the castration anxiety in men
and its counterpart, penis envy in women, seems to spring from the
fear of condemnation if one does not conform to society's accepted
model of the male and female. The over-emphasis on what are considered
to be masculine traits throws the boy into conflict regarding the
feeling aspects of experience and labels as suspect the development
of intellectual and artistic interests. Similarly, the girl is made
to feel uneasy in striving toward competence, intellectual development,
and independence.

Some evidence suggests that attitudes have changed recently
and that this has resulted in a less rigid adherence to the sex-role
stereotyping previously followed. This may be partially true, but well conducted studies by a team of professional psychologists illustrate that society is still greatly influenced by these stereotypes. Rosenkrantz, Vogel, Bee and Broverman (1968) studied the relationship of self-concept to differences in valued sex-role stereotypes and found strong agreement between sexes about differences between men and women. There was agreement between men and women that a greater number of the characteristics and behaviors stereotyped as masculine are more socially desirable than those stereotyped as feminine. There was also agreement between the self-concept of men and women and the stereotypes of each sex. In the researchers' opinion, women hold negative values of their worth relative to men.

Broverman, Clarkson, Rosenkrantz, Vogel and Vogel (1970) studied clinicians and found that when they know the sex of a subject they describe mental health in terms of sex stereotypes. They also found that ideals of mental health for an adult of unspecified sex are judged by clinicians to be those behaviors that are judged as healthy for men and differ from the behaviors judged healthy for women.

In a review of several studies (Broverman, Vogel, Broverman, Clarkson & Rosenkrantz) reported in 1972, the researchers constructed and administered a sex-role questionnaire to determine the nature and effects of sex-role standards and arrived at the following general conclusions:

(1) A strong consensus about the differing characteristics of men and women exists across groups which differ in sex, age,
religion, marital status and educational level.

(2) The characteristics ascribed to men are positively valued more often than characteristics ascribed to women. The positively valued masculine traits form a cluster of related behaviors which entail competence, rationality, and assertion, while the feminine traits form a cluster which reflect warmth and expressiveness.

(3) The sex-role definitions are implicitly and uncritically accepted to the extent that they are incorporated into the self-concepts of both men and women. Moreover, these sex-role differences are considered desirable by college students, healthy by mental health professionals, and even viewed as ideal by both men and women.

(4) Individual differences in sex-role self-concepts are associated with certain sex-role relevant behaviors and attitudes such as actual and desired family size, and certain antecedent conditions such as mother's employment history.

Many contemporary scholars have expressed a concern about rigid sex stereotyping and have suggested that we should work to lessen it. Those who advocate a reduction of sex stereotyping do not appear to be advocating the abolishment of maleness and femaleness in favor of one uniform sex, but seem to be encouraging a more critical scrutiny of the widely held assumptions about sex-typical behavior.

**Life-style Development and its Determinants for Women**

Eason (1972) considers "life-style" to be a concept that describes how behavior relates to basic values and purposes. For
women it generally revolves around the variables of work, marriage and children. The interaction of these variables over time constitutes a life-style.

For the purpose of this study, a life-style is considered to be stable but somewhat flexible. The presence of a life-style preference provides an individual with a framework for choices throughout life. However, most of the techniques, theories, and research that are appropriate to counseling and program planning are directed toward career development rather than life-style development. Since career is, in a sense, only one facet of a life-style, the transition from the body of knowledge relating to career development to the development of life-style cannot easily be made. However, it is clear that career interests do exert a considerable influence on the development of one's life-style.

The succeeding literature review will indicate how varied the opinions and the literature are in regard to the hows, whys, and whens of life-style development. The process is compounded further by the contingencies inherent in the woman's attempt to plan.

**The process of women's life-style development**

A significant question arises as to when women begin to develop their life-style orientation. The literature suggests that it is a continuing process with a variety of inputs being injected at different stages of life. The studies that follow suggest that it is not possible to generalize about when women will be most influenced toward a specific life orientation.
Roe and Siegleman (1964) studied senior college women who were planning to work as engineers and social workers. The researchers were able to support their hypothesis that the choice of occupation is affected by childhood experiences. It also appeared that the farther from the cultural sex stereotype the occupational choice is, the more likely it is that there have been particular pressures in the early history of an individual that influenced such a choice.

While Roe and Siegleman's study did not deal directly with life-style orientation, but focused on occupational choice, the research reported next suggests a relationship between the early choice of occupation and the development of a life-style conducive to the achievement of that specific goal. Women who begin working toward a specific occupation early in life are more likely to be oriented toward a career or a career-family orientation rather than a family orientation. Literature supporting this relationship will be covered in greater detail in the section on women's life-style preferences; however, the study discussed next lends support to the relationship.

Tyler (1964) began a longitudinal study in 1946 and compared 15 girls with career interests and 30 girls with non-career interests. She used scores on the Strong Vocational Interest Blank (SVIB) from the first, fourth, eighth and twelfth grades, scores from the California Psychological Inventory, and tests of special abilities and school achievement. Conclusions were that career interests begin to take shape at or before age 14.
Matthews and Tiedman (1964) studied a sample of 1,237 young girls and women and examined their attitudes toward career and marriage and the dependence of life-style choice on them. They found that attitudes appear to differ toward career and marriage during different developmental stages of life. There was a drop in career commitment from junior to senior high school and then an increase in career commitment again when preparing for college. They explained the decline in career commitment during senior high school by relating it to the woman's perception of male classmates' disapproval of the use of female intelligence.

Two studies by Harmon had findings that conflict with findings that report an early development of career or non-career interests, and provide some justification for the existence of programs for college women as well as adolescents. A study of women who entered a large midwestern university between 1953 and 1955 was conducted by Harmon (1969). The SVIB was administered to the women at entrance and then in 1965 they were asked questions to determine a career-committed group and a noncareer-committed group. It was found that SVIB did not predict which of the women would become career committed. Later, Harmon (1970) reported that women who become career committed do not have different plans at 18 years of age than those who do not become career committed. She did find, however, that the former do stay in college longer, earn higher degrees, and work more.

Directly related to the college experience, Angrist (1970) reported that the college experience strengthens the college woman's own inclinations, goals and values, but also noted that some
influences come from outside the college environment as well. She also found that while the impact of college on life aspirations manifests itself between the freshman and sophomore years, the greatest impact is in the senior year.

It appears that there are early influences on one's eventual life-style and that a variety of factors continue to influence the development of one's life style through young adulthood and the college years. In fact, a study by Eyde (1962) and a follow-up five years later (1968), indicates that the process of life-style development continues beyond the college years. Eyde examined work values and background factors as predictors of women's desire to work outside the home. Her follow-up confirmed the hypothesis that the five-year alumnae would assign significantly higher average ratings to what was called the "interesting-variety" value of work motivation. This value dealt with boredom and monotony and the need to secure relief from them.

**Determinants of women's life-styles**

Astin (1971) has observed that the research literature about women has not changed dramatically over the years, with the exception of studies dealing with what she calls "career determinants." She found that three times more studies appeared on the subject between 1967 and 1971 than had appeared in all preceding years. According to Astin, the literature dealing with determinants has followed a pattern over the past 10 to 15 years. In the early sixties many studies explored the characteristics of women with different life
orientations and generally attempted to compare men and women on
interest measures. In the middle sixties there was a greater
emphasis on the conflicts women experienced in making life-style
choices and the researchers talked of career-oriented women in terms
of masculine interests. Since 1969, the literature has reflected a
more positive attitude toward women who are career-oriented. For
example, the literature now refers to mathematical or computational
interests instead of masculine interests.

In general, most comparisons have been made between career
and family orientations, and the characteristics most often studied
have been in the areas of aptitude, achievement, personality, and
measured or expressed interests. A number of attempts have also been
made to identify the family backgrounds of career and noncareer-or-
riented women, the relationships of subjects with parents, and the
manner in which women perceive what is expected of them by society
and by men.

A number of studies have reported in a summary fashion those
determinants that influence women's life-style development. Three
of those studies follow. As a result of the Matthews and Tiedman
study (1964) reported earlier, five general influences were identified.
They were: (a) the man's reaction to the woman's use of her
intelligence, (b) the struggle over the position of dominance of
men at work and the place of women at home, (c) the conflict between
demands of family and work and the time spent as a wife and mother,
(d) the dilemmas of timing in dating and marriage, and (e) the general
acceptance of the feminine role.
Katz (1968), as a result of extensive studies at Berkeley and Stanford, offered the seven factors that he found to influence career choice and life-style orientation. They were: (a) identity information, (b) social class, (c) culture, (d) parental expectations and the student's perception of these expectations, (e) student's identification with parents, (f) significant peers, especially boy friends or fiances, and (g) the general college experience.

Sherman (1971) approached the issue from a biological-psychological perspective, and examined factors that influence a girl's adoption of behavior congruent with sex-role. She found that the level of cognitive development, the relative power and nurture of the parents, ordinal position, and the age, sex, and status of siblings are important.

The following literature represents studies that examined the influence of specific determinants. They include the role of parental influence, socio-economic background, the perceived view of men's expectations and the influence of college.

The role of parental influence

It appears that parents, and their view of appropriate life roles, are an extremely important determinant of a child's life orientation. For example, working mothers tend to influence a daughter in the direction of occupation and career planning. There is some indication that a close relationship with both parents and some identification with the father are positive predictors of a career orientation among women. Some studies that provide an understanding of parental influence appear below.
A study by Brun-Gulbrandsen (1967), conducted in Norway, indicated the influence of a culture on parents and how it is manifested in childrearing. Mothers who believed they were rearing their children as similarly as possible were questioned. Only 77 percent of them thought boys and girls should assist equally with work in the house and 60 percent thought it was desirable to give girls fewer theoretical subjects in school. When the eight to eleven year old children of these mothers were asked which sex they would choose to be, 86 percent of the girls and 85 percent of the boys chose their own sex. But when questioned at ages 14 to 15, only 71 percent of the girls wished to be girls compared to 84 percent of the boys who wished to be boys. Other studies have found relationships between parental influence and the girl's life orientation, although not as general or pervasive as this one.

White (1967) found that a differential in career commitment among women teachers was determined by three social background factors. The mother's work orientation was one and the other two were social class and source of financial support for college.

Siegel and Curtis (1963) interviewed 43 women at a large university and of the different characteristics examined—parents' education level, mother's work orientation, and parents' attitude toward the importance of education for the daughter—only mother's work orientation was found to be of significant correlation with work orientation of the women.

Ginsberg (1966) studied life-styles of educated women and focused on their parents and other variables. It was found that the parents of this study group had a positive attitude toward their
daughter's pursuit of higher education, and those who were able helped them attain it.

Vetter and Lewis (1964) correlated SVIB scores, Guilford-Zimmerman Personality Inventory scores, and biographical items with career and homemaking preferences of 170 senior women. They found that the career-oriented women did not experience family disapproval of wives working for pay, and this was one of the biographical items that differentiated the two groups. Schofield and Caple (1971) found some indications that a woman's self-concept may be related to her father's occupation.

The influence of socio-economic background

Studies on socio-economic status suggest that women who have parents of high education and occupation tend to receive a positive influence toward education and career. A study by White (1967), reported earlier, lends support to this generalization.

Astin (1971), after reviewing the research in this area arrived at the same generalization reported above. The two studies that follow, however, arrived at different conclusions. Frank, Harrison, Hellersberg, Machover and Steiner (1951) found that girls of the lower socio-economic class were generally less ambitious and seemed more relaxed than girls of higher socio-economic status. The latter showed pressure from ambitious, intellectual parents. These girls were bright with a wide range of knowledge but tense and anxious with less desire to mature as feminine personalities. This study examined 300 girls in New York City. Coleman (1963) discovered a marked contrast to this
finding in regard to pressure for social rather than intellectual achievement when he studied a similar group from a later generation.

The influence of men

There is a clear indication that the woman's perception of the man's view is very influential. Intricately interwoven in this area is the general phenomenon of sex stereotyping. What is not clear, however, is why some women are not as deeply affected as others.

Hest (1962) noted that women in general are found to score the same or better than men on measures of interest in ideas and abstract thought, attitude scales and on the SVIB-M intellectual categories, and then asked why motivation to achieve seems to be lacking in women. A recent magazine report (Time, 1973) pointed out that while girls get higher average scores on College Entrance Examination Board's Scholastic Aptitude Test, they generally have less ambitious life plans than boys.

Steinmann, Levi and Fox (1964) used three forms of the Inventory of Feminine Values (IFV), from 75 women who were attending a large metropolitan college, and came up with some interesting findings. They found that the women perceived themselves and their ideal woman as essentially alike with equal components of passive and active orientations; but they perceived man's ideal woman as significantly more passive and accepting of a subordinate role in both personality development and place in the family structure. In a later study (Steinmann & Fox, 1966), also utilizing three forms of the IFV, it was found that man's actual ideal woman was not significantly different from women's ideal or self-perception. However, the man's ideal woman was
significantly more active and self-assertive than the ideal that the women thought the men would indicate.

Hawley (1971) reported findings from her doctoral dissertation (1968) which related to the contention that women make career decisions on the basis of what they think men will tolerate. She pointed out that a 1966 U. S. Department of Labor Survey found that only four percent of more than 66,000 working women disclosed that they worked in opposition to their husbands' wishes. She also found that married women perceived men's views as having less distinction between male and female activities than did single women. In a later study (1972), Hawley replicated some of her earlier findings. She found that women preparing for traditional feminine careers believed that significant men in their lives dichotomize attitudes and behaviors into male-female categories. They also believed that men viewed behavior as appropriately male or female. In contrast, those preparing for traditionally male careers believed that men did not see sex as a determinant of attitudes and behaviors.

Given the findings reported here, it is not difficult to understand what Matina Horner has called "the motive to avoid success." As a result of research conducted for her dissertation (1969a), Horner (1969b) reported that bright women are caught in a bind fearing both failure and success. In her study of achievement motivation in college women, she found that women did avoid success because of the fear that success in competitive situations would lead to unpopularity or loss of femininity. Sixty-five percent
of the 90 women in her study did exhibit success avoidance. Horner (1972) later reported that studies show that most highly competent and otherwise achievement-motivated young women, when faced with a conflict between their feminine image and expressing their competencies or developing their abilities and interests, adjust their behaviors to their internal sex-role stereotypes.

An interesting study by Farmer and Bohn (1970) led the researchers to suggest that women might become more actively engaged in careers if they thought men would not disapprove. They used the SVIB and told the women that men like intelligent women, that men and women are promoted equally, and that family and career can be combined. This resulted in a reduction of home-career conflict.

The general influence of college

As a woman approaches college, the influence of her parents, her socio-economic background, her attitudes toward sex stereotyping, and her concerns about her relationships with members of the opposite sex are all an important part of her person. Given the past, what role can her college experience play in the development of her lifestyle?

While some contend that the mold is set by the time one reaches college, others disagree and believe that meaningful personal change is possible during the college years, and that the college itself can facilitate significant personal development. Research tends to support the latter. For example, Angrist (1970) found that the college experience strengthens the woman's own inclinations,
goals and values, but also noted that influences come from outside the college environment as well.

The woman's background and early influences seem to lay groundwork for her approach to college. Feldman and Newcomb (1969) found that a masculinity-femininity dimension of interests exists by area of study in college. They reviewed eight studies of men and two of women and found that business, economics, engineering, physics, chemistry and math fall into the high and medium ranks of masculinity of interests. Students in the social sciences fell into medium and lower thirds and students in humanities fell in the low third in all studies in regard to masculinity of interests.

A study by Gough (1968) which seems applicable used the California Psychological Inventory to predict college attendance among high school students. Gough found that females who went on to college exhibited more traditionally masculine characteristics in that they were dominant, determined and aggressive.

What kinds of things happen to women during college? Research findings dealing with the stability and change in attitudes toward sex stereotypes have been mixed. But there are some indications that sex stereotypes are less rigid at graduation.

Mills (1954), Stewart (1964) and Korn (1967) found that senior women exhibited more traditionally feminine interests than they did as freshmen, but a number of other studies had different findings.

Webster, Freedman and Heist (1962) found that female seniors had more masculine interests and were less conventionally female
than they were as freshmen. Nichols (1965 & 1967) found that senior women were less feminine and less emotionally sensitive than they were as freshmen. Schmidt (1970) studied women who took the American College Survey as freshmen at the University of Iowa in 1964 and again in 1968 using a number of instruments. Schmidt found a decrease in dogmatism and showed that women were less likely to agree that finding a mate in college is more important than finding a vocation. McMillan, Cerra, and Mehaffey (1971), in a study of 1,817 college women, found that the women were less apt to take the option "no further career after marriage" in the senior year than in the freshman year.

Other studies indicate that college in general has a positive effect toward influencing one to pursue a career. Findings of this kind are not surprising if one assumes that a college education broadens a woman's outlook and increases her opportunities. For example, a longitudinal study by Tyler (1964) found that career interests seem to develop more often in girls with above average ratings on mental ability scores. These girls are more likely to attend college in pursuit of their interests.

Two related studies indicate that college women are more likely to pursue life-styles that include extra-family involvement. Astin and Nyint (1971) found that post-high school experiences were the best determinants of career outcomes. Educational attainment and marital-family status best predicted whether women would choose to pursue professional careers or be housewives and office workers. Mulvey (1963), in her study that examined career patterns of 475
women who had graduated 20 to 27 years previously from high school, found that the level of education and level of aspiration were the most important determinants of career pattern.

It appears that the women who attend college are products of prior experiences that may lead them to pursue less traditional life-styles. The college may help them focus their plans by providing activities and exposure to a variety of ideas, people, and experiences. If the general experience is one that is liberating, rigid stereotypes of the male and female roles tend to break down. This in turn could lead a woman to pursue plans that would have been socially unacceptable to her earlier. A major objective of this study is to examine the stability of life-style orientations during college, and then through follow-up interviews, attempt to identify the college factors that are most influential in creating a change. However, research suggests that the process of life-style development for women is ongoing, and the influence of college is only one of many determinants. It is difficult then to discuss any one of the determinants without recognizing the role of the others. Complicating the process of life-style development further are the phenomena of incrementalism and chance.

Women's Life-styles and Preferences

The terms most often used in the research literature when discussing women's life-styles are career and family. A number of studies have attempted to identify the extent to which women prefer or find themselves involved in a career orientation as opposed to a
family orientation. A few studies have tried to identify a life-style orientation that combines in various ways a career and family. This appears to be a response to an increasing interest on the part of women to pursue both.

The following review of studies indicates a mixed picture in regard to women's life-style preferences. It also suggests a general movement toward increased career or work involvement within a family orientation. For the purpose of illustrating a contrast the studies are reported in two sections: Those that indicate a traditional life orientation and those that indicate a movement toward the nontraditional. In general, the studies are presented in chronological order within each category.

Indications of a traditional orientation

Earlier studies, such as those of Gruenberg and Krech (1952), Bunting (1961), and Heist (1962) did not indicate that women had an interest in combining career and family. Most early studies (prior to 1965) reached the same conclusion as have some of the more recent studies.

Empey (1958) administered a questionnaire to 1,004 female high school seniors and 190 female college students and concluded that the occupational attitudes and aspirations of both groups favored traditional female roles rather than occupational equality of the sexes. Another finding of the same study suggested that the career planning that did take place was not directed toward marriage without
a career but toward finding a suitable female occupation should a
career become necessary.

Simpson and Simpson (1961) administered a questionnaire to
111 women in sociology classes in two universities. A total of 69,
after responding, were classified as noncareer-oriented; 58 preferred
to defer the decision about whether to work and 11 preferred not to
work after marriage. Of the 34 who were classified as career-oriented,
half preferred to stop working and raise their children. Only after
their children were grown did they plan to return to work. In the
case of this study, half of the women who were classified as career-
oriented clearly saw their family as their highest concern.

Mulvey (1963) studied career patterns of 475 women who had
graduated 20 to 27 years previously from a public high school and
found that one-third of the sample accepted homemaking and child-
rearing exclusively as a career. One of the Vassar researchers
(Wilson, 1964) reported the results of surveys of seniors at three
women's colleges which indicated that one-half of the sample
planned traditional childrearing futures while slightly more than
one-third aspired to marriage and a career. When the marriage-
career women were analyzed more closely in regard to career plans,
it was found that a majority planned teaching careers or part-time
work until after children were grown.

Rossi (1965) reported that of 3,500 women college graduates
of the class of 1961, one-fifth had no career goal other than home-
making. Almost one-half reported long-range career goals in
traditional fields in which women predominate and only seven percent
were planning to pursue long-range career goals in predominately male fields.

Lyon (1967) selected from the membership of the American Association of University Women 400 college graduates who were married and between ages 24 and 45. She identified five groups: negative workers, positive workers, career-oriented housewives, satisfied housewives, and ambivalent housewives. Her findings suggested that most women are primarily family-oriented and prefer traditionally female educational and occupational choices.

Katz (1969) found that 50 percent of his large sample of college women at Berkeley and Stanford expected to work part or full-time when their children were between the ages of six and 12, and that another 37 percent expected to do so only after their children were at least 12 years of age. Again there is a strong indication that family responsibilities are of the highest concern.

Steinmann (1970) used three forms of the Inventory of Feminine Values to collect data from 51 women who were between 17 and 22 years of age, unmarried, and enrolled in a liberal arts college. Findings suggested that the women did not think work was very important. Thirty-five said they might work after graduation and of these 20 said only if it was financially necessary.

McMillan, Cerra and Mahaffey (1971) found that 72 percent of the women in their study conducted at a moderate-sized midwestern university indicated a preference to work after marriage until children were born, then devote full-time to raising children. They planned to return to work only after the children were grown. Only
eight percent of the women in the study preferred to remain in a profession after marriage with a slight interruption for childbirth.

These studies indicate that the traditional orientation is strong among women. Another finding is that the careers that women plan to pursue, when they do look toward work, are largely traditional and not those that include large percentages of males. Somewhat related to this is a study by Kriger (1971) which indicated that the primary vocational decision for women is the decision between working and not working, with the choice of a specific occupational area a secondary matter.

Indications of a nontraditional orientation

Some studies indicate movement toward less traditional life orientations. Nevertheless, while work and career are seen as a more important part of the woman's role, the presence of a strong traditional preference is also visible.

Leland (1966) studied post-graduate plans and the factors which affected these plans of 559 women from a state college and a private university. Findings indicated that most women in both groups planned to marry and have children, but only a few expected marriage to be their only commitment in life. Almost one-half expected to do graduate work, and a third planned careers. An interesting finding indicated that women at the private university exhibited a stronger commitment to combining career and marriage.

Schab (1967) studied 277 randomly selected undergraduates at a southern university with respect to career, domestic and educational
values. A great interest was expressed in combining career and marriage, but the women generally expected to be married by 25 and to have children, and they intended to give up their careers when their first child was born.

In a study of female National Merit Scholars of 1956-1960 who were retested in 1965, Watley (1969) found that 50 percent had begun or planned to begin careers immediately after they completed their education. Eighty-six percent said they expected to have careers either immediately or after their children were old enough to allow them to do so.

Sharp (1970) reported the results of a comprehensive, nationwide set of studies conducted from 1959 to 1969 under the sponsorship of the National Science Foundation. It was found that 56 percent of the women studied were still working five years after graduation from college.

Gump (1972) examined the sex-role concepts of 162 senior college women in relationship to ego strength, happiness and achievement plans. The view of femininity most acceptable to these women was one that attests to the importance and feasibility of assuming the roles of wife and mother, while also pursuing careers which would gratify needs for self-realization and achievement. However, even the most purposeful women were pursuing careers traditional for women, and most wished for husbands and families.

Rand and Miller (1972) reported that informal observations and research both indicate that the average junior or senior high school girl, as well as the average college woman, expects to combine
a career interest with marriage but also expects marriage and children to interfere in some way with career continuity.

Vetter (work in progress) used some of the career patterns developed by Super (1957) in a study of 4,807 women in a national sample. She found that three percent remained single and continued working, 14 percent were married but continued working, 18 percent were in and out of the labor force at irregular intervals and 16 percent were married women who worked, devoted full-time to the family for a while and then returned to work. Forty-nine percent had no work experience or did not work regularly after marriage.

It appears that there is a fine line between some of the findings reported as indications of a nontraditional life orientation and those that were offered as indications of a traditional orientation. However, there are signs of a growing interest among women in more career involvement while assuming the responsibilities of the family. There is little indication that women are interested in no marriage or marriage without children. These situations, of course, make the pursuit of a career more convenient.

There is some evidence of a growing acceptance by college women of a dual role which combines career and family. Much of the research reported here has dealt with career and family as an either/or proposition. For example, when women have continued to work without a significant interruption for childrearing, they have often been referred to as career-oriented, ignoring the fact that they also have a family.
The Vassar College Studies

The Vassar College studies began in 1932 under the direction of Nevitt Sanford and continued after 1958 with Nevvin Freedman as the director. The studies were financed by a grant from the Mary Conover Mellon Foundation and collectively are considered to be the most complete research done on the development of college women.

Three basic concurrent studies were conducted with different groups of Vassar students in order to gather before, intermediate and after data. One of the studies tested four incoming freshman classes, each with around 430 subjects, and four senior classes, each with approximately 300 subjects. The researchers used a test battery of some 1,100 items—true-false items comprising various personality scales (some standard and some specifically designed), adjective check lists, and several projective techniques. Also incorporated was an intensive interviewing program with 80 randomly selected students of the class of 1938 that consisted of three interviews a year throughout their college career. A third aspect included a personality assessment that was done with a sample of 50 alumnae from the classes of 1930 to 1934. Results of these studies were not reported in a single volume but have been reported in numerous journals and books by the researchers who were involved. Among the most prominent of these are Sanford and Freedman, as well as Donald Brown, Joseph Katz, Harold Webster and Kenneth Wilson. The following represents a summary of the Vassar findings applicable to this study.

Sanford (1967) reported that the Vassar women of that time were involved in a marked move to femininity which was manifested by
a desire to have about "four children as quickly as possible." In general, the Vassar girls were intent on getting married and leading comfortable lives. However, he reported that seniors scored lower than freshmen on an attitude scale relating to their conception of a good citizen and what they thought of existing institutions. Sanford interpreted this finding not as a decline in social consciousness but as a growth in nonconformity.

Sanford (1956) reported that there appeared to be more disturbance with respect to identity in seniors than in freshmen. He posited that this came from enough inner uncertainty that the women felt unprepared for the life decisions which they would have to make. Later, Sanford (1967) reported that other researchers as well were struck by the relatively high level of instability in the seniors who were examined in the Spring before graduation.

With regard to preferred life-styles, the Vassar studies showed that almost all of the women expected to be employed after graduation, at least until they married. However, 68 percent of the freshmen and 69 percent of the seniors responded true to "I would like a career." Sanford (1966) interpreted this as an indication that few seniors in the best women's colleges wished to undertake the arduous work of preparing themselves for the high level professions because they saw this conflicting with their desire and intention to marry early and to have children.

Freedman (1967) observed that test differences from the instruments used suggested that the students who said true to "I would like a career" were somewhat more intellectual, unconventional,
independent, and flexible in their thinking and outlook. He also reported that they were more alienated or isolated socially.

The Vassar finding that almost all of the women wanted to marry and the concurrent finding that 69 percent of the seniors responded true to "I would like a career," appears to have caused some problems of interpretation. Freedman (1965), in attempting to refute the claim that women are discriminated against and that they have been brainwashed into accepting the role of housewife, looked at these Vassar findings and concluded that marriage and motherhood were the primary goals of the great majority of the young women even though they appeared to reject the conventional feminine role by expressing a career interest.

Suniewick (1971) criticized Freedman’s interpretation of those data and called his view an example of a moderate-equivalent research bias which failed to take into account the effects of the discrimination that pervades our social institutions.

Another aspect of the Vassar studies which is subject to different interpretations if viewed in different contexts was initiated by Sanford (1956). He concluded that the best adjusted women, both as students and later as alumnae, were underachievers who did not prepare themselves for an unrealistic future by over-emphasizing academic performance, but instead maintained a "healthy integration" of the feminine role and their own intellectual aspirations. In discussing Sanford’s view, Lewis (1968) concluded that the road to personal adjustment for women is that which stays
within the limits of the traditional feminine role authorized by society.

A recent study by Angrist (1971) offers a questioning view of the type of interpretation offered by Sanford and Lewis. She found that college women who want careers are not necessarily emotionally maladjusted, despite some existing research that suggests that career women are deviant in terms of normative role expectations and behavior. Her study partially supported the hypothesis that no association exists between college maladjustment and career aspirations.

Helson (1972) stated that the Vassar studies contributed to a new view of working women because they offered two life patterns of excellence—underachievers with a future family orientation and high achievers. This was done by incorporating the first personality assessment of women. Nonetheless, she was critical of the male research team of psychologists who worked on the studies, because she felt they offered only a kind word or two for the high-achieving women and saved their enthusiasm for the family-oriented underachievers.

The terms high-achievers and underachievers comes from a classification scheme that grew out of the Vassar findings. Brown (1956) identified five types of women in terms of their educational patterns as follows:

1. The underachievers with future family orientation were those who had secure backgrounds and positive family relationships and Brown described them as ".....a healthy integration of feminine
role and intellectual aspirations at a minimum of cost." They were considered the best adjusted group because they realistically adapted to their roles as women.

(2) The high achievers were career-oriented. They are unlikely to marry and eventually do have careers, but many develop role conflict problems after college and may seek psychiatric help. The women in this group possessed high ability and used it.

(3) The social activity and peer acceptance group were those primarily interested in having fun in college.

(4) The overachievers had average ability but worked very hard. They were described as future suburbanites who would probably be rigid and authoritarian.

(5) The seekers after identity group had a lack of emotional stability and a strong concern with their personal problems. This group would get little out of college without personal counseling but have the potential to do better with help.

An earlier section of the literature review indicated that the influence of men and the woman's perception of her own femininity are important determinants of the development of the woman's lifestyle orientation. Two of the Vassar researchers reported findings that appear to be related to these indications.

Freedman (1967) found that a prominent theme running through the Vassar studies' interviews was the reluctance on the part of young women to threaten the status or security of men by exceptional accomplishment. He felt that this careful attention to the qualities
which underlie courtship and marriage among college students suggests that in many cases the man's need for security, intimacy, and affection are greater than those of women. Freedman also reported that the interviews indicated a slight preference that the husband be the dominant figure in making major decisions. The interviews also revealed some reluctance on the part of women to assume leadership in various professional fields except for those which possess a considerable feminine connotation.

In regard to femininity and its manifestation in the Vassar women, Webster (1956) analyzed the results of several masculine-feminine scales used in the studies and identified three factors related to femininity—conventionality, passivity and sensitivity.

The Vassar studies have contributed to the development of a research base about college women. In some cases, however, aspects of the studies are viewed as questionable (Helson, 1972, Angrist, 1971 & Suniewick, 1971). This is not difficult to understand because most of the data were collected 15 to 20 years ago. Nonetheless, the research methodology employed, the research design utilized, the time span of the studies, and the present stature of the researchers involved, all combine to make them collectively one of the most significant studies that has been done about college women to date.

Personality, Women and Life-styles

Sanford (1956) pointed out that many believe personality development is set by 17 years of age and what happens after is merely an unfolding of what has previously developed. However,
there is a contrasting view, which Sanford advocates, that proposes change is possible during the college years. This is a general problem related to personality study. Recent opinion suggests that personality theory, even with its positive attributes, is not generally applicable to women. This is a more specific problem related to personality theory and its use.

Astin (1971) found that there was little conflict in the literature regarding the differential aptitudes and achievements of women with career aspirations and those who plan for the traditional roles of marriage and family. However, she did recognize that there is controversy and conflict in the reported findings regarding the personality dimensions of career-oriented women and family-oriented women. While some suggest that the contradictory findings tend to be a matter of interpretation of study results and of assumptions about what is healthy or appropriate behavior rather than a discovery of conflicting evidence, others believe that personality theory itself must be reexamined and recast if it is to be useful to women.

The following section of the literature review reports some of the findings that are a part of the problem developed above. The discussion will focus on arguments for a major revision of personality theory, the masculinity-femininity dimension of personality, and the relationship of personality characteristics to women's life-styles.

**Personality theory and its applicability to women**

Doherty (1973) cited two main themes that have come from writings of ancient Greeks, as well as medieval and modern thinkers,
which she believes continue to influence our society and the study of psychology. One of the themes considers the male as the prototype of humanity and the female as understood only in relationship to the male. The other theme establishes a dichotomy between the cognitive and affective aspects of human functioning and the assignment of them to the man and woman respectively, while attributing higher value to the former and lesser value to the latter.

Doherty suggests that such theoretical formulations of personality development offered in graduate schools may be irrelevant as they apply to women, and therefore should be put aside.

Mednick and Tangri (1972) believe that the entire feminist movement is suffering from a massive reaction to the "biology is destiny" theme. They asserted, through methodological and theoretical critiques, that the current state of knowledge about women is poor because of the disinterest and bias of investigators, reviewers and theoreticians.

Osipow (1968) indicated that few special explanations or concepts have been devised to deal with the special problems of the career development of women and that most of the masculine-based tests and theories that are used fail to provide a useful vehicle for understanding women and career relationships.

Sunieswick (1971) observed that different researchers, all using scientific methods, have arrived at contradictory findings about women and therefore concludes that not all the necessary evidence is presently available. She strongly urges the development of new
tools and approaches in order to investigate women's development.

Carlson (1972) lends support to these contentions and claims that current theoretical orientations in personality are united in presenting a general, universal (and largely masculine) account of personality. Carlson feels that more feminine, naturalistic modes of scientific inquiry must be developed and that this would involve the investigation of at least three neglected issues: (a) the duality of human nature, (b) a typology and qualitative patterns, and (c) the biological bases of personality.

Research indicates, then, that there are some problems with present personality theory as it applies to women. The theoreticians mentioned above make the point very well. There are also contradictory findings about some of the basic characteristics of women. The studies cited below exemplify this.

In regard to anxiety, many studies indicate that college women are more anxious than college men. The Vassar findings dealt with this issue and the researchers expressed their concern. But a study by Neumann (1970) found otherwise. He examined 50 volunteer freshmen and sophomores of both sexes and found that the men indicated significantly higher levels of anxiety.

A doctoral dissertation (Tangri, 1969) which was reported recently (Tangri, 1972) studied 200 senior college women and investigated the relationship between non-sex-typical occupational choices (role innovation), personality and college experience. The role innovators were found to be more autonomous, individualistic and motivated by internally imposed demands to perform to capacity.
Based on Tengri's research, and other data cited in the article, some of the stereotypes about career women come under attack. The role innovators did not show evidence of having identified with their fathers in preference to their mothers. They did not reject the core female roles of wife and mother, though they expected to postpone marriage and have fewer children and they did not think of themselves as masculine. There was no evidence that they made such occupational choices because of difficulty in attracting the opposite sex, since they dated as often as other women.

It is clear that the use of personality data as it applies to women must be studied more carefully. Certainly one must be cautious in generalizing from it. However, further studies that utilize personality data derived from women are necessary to lead toward the further refinement that appears necessary.

The masculinity-femininity dimension of personality

Much of the controversy over the study of the personality of women appears to be rooted in the practice of interpreting findings on the basis of the masculinity-femininity dimension of human characteristics. The following literature review attempts to present a clearer picture of the masculinity-femininity aspect of personality.

Astin (1971) observed that the clinical interpretation of a person who has interests and talents more characteristic of the opposite sex tends to view that person as one who is reluctant to accept his or her sexuality, the implication being that the person is in some kind of psychological conflict. Astin suggests that this
type of interpretation be reconsidered in light of evidence that
greater numbers of women desire careers, and that many of these
careers have traditionally been pursued by men.

There are a number of instruments that have traditionally
been used to measure masculine-feminine characteristics. Two of
the most often used are the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inven­
tory (Hathaway and McKinley, 1943), and the Strong Vocational
Interest Blank (Strong, 1943). Both the MMPI and SVIB include a
masculinity-femininity scale along with other scales. Other less
widely used instruments directed exclusively at masculinity-
femininity include the Gough Masculinity-Femininity Scale (Gough,
1937), which is a part of the California Psychological Inventory,
the Completion of Drawings Test (Franolc and Rosen, 1949), and the
Welsh Figure Preference Test (Welsh, 1949).

Other personality instruments, while not making specific
reference to a masculinity-femininity scale, have personality
characteristics that can be clustered in a way to yield a picture
similar to a masculinity-femininity scale. The Sixteen Personality
Factor Questionnaire (Catell, Eber & Tatsuoka, 1970; Catell & Stice,
1957; Catell, Saunders & Stiso, 1949) which has been used in this
study, has personality factors that can be labeled masculine or
feminine. For example, McClain (1968) considered the following
16 PF factors as measures of masculinity-femininity: reserved-
outgoing, humble-assertive, shy-venturesome, tough minded-tender
minded, trusting-suspicious, and practical-imaginative.
A number of studies have reported women’s characteristics in terms of the masculinity-femininity dimension. Helson (1967) found that young women identified as creative—showing considerable potential for creative work in the arts, sciences and humanities—had personalities like those of creative men. She also found that as college seniors, these creative women planned to combine career and marriage.

Houts and Entwisle (1968) administered a questionnaire to 405 tenth grade girls from four different schools and found a significant relationship between achievement and school grades in girls who consider masculine competitive behavior to be appropriate to the feminine role. According to this study, high achievement, and to a lesser extent high grades, can be predicted for girls showing a traditionally masculine sex-role orientation.

A dissertation by Lovett (1968), using the Adjective Check List and the Personal Interest Inventory Identification Scale, found evidence of the masculinity-femininity dichotomy when comparing women scientists (a traditionally male-dominated occupational area) and social workers (an occupational area where more women are represented). The data indicated that women scientists were consistently more nonperson-oriented, that they identified more with their fathers than their mothers, and that they reported tomboy activities as children. The social workers were person-oriented, exhibited female play activities as children and experienced less consistent, impersonal discipline as children. In general, there was a significant difference between the two groups regarding feminine role.
Two studies that analyzed their findings about life-style preference in regard to masculine-feminine characteristics had related findings. Band (1968) studied 848 freshman women enrolled in 28 colleges in 1964 and identified 300 as career-oriented and 548 as homemaking-oriented. They were asked to respond to the American College Survey. She concluded that the masculinity-femininity dimension is a valid one for differentiating between women who prefer different life orientations. The career-oriented women used characteristics of both sexes to define their sex role, while the home-oriented used more traditional concepts of femininity. The career-oriented women also exhibited more masculine characteristics and behavior and higher masculine personality and ability characteristics.

Nagley (1970) studied some of the biographical and attitudinal characteristics of college educated mothers who were combining the roles of wife, mother, and worker. She found support for the hypothesis that women in male-dominated occupations were more career-committed and viewed their work in more masculine terms than women in female dominated occupations.

These studies indicate that there are measured personality differences between men and women and that they are manifested to some degree in the careers and life-styles pursued by women. However, recent works (Constantinople, 1973 & Diamond, 1972) have questioned the usefulness of the masculine-feminine dimension. Those who are critical of studies which describe women in terms of the presence or absence of masculine characteristics appear to be objecting to the
related implications of abnormality. It seems reasonable to begin talking of human characteristics rather than masculine-feminine characteristics. However, the literature suggests that we are some distance from that prospect. The subtle implications of this phenomenon are probably felt by many women who consider a non-traditional career or life-style.

Relationship of personality to women's life-styles

An interesting study of a general, but related, nature was done by Worell and Worell (1971), who examined the views of 1,000 women at the University of Kentucky in regard to the women's liberation movement. Five hundred expressed either strong support or opposition to the movement, and 50 women of each opinion were administered four personality tests. The women who supported women's liberation had higher needs for independence and self-reliance than did those who were opposed. The opposers were more conforming, more fearful, excessively neat, rigid, externally controlled and authoritarian.

While Worell and Worell's study deals with a broader issue than life-style preference, the findings are related to a number of the studies that will be reviewed on the relationship of personality to life-style preference. In general, those who were in favor of the women's liberation movement possessed personal characteristics similar to women who lean toward the nontraditional in regard to career and life-style preference.
The following studies describe the personalities of women as they relate to life-styles, and while the interpretations are broader than those studies that examined the masculinity-femininity dimension, one can see the influence of traditional sex-typed characteristics. Most of the studies compare career-oriented women to homemaking-oriented women but there are some that deviate from that approach. The studies are presented in chronological order from oldest to the most recent and span the last 10 years.

A study by Zissis (1964) related self-ratings of career-marriage orientation to vocational interests, academic achievement, socio-economic status, and interpersonal traits. On the O'Leary Interpersonal Checklist the career-oriented women described themselves as competitive, aggressive, and managerial while the marriage-oriented described themselves as docile, self-effacing, and cooperative.

Using the Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values and the SVIB, Wagman (1966) studied 132 women in a beginning college psychology class. Findings indicated that the career-oriented women were higher on the AVL theoretical value and on the SVIB lawyer, psychologist and physician scale. Homemaking-oriented women had high scores on the AVL religious value and on the SVIB housewife, home economics teacher and dietician scales.

Cook's dissertation (1967) compared senior college women who wanted a career and those who wanted a home, and found the career women to be less conforming on religious beliefs, and found they
scored higher on independence and confidence attitude scales. The home-oriented women scored highest on need for security.

Gysbers, Johnston and Gust (1968) used the SVIB-V in a study at the University of Missouri between 1958 and 1964. They did a follow-up in 1967 and found that career-oriented women were more intellectual and enterprising and home-oriented women were more social and conventional. More specifically, career-oriented women were more impatient when personal need conflicted with needs of others, more skeptical about religion, less content with their own emotional adjustment, and said they derived more satisfaction from social interactions with men than they did with women.

Norfleet (1968) studied college women who were classified as achievers and underachievers using the California Psychological Inventory and the Gough Adjective Check List. The study suggested that the achievers were more poised, responsible, mature and tolerant. On the check list underachievers thought of themselves as civilized, friendly, sentimental, sociable, thoughtful and understanding while the achievers considered themselves capable, conscientious and industrious.

Schissel (1967) used the SVIB-H and a background data sheet in his dissertation and studied 200 employed and 200 unemployed females who had worked for five years and two years respectively after graduation. He found that the two groups appeared to lie along a bipolar interest continuum of things versus people with the career women leaning toward things and the non-career women leaning
toward people. In a later study using the same sample, Schissel (1968) used the SVIB-II and a self-designed career orientation scale for women, and concluded that women can be ordered along a continuum of career orientation on the basis of interests.

McGowan and Liu (1970) used Cattell’s 16 PF on 168 women enrolled in a university extension class designed to help middle-aged women find satisfying educational, vocational or volunteer involvements. They found that the women who attempted to develop commitments outside the home were highly intelligent, very creative, reserved, affected by feelings, relaxed, adventurous, and assertive.

Bachtold and Werner (1970) used the 16 PF to obtain a personality profile of academic women in psychology and to compare them with the general female population, with college women, and with successful men in academia. As a group, the women psychologists were more intelligent, socially aloof, dominant, serious, adventurous, sensitive, flexible, imaginative, insightful, unconventional, secure and self-sufficient than adult women in general and women in college. They were also less anxiety prone than either group. When compared to academic men, their profiles were very similar, but the women scored higher than the men on intelligence, super-ego strength, and unconventionality, and lower than the academic men on self-sentiment.

O'Leary and Braun (1972) studied 19 women who held a Ph.D. and 19 who had a B.A. degree who had not gone to graduate school or
worked beyond graduation. They found that the groups did not differ significantly in intelligence, but the Ph.D.s were significantly more reserved, imaginative, radical, and were higher in ego strength and self-sufficiency. The Ph.D.s also remembered themselves to have been more rebellious and nonconforming as children.

Faunce and Loper (1972) used the MPI with a sample of 1,064 high ability first-year women who entered the University of Minnesota college of liberal arts in the years 1950-58, and compared them with a sample of 1,993 first-year women who entered in 1959 and 1961. Results indicated that the high ability women were more idealistic, shy and sensitive, while the women in general were more active and energetic, but more anxious.

**Summary of the Literature**

The nature of this research topic made it necessary to examine a number of subject areas which relate to different aspects of women, life-style preference, personality, and college. A summary of the literature is presented here in an attempt to clarify the general findings of the many studies reviewed.

It appears that there has been a recent and growing interest and concern to clarify and reexamine the role of women in American society. The impetus has been provided by the women's liberation movement which has sensitized the society to the special problems faced by women. Numerous books have been directed at the psychology and physiology of women while countless journal articles have reported the growing amount of research that has focused on women.
The literature reveals that sex-role stereotyping is deeply imbedded in society and that views of women and men are often based on traditional role definitions that have been a part of our culture. While there are indications that sex stereotyping is eroding, there are also indications that it is eroding more slowly than is presently perceived by many. Any study of women's roles must be conducted with a clear understanding of the pervasiveness of sex stereotyping in our society.

The life-styles of women revolve around the variables of work, marriage and children and the interaction of these variables over time. The process of life-style development appears to be an ongoing process that continues to manifest itself after women have completed college.

There appear to be numerous determinants of a woman's life-style and the intricate interaction of them produces an extremely complex process. The literature indicates that a recent attempt to isolate and understand the many determinants has focused on personal characteristics, parental influence, socio-economic factors, and the role of men. For the purpose of this study, the general influence of college is also considered important, but specific factors related to the college experience have not been exhaustively identified. It is also important to recognize the phenomena of incrementalism and chance as important factors of one's life-style development. Until more research is done, the presence of the many determinants must be acknowledged, and those concerned must report the research data cautiously and avoid categorical generalizations.
The Vassar College studies (1952-1960), still the most complete research that has been done about college women, indicated that almost all of the women expected to be employed after graduation until they married and had children. While a very strong interest in marriage and children was identified it was also found that approximately 70 percent of the same Vassar women responded true to "I would like a career." The existence of this apparent inconsistency led the Vassar researchers to interpretations of role conflict that have been criticized by some present researchers.

The relationship of personality to women's life-styles has been examined in many studies. While these studies have been helpful in providing a way of understanding women, much recent scholarly opinion, however, questions the applicability of personality theory to the special problems of women. Some feel that personality theory itself must be revised before it can be of value in understanding women, while others take a less radical position and suggest that the problem is in the way study results are interpreted and reported.

One controversial area of personality that has come under attack is the masculine-feminine dimension. Many studies have reported their findings about women in terms of personality characteristics that have been traditionally defined as either masculine or feminine. This has led to interpretations which suggest that women who possess what are termed masculine characteristics are abnormal. Recent articles propose that researchers begin recognizing the existence of "human" characteristics rather than masculine or
feminine characteristics.

The studies that have examined the relationship between life-styles and personality have found that there are personality differences between women who prefer a career and those who prefer family. In general career-oriented women appear to be more ambitious, independent, aggressive and unconventional than family-oriented women. More studies are needed which examine the relationship of women who prefer to pursue both career and family simultaneously to those who prefer career or family exclusively.
CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Briefly restated, the purpose of this study is to explore the life-style preferences of a current population of junior and senior college women by gathering, examining and analyzing self-report data and personality data. The methodology used to accomplish this purpose is presented in this chapter.

The chapter is divided into four sections: study population, instrumentation, procedures, and data analysis. A description of the study population is followed by a discussion of the instruments used in the study. The data gathering procedures and the procedure used to construct the study groups are also presented. The methodology involved in analyzing the data, including hypotheses and statistical tests used, is explained.

The Study Population

The subjects for the study were the total population of the junior (N=85) and senior (N=115) women enrolled at Ohio Dominican College, Columbus, Ohio, during the Winter semester of 1974 (January-May). Ohio Dominican College is a private, liberal arts-oriented college of approximately 1,000 students. The college is religiously
affiliated (Catholic) and was a women's college until it became coeducational in 1966. Since that time the number of men enrolled has increased to about 40 percent of the student body. The faculty composition is approximately 70 percent lay and 30 percent Dominican sisters, and approximately 50 percent of the total faculty are women.

It was posited that junior and senior women are at a stage of college life when post-college life-style considerations are of importance. Therefore, their identification with the study's topic would generate their interest and cooperation.

Of the junior and senior women (N=200) solicited, 140 (70 percent) participated in the study. A complete description of the characteristics of the study's subjects appears in Appendix A. This description includes their year of graduation from high school, their marital status and children, their college grade point average, their academic major, the kind of jobs they expect to pursue and their plans for further education and degrees. The important characteristics of the subjects are discussed below.

Age and marital status

Eighty percent (112) of the women had graduated from high school less than five years ago, making them approximately 20 to 23 years of age at time of participation. Only 17 (12 percent) had graduated from high school between five and ten years prior to participation, making them approximately 22 to 27 years of age. Even fewer had graduated from high school over ten years prior to
participating in the study, making them at least 27 years of age (11 or 8 percent). Seventy-six percent (107) of the women were not married, while 33 (24 percent) reported that they were married. Of those married, almost one-half (15) had at least one child.

**Academic achievement**

Under a grading system with 4.0-A as the maximum grade point average, the largest number of women (55 or 39 percent) reported that they were in the 4.0-3.5 category. Thirty-seven (26 percent) had a grade point average between 3.4-3.0, and 37 also fell in the 2.9-2.5 category. Only 11 (8 percent) were in the 2.4-2.0 category.

**The academic majors of the women**

An overwhelming number of the women were pursuing fields of study that are considered to be traditional female occupations. The largest number of women, 44 (31 percent), were education majors; while majors such as social welfare, psychology, home economics, the languages, art and library science accounted for another 40 percent (56). Only 22 (16 percent) of the women reported majors such as business administration, economics, biology, medical technology, and mathematics.

In regard to the stability of choice of major, 33 (24 percent) said they had changed their major during college and only three women had changed their major more than once. A large number, 107 (76 percent), however, reported no change of major after beginning college. There was no recognizable pattern among those
who had changed their major. Of the 33 women who reported a change, there were 29 different combinations. An interesting observation, however, is that mathematics was the major most often abandoned, and that occurred seven times.

The pursuit of jobs and further education

When asked what kind of job they expected to pursue, 75 (54 percent) of the women indicated they expected to teach. Only five of the women expected to be teaching natural science subjects such as math and biology, while 40 indicated either the elementary grades or special education.

Other traditional job choices such as social work, library work, nursing, areas of home economics, and counseling, when combined with the number that planned to teach, accounted for 110 (79 percent) of the women's job expectations. Only six (four percent) of the women said they were undecided about the type of work they expected to pursue.

Despite the rather traditional areas of work the women expected to pursue, 65 percent (91) of the women expected to attend graduate school at some time in the future in order to obtain another degree. Thirty-one percent (44) of the women said they would not further their formal education after obtaining their undergraduate degree, while only four percent were undecided.

With the exception of three women who aspired to a Ph.D., the other women expected to work toward a masters degree. The areas of education (20), guidance and counseling (9), social work (8), library
science (4), psychology (4), home economics (3), and fine arts (3) accounted for 56 percent of the intended areas of specialization. Eight (6 percent) women were undecided about their area of specialization.

Summary of the study population

In summary, the college women who participated in this study can be considered traditional in regard to their age, marital status, field of study and job expectations. It is possible that a conservative religious tradition plays a part in their role definitions. An indication of a move toward less traditional life patterns, however, is represented by the fact that approximately two-thirds of the women expected to pursue another degree.

It is possible that the large number of women who aspire to another degree is related to the fact that the College was recently a women's college and that approximately half of the College's faculty are women. This is an extremely high percentage of women faculty when compared to other coeducational institutions nationally. Therefore, the abundance of educated female role models must be considered a possible explanation for the strong interest expressed in attending graduate school.

Instrumentation

Two instruments were used to gather the data for this study. One was designed for the study and the other is a standardized personality questionnaire.
The Personal Information Form

The specially designed instrument used in the study was administered for the purpose of obtaining demographic data and self-report data about life-style preference (Appendix B). Administration time of the instrument was approximately five minutes. The demographic data were used to develop a description of the study population. General characteristics of the subjects were discussed briefly in the preceding section and appear in complete form in Appendix A.

The second part of the basic instrument solicited self-report data from the women about their life-style preference. There were two aspects related to this part of the instrument. First the women were asked to choose a preferred post-college life situation from seven alternatives offered. The life situations combined the variables of marriage, work and children in several ways. If one selected "undecided," she was asked to look over the seven choices again and select the one she was presently leaning toward. After the choice of a preferred life situation, the women were asked to look again at the seven alternatives and choose the one they would have preferred as freshmen.

The development of the seven post-college life situations was a result of an extensive literature review, consultation with a number of knowledgable resource people, and a pilot test with 45 freshman and sophomore women enrolled at Ohio Dominican College.

The Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire

The Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (16 PF) was the
second instrument used in the study. This instrument was developed by Raymond B. Cattell and is presently distributed by the Institute for Personality and Ability Testing (IPAT), Champaign, Illinois. Several books have been published about the 16 PF (Cattell, Eber & Tatsuoka, 1970; Cattell & Stice, 1957; Cattell, Saunders & Stice, 1949). The 16 PF (test form A, 1967-68 edition) consists of 187 short statements to which the subject responds to either negatively (False, No, Never), positively (True, Yes, Generally, Always), or somewhere in between (Uncertain, Sometimes, In Between). The items used for the intelligence scale have a choice of answers, only one of which is correct.

The 16 PF is based on over 30 years of basic research and development, documented in numerous books and journal articles, and every item has been subjected to factor-analytic investigation. This has provided a foundation of empirical evidence that the 16 personality scales are stable and independent. The test has been revised and intensified in validity several times since its initial publication in 1949.

Test-retest reliabilities for the 16 PF scales average about .75 and internal construct validities average .67 for each scale. In regard to validity, for example, multiple correlations of the test scores have indicated probabilities typically at the 0.6 level of confidence with school achievement, 0.5 with clinically judged neurotic trend, and 0.5 with earnings in salesmanship.

Norm tables for each test form, or combinations of the various forms, are available for high school seniors, college students, and
the general adult population, and for males, females, and males and females combined. For the purpose of this study mean sten scores normed for female college students were used.

The computer-scored printout for each subject yields a raw score as well as a mean sten score for each of the 16 factors. The factors are polar in nature and they are as follows: reserved-outgoing, dull-bright, emotional-stable, humble-assertive, sober-happy, expedient-proper, shy-venturesome, tough-tender, trusting-suspicious, practical-imaginative, forthright-shrewd, placid-apprehensive, conservative-experimenting, dependent-independent, casual-controlled, and relaxed-tense.

Administration time of the 16 PF is approximately 45 minutes including reading instructions.

**Procedures**

There were three aspects of the data collection process. The subjects were administered, one after the other, the Personal Information Form and 16 PF. Secondly, the subjects who had taken the 16 PF as freshmen were asked if their scores could be used for comparative purposes in the study. The third aspect involved an interview of 25 of the participants. The specifics of each aspect are explained below, along with the procedure used to construct study groups.

**Administration of the instruments**

Each subject received a letter from the researcher explaining
the study, asking for her participation, and listing a choice of
times and places when the two instruments would be administered.
The data collecting exercise was then conducted three times daily,
during the week of February 4-8, 1974, in classrooms on the Ohio
Dominican College campus. The researcher conducted each session
and was able to get 65 participants. Those who did not report for
a scheduled session were sent the study material with a cover letter
and instructions for completing the instruments at their leisure.
This was done on February 9 and resulted in the obtaining of 50 more
participants. On February 20, those who had not returned the
completed instruments were sent another letter reminding them of the
material they had in their possession and asking that it be returned
by February 28. This entire process resulted in a final 70 percent
return (N=140).

The data from the Personal Information Form were tabulated
and recorded by the researcher. The 16 PF answer sheets were sent to
the Institute for Personality and Ability Testing to be machine-scored
and to be recorded on punched cards for computer analysis.

**Freshman 16 PF scores**

Eighty-two (59 percent) of the 140 participants had taken the
16 PF as a part of Ohio Dominican College's freshman testing program
and were asked by letter for permission to use their freshman scores
in this study. All of the participants consented. The freshman
scores were then obtained from the Student Services Division's
counseling and testing office.
The development of study groups

In most of the studies related to women's life-style orientation, career-oriented women have been compared to women with a home or family orientation. In many of those studies, even when a woman was working at a career but also had a family, she was described as career-oriented. In this study, to avoid what the researcher considers a lack of clarity in defining life-styles, three orientations were developed—career-oriented, family-oriented, and dual-oriented. The development of the dual-oriented group was a response to the increasing number of women who have been expressing interest in combining career and family. This trend appears to be even more popular among college women.

Briefly restated, the women in this study were offered seven post-college life situations on the Personal Information Form and asked to select the one they preferred (Appendix B). These seven alternatives were then subsumed into the three life-style orientations mentioned above. The following discussion clarifies the procedure employed.

Career-oriented women

The women included in the career-oriented group preferred either of the two following life situations.

(1) After graduation I expect to pursue a career and do not expect to ever marry.

(2) After graduation I expect to eventually marry and continue working full-time. I do not expect to ever have children.
Family-oriented women

The women included in the family-oriented group preferred one of the three following life situations.

(3) After graduation I expect to work full-time until I marry. When I marry I will stop working full-time outside the home.

(4) After graduation I expect to work full-time and eventually marry. If and when I have children I will stop working and devote my time to my family. At some time in the future, I may return to a part-time job but will never return to a full-time job outside the home.

(5) After graduation I expect to work full-time and eventually marry. If and when I have children I will stop working and devote my time to my family. I will return to a full-time job after my youngest child is in the first grade or sometime thereafter, but not before.

These women were described as family-oriented because they consider the family their highest concern. Even those who choose number five and expect to return to a full-time job eventually do not consider work so important that they would leave their children at a young age to pursue it.

Dual-oriented women

The women included in this group preferred either of the two following life situations.

(6) After graduation I expect to work full-time and eventually marry. If and when I have children I will stop working and devote
my time to my family. I will return to a full-time job before my youngest child has begun school.

(7) After graduation I expect to work, marry and continue working full-time, even if and when I have a child, therefore combining career and family with only a short interruption for childbirth.

These women consider their work and their family as equal concerns and plan to pursue both simultaneously. Their work is important enough to them that they plan to provide substitute child care during the preschool years to pursue it. This separates these women from those who plan to return to work only after children are in school.

**Personal interviews**

As a result of the subjects' responses to the life situation section of the Personal Information Form it was determined that 28 (20 percent) of the women had changed their basic life-style orientation after beginning college. These women received a letter explaining this aspect of the study and inviting them to make an appointment for a five to ten minute interview. The interviews were conducted in the researcher's office on the Ohio Dominican College campus. The interviews began on February 18 and were concluded on March 15. Twenty-five of the 28 women who had indicated a change in life-style orientation during college were interviewed.

The purpose of the interview, as each woman was told in the letter inviting her to participate, was to identify some factors
that influenced her change of life-style preference. An attempt was made to identify general outside-of-college influences as well as those that were directly related to the college experience.

The interview procedure was standardized and the basic format did not vary from subject to subject. Each interview began with a briefing about why the subject was being interviewed and what the researcher planned to do with the information. Each woman was told again that her participation was voluntary and that her responses were confidential.

"Can you identify anything that influenced the change in your life-style preference since beginning college?" was the first question asked of each woman. The response to this relatively open-ended question dictated the researcher's second question. If the subject mentioned one or more factors that related to her college experience, the researcher asked for an elaboration or posed a clarifying question before asking for further elaboration.

If the subject's response indicated general factors that were not college-related, the researcher asked for further clarification of the factors mentioned if that was deemed necessary. Then the researcher asked, "Can you identify anything related to your college experience which influenced your change in life-style preference?" When considered necessary, some clarifying or focused questions followed.

After the subject left the interview session, the researcher made a written record of the information. Careful attention was paid to whether or not general factors were a more important influence
than college-related factors. Specific factors in each area were noted with some context elaboration.

Analysis of the Data

The pursuit of each of the objectives of this study produced different types of data. Some of it was analyzed through the use of descriptive statistics while other data, which lent itself to the offering of hypotheses, was analyzed through the use of statistical tests. The objectives of this study are briefly restated below along with the method of analysis employed for the data generated by each.

Descriptive statistics

The data generated by three objectives of this study were analyzed by descriptive statistics. Those three objectives were:

1. To determine the life-style orientations of a current population of junior and senior college women.
2. To determine to what extent the junior and senior women changed their life-style orientation after beginning college.
3. To identify some factors which influenced a change of life-style orientation by the women during the college years.

Hypotheses and statistical tests

In order to examine the fourth objective of this study which was (4) To determine if there are significant personality differences among groups of college women who prefer different life-style orientations, the following null hypothesis was developed and tested:
Hypothesis 1.— There is no significant personality difference among groups of women who prefer different life-style orientations as measured in their junior or senior year.

The above hypothesis was tested by using a one way analysis of variance on each of the 16 personality factor raw scores. When an F test found a significant difference among the three groups on any of the 16 personality scales, a Tukey-b was employed to identify specifically where the significant difference was located. A Scheffe test was used as a follow-up to each Tukey test in order to ensure the accuracy of the Tukey’s finding and to identify the location of a significant difference that the Tukey may not have been able to find.

In order to examine the fifth objective of this study which was (5) To determine if there are significant differences in the direction of change in personality characteristics during the college years among groups of women who prefer different life-style orientations, the following null hypotheses were developed and tested:

Hypothesis 2.— There is no significant personality difference among the women who represent different life-style orientations as measured in their freshman year and again in their junior or senior year.

Hypothesis 3.— There is no significant difference in regard to test occasion between freshman personality scores and the personality scores of the same women as juniors or seniors.

Hypothesis 4.— There is no significant interaction effect in the direction of change among the three life-style groups and the
subjects' personality scores during college.

The above hypotheses were tested by using a two way analysis of variance on each of the 16 personality factor raw scores. When any of the hypotheses were found to be significant on any personality factor scale as determined by an F test, follow-up tests using the Tukey-b and the Scheffe were employed to look at combinations among the groups.
CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

To achieve the objectives of this study, four types of data were generated. Data were gathered to indicate the women's post-college life-style preferences and to determine to what extent the women changed their preference during college and what influenced the changes. These data were collected by the use of self-report and interviews. The third type of data resulted from relating life-style preferences and personality scale scores, and the fourth type came from the relationship of life-style preference and personality score changes during college. This chapter includes a presentation of the findings for each type of data followed by a discussion of the findings.

Findings

The women's life-style preferences

The women (juniors and seniors) in the study population were asked to choose the one post-college life situation that they preferred from the seven that were included on the Personal Information Form (Appendix B). The seven situations were then subsumed into three life-style orientations—career, family, and dual. The women
were offered an "undecided" choice if they felt they were unable to select a preferred life situation. When "undecided" was selected the woman was asked to reexamine the seven life situations and select the one that represented a slight preference. Eighteen (13 percent) indicated they were undecided their first time through the choices. Table 1 includes a life-style preference for these 18 women as well as for those who selected a preference the first time through the selection process (N=140).

The largest number of women (N=90, 64 percent) indicated a preference for the family-oriented life-style. Sixty-six of the 90 (73 percent) preferred to return to work full-time outside of the home after their children were in school. Twenty-three (26 percent) indicated a preference to stop working full-time when their first child is born and planned never to return to a full-time job outside the home. One woman preferred to stop working when she marries and before she has children.

The next largest group (N=36, 26 percent) indicated a dual-oriented life-style preference. This preference entails returning to work full-time before children are in school. Nineteen of these women preferred to return to work after only a short interruption for childbirth.

The smallest group (N=14, 10 percent) indicated a career orientation which means that they do not plan to marry (N=8), or if they do marry, they do not plan to have children (N=6).

An examination of the background information generated by the Personal Information Form indicates that there are some differences
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Life-style orientation</th>
<th>Life situation choices</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Cum. N</th>
<th>% of total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Career</td>
<td>Graduation, full-time work, no marriage</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Graduation, full-time work, marriage, no children</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family</td>
<td>Graduation, full-time work, marriage, stop working</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Graduation, full-time work, marriage, children, stop working/never return to a full-time job</td>
<td>23</td>
<td></td>
<td>64%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Graduation, full-time work, marriage, children, stop working at least until youngest child is in school, then pursue full-time job</td>
<td>66</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dual</td>
<td>Graduation, full-time work, marriage, children, stop working but return to full-time job before youngest child is in school</td>
<td>17</td>
<td></td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Graduation, full-time work, marriage, children, and continue work with only minor interruption for childbirth</td>
<td>19</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N=140
among the three groups of women. The career-oriented group changed their field of study less often after beginning college, had a higher percentage of women pursuing teaching as a career, and had a higher percentage of women expecting to pursue graduate study. The dual-oriented women were generally older and a higher percentage had already married. All of the personal background information gathered appears in Appendix A.

Change of life-style preference during college

After the women indicated a preference, they were asked if they would have made the same choice as freshmen. Twenty-eight (20 percent) of the women indicated that their choice would not have been the same and that their preference as freshmen would have placed them in a different life-style orientation. Table 2 shows the life-style orientation of these women as freshmen and the orientation they moved to as juniors or seniors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Moved from as Freshmen</th>
<th>Moved to as Juniors or Seniors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Career</td>
<td>Career</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family</td>
<td>Family</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dual</td>
<td>Dual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N=28</td>
<td>N=28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Most of the women who changed their orientation came to college as either career or family-oriented. While only three of the 28 indicated that their freshman choice was a dual orientation, a majority of the women who did change their orientation (N=15) changed to a dual orientation during college. Twelve moved away from either career or dual to family and three moved away from dual and family to career. Thus, the career-oriented category had a net loss of 10, the family category had a net loss of two, and the dual category had a net gain of 12. To generalize, one could say that the women who changed their life-style orientation during college tended to move to a dual orientation and away from a career orientation.

An examination of the background information indicated that as a group, those who changed their life-style orientation during college also changed their major field of study at a higher rate than the other women. While 16 percent of the women who did not change their life-style orientation indicated changing their major at least once during college, 43 percent of those who changed their life-style orientation also changed their major. Those who changed their life-style preference had higher grade point averages during college with 57 percent of them in the 4.0 - 3.5 category. The comparable figure for the nonchangers was 31 percent.

In an attempt to identify factors that influenced a change of life-style orientation during college, 25 of the 28 women were interviewed. The interviews seemed to indicate that general outside-of-college influences were as important as college-related influences in motivating a change in life-style orientation. The influential
factors most often cited in the general influence category were men the women met, who became potential marriage partners, the perceived growing acceptance by society of less traditional roles for women, and economic concerns that led to an interest in a two-income family. Many of the women who indicated college as influential were unable to be specific, and they usually cited the college experience in general. When specific aspects of college were identified, most often mentioned was the interest that developed in applying and utilizing their field of study. Other factors cited were female peer influence that generally grew out of dormitory experiences, and women faculty role models. A summary of the findings of each interview conducted appears in Appendix C.

Women who came to college as career-oriented and changed their orientation generally did so because they saw marriage or children as restrictive and in conflict with career interests, because they had negative feelings about their own home situation, or because their high school experience did not include satisfactory relationships with the opposite sex. Their decisions to move to a family or dual orientation were generally influenced by meeting a man whom they began dating regularly, by outside and college influences that appeared to make a dual orientation more justifiable, and by exposure to peers and role models who were planning to marry or were already married. Women who moved from career to family rather than to dual generally did so because they believe the mother's place is in the home while children are of preschool age.
The women who moved away from a family orientation generally moved to a dual orientation. The influential factor most often mentioned was a strong interest in applying their field of study, and this developed during college. A secondary but related factor was their ability to now justify a dual orientation, and this was influenced by peers, changes in societal expectations, and the desire for increased earning power. One woman cited a family-oriented mother who acted as a negative role model. In general these women came to believe that the quality of contact with their children would be more important than the amount of time spent. The two women who moved to career from family came to view marriage as something that would restrict their personal development and life goals.

Two interviewed women who moved away from a dual orientation went in different directions. The one who moved to career said she had always been career-oriented but until recently could not justify an unmarried life because of society's expected role for women. The woman who moved from dual to family came to believe through psychology courses that the mother's place is in the home when children are of preschool age.

The relationship of life-style preference to personality

By examining the women's life-style preferences and the 16 PF personality scale scores of the women an attempt was made to identify relationships between the two types of data. The following null hypothesis was tested.
Hypothesis 1.— There is no significant personality difference among the groups of women who prefer different life-style orientations as measured in their junior or senior year (N-140).

Hypothesis 1 was not accepted for three of the 16 personality scales. Significant differences were found on the tough-tender, conservative-experimenting and tense-relaxed scales. Table 3 shows the details of the analysis of variance that was conducted to test the above hypothesis.

Findings indicated that the career-oriented women scored as significantly (.05 level) more tough-minded and less tender-minded than the family-oriented women. The mean score of the dual-oriented women fell midway between the other two groups on the tough-tender scale. Family-oriented women scored as significantly (.05 level) more conservative and less experimenting than either the career or dual-oriented women. The dual-oriented women scored as significantly (.05 level) more tense and less relaxed than the career-oriented women. The mean score for the family-oriented women fell between the other two groups but closer to the score of the career-oriented women on the tense-relaxed scale. Table 4 shows the results of the follow-up tests (Tukey-b and Scheffe) that were used to locate the position of the significant difference for each of the three scales discussed above.

On three other scales a noticeable difference was found among the three groups that approached significance at the .05 level. The dual-oriented women scored as more assertive and less submissive than the career-oriented women with the mean score of the family-oriented women falling between the two. The career-oriented women scored as
TABLE 3
MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE RESULTS AMONG LIFE-STYLE AND PERSONALITY SCALE SCORES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personality Scales</th>
<th>Career Mean</th>
<th>Career S.D.</th>
<th>Family Mean</th>
<th>Family S.D.</th>
<th>Dual Mean</th>
<th>Dual S.D.</th>
<th>Analysis of Variance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reserved-Outgoing</td>
<td>10.50</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>11.00</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>10.91</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>1.52 10.89 .14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dull-Bright</td>
<td>9.64</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td>9.11</td>
<td>1.92</td>
<td>9.26</td>
<td>1.84</td>
<td>2.83 3.60 .79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional-Stable</td>
<td>17.64</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>16.25</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>15.55</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>22.17 13.69 1.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sober-Happy-go-lucky</td>
<td>13.86</td>
<td>4.77</td>
<td>15.79</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>15.03</td>
<td>4.01</td>
<td>25.96 16.58 1.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expedient-Propriety</td>
<td>13.28</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>12.12</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td>11.61</td>
<td>3.01</td>
<td>14.16 9.38 1.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shy-Venturesome</td>
<td>12.14</td>
<td>5.89</td>
<td>13.95</td>
<td>5.82</td>
<td>14.61</td>
<td>5.68</td>
<td>30.72 33.56 .91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tough-minded-Tender-minded</td>
<td>12.36</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>14.38</td>
<td>2.77</td>
<td>13.80</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>25.94 8.50 3.05*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trusting-Suspicious</td>
<td>6.57</td>
<td>3.54</td>
<td>7.11</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>7.08</td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>1.79 11.47 .16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practical-Imaginative</td>
<td>12.07</td>
<td>2.89</td>
<td>13.08</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>13.44</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>9.51 11.72 .81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Naive-Shrewd</td>
<td>9.71</td>
<td>2.52</td>
<td>9.87</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>9.56</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>1.74 8.44 .21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confident-Apprehensive</td>
<td>8.00</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>10.08</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>10.83</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>40.48 14.00 2.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conservative-Experimenting</td>
<td>9.07</td>
<td>5.03</td>
<td>7.48</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>9.00</td>
<td>2.54</td>
<td>38.25 9.75 3.92**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Casual-Controlled</td>
<td>14.00</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>12.03</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>12.05</td>
<td>2.65</td>
<td>24.22 9.01 2.69</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p ≤ .05  **p ≤ .025  ***p ≤ .01  
Degrees of freedom: 2 between, 137 within
TABLE 4
POST-HOC TESTS FOR PERSONALITY SCORE DIFFERENCES
BETWEEN GROUPS AS JUNIORS OR SENIORS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Tukey Differences</th>
<th>Scheffe</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tough-minded—Tender-minded*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career vs Family</td>
<td>2.02*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career vs Dual</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>Found the same as Tukey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family vs Dual</td>
<td>.57</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conservative—Experimenting**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career vs Family</td>
<td>1.59</td>
<td>Average of career and dual vs. family—contrast (5.12), F (6.94)**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career vs Dual</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family vs Dual</td>
<td>1.52</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relaxed—Tense***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career vs Family</td>
<td>1.56</td>
<td>Found the same as Tukey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career vs Dual</td>
<td>3.84***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family vs Dual</td>
<td>2.28</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Levels of significance: .05**, .025*** and .01***

more confident and less apprehensive than either of the other two groups and they also scored as more controlled and less casual than the dual and family-oriented women.

Figure 1 shows the mean personality profiles of the three groups based on the 16 personality scale scores as measured in the women's junior or senior year. For the purpose of the illustration, the raw scores on each factor, which were used for the analysis of
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Trait</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>Trait</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reserved</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td>Outgoing</td>
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<tr>
<td>Dull</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>Bright</td>
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<tr>
<td>Fractional</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Stable</td>
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<td>Submissive</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Assertive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sober</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Happy-go-lucky</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expedient</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Proper</td>
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<td>Shy, Timid</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Venturesome</td>
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<tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Tender-minded</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trusting</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>Suspicious</td>
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<td>Practical</td>
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<td>Imaginative</td>
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<td>Naive</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Shrewd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confident</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Apprehensive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conservative</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Experimenting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group-tied</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Self-sufficient</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Casual</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Controlled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relaxed</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Tense, Anxious</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 1.—Profile of the relationship of life-style preference and personality
The relationship of personality change to life-style

Eighty-two of the 140 junior and senior women who participated in the study had taken the 16 PF as freshmen. By comparing their personality characteristics as freshmen with their personality characteristics as juniors and seniors, an attempt was made to identify relationships between life-style orientation and personality characteristics over time. In order to do this, three hypotheses were tested. The group means, standard deviations and results of a two-way analysis of variance are shown in Tables 5 and 6.

Hypothesis 2—There is no significant personality difference among the women who represent different life-style orientations as measured in their freshman year and again in their junior or senior year.

Hypothesis 2 was not accepted for three of the 16 personality scales where a significant personality difference was found. The dual-oriented women scored as the most imaginative as freshmen and remained significantly (.05 level) more imaginative during college. While neither the Tukey-b nor the Scheffe could locate the difference among groups at a significant level, the difference existed between the dual-oriented women and both of the other groups. The family-oriented women scored as more conservative as freshmen and remained significantly (.01 level) more conservative during college. On this factor the family-oriented women remained significantly (.05 level) more
TABLE 5
MEAN PERSONALITY SCORES AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF GROUPS AS FRESHMEN AND AS JUNIORS OR SENIORS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personality Scales</th>
<th>Career</th>
<th>Family</th>
<th>Dual</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fresh</td>
<td>Jr-Sr</td>
<td>Fresh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Score</td>
<td>S.D.</td>
<td>Score</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reserved-Outgoing</td>
<td>12.24</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>11.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dull-Bright</td>
<td>8.78</td>
<td>2.39</td>
<td>9.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional-Stable</td>
<td>17.44</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>17.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Submissive-Assertive</td>
<td>11.78</td>
<td>4.92</td>
<td>11.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sober—Happy-go-lucky</td>
<td>16.22</td>
<td>5.54</td>
<td>15.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expedient-Propert</td>
<td>12.78</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>13.22</td>
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<td>12.22</td>
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<td>11.11</td>
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<td>5.59</td>
<td>12.56</td>
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S.D. = Standard Deviation
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<th>Personality Scales</th>
<th>Groups (A)</th>
<th>Test Occasion (B)</th>
<th>Interaction (AxB)</th>
<th>Subjects (C)</th>
<th>Interaction (BxC)</th>
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<td>16.63</td>
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<td>65.95</td>
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<td>88.54</td>
<td>28.19</td>
<td>13.24</td>
<td>27.37</td>
<td>11.09</td>
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</table>

*p ≤ 0.05  **p ≤ 0.025  ***p ≤ 0.01  ****p ≤ 0.001  Degrees of freedom: A(2), B(1), AxB(2), C(79), BxC(79)
conservative than the dual-oriented women. On the relaxed-tense scale a significant difference (.05 level) was found with the dual-oriented women remaining more tense during college. While neither the Tukey-b nor the Scheffe could locate a significant difference among groups, the difference existed between the dual-oriented women and the more relaxed career-oriented women. Table 7 shows the Tukey-b and Scheffe follow-ups on each of the three personality scales where a significant group main effect was found.

On two other scales a noticeable difference was found that approached the .05 level of significance. The dual-oriented women scored as more assertive and less submissive than the other two groups as freshmen and remained so without regard to time. The family-oriented women scored as more group-tied and more submissive as freshmen and remained more so than the others during college.

**Hypothesis 3.**—There is no significant difference in regard to test occasion between the freshman personality scores and the personality scores of the same women as juniors or seniors.

Hypothesis 3 was not accepted for seven of the 16 personality scales. Findings indicated that as juniors and seniors the women scored as more intellectually aware and less dull (.001 level), more stable and less emotional (.025 level), more sober and less happy-go-lucky (.01 level), more venturesome and less shy (.025 level), more imaginative and less practical (.01 level), more self-sufficient and less group-tied (.001 level), and more trusting and less suspicious (.025 level).

On four other scales a noticeable change approached statistical
### TABLE 7

**Post-Hoc Tests for Personality Differences Between Groups Over Time**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Tukey Differences</th>
<th>Scheffe</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Practical-Imaginative</strong></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career vs Family</td>
<td>0.66</td>
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<tr>
<td>Career vs Dual</td>
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<td>Found the same as Tukey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family vs Dual</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Conservative-Experimenting</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career vs Family</td>
<td>1.37</td>
<td>Family vs Dual—contrast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career vs Dual</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>(2.40), F (6.34)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family vs Dual</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Relaxed-Tense</strong></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Career vs Family</td>
<td>1.22</td>
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<tr>
<td>Career vs Dual</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>Found the same as Tukey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family vs Dual</td>
<td>2.17</td>
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</table>

Levels of significance: .05 and .01

Significance at the .05 level. As juniors and seniors the women scored as more reserved and less outgoing, more confident and less apprehensive, more controlled and less casual, and more relaxed and less tense. Figure 2 illustrates the study population's personality profile as freshmen and as juniors or seniors.

**Hypothesis 4.**—There is no significant interaction effect in the direction of change among the three life-style groups and the subjects' personality scores during college.
### Mean Sten Scores

<table>
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<tr>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Fig. 2.**—Change in women's personality scores during college
Hypothesis 4 was accepted because a significant difference was not found on any of the 16 scales. On three of the 16 personality scales, however, there was a noticeable difference in the degree of change among the groups that approached the .05 level of significance. The family-oriented women scored as having become more assertive during college while the dual-oriented women scored as having become more submissive. The career-oriented women scored as having become more suspicious while the dual-oriented women scored as having become more trusting. The dual-oriented women scored as having become more apprehensive while the career-oriented women scored as having become more confident.

Along with the three noticeable interaction effects reported above on the submissive-assertive, suspicious-trusting, and confident-apprehensive scales, there were interaction effects, although not approaching statistical significance, on four other personality scales. On three of these four scales the dual-oriented women changed in the opposite direction of the career and family-oriented women in that the dual-oriented women became more outgoing, more conservative and more tense during college while the other two groups were becoming more reserved, more experimenting and more relaxed. On the fourth scale the career and dual-oriented women scored as more naive while the family-oriented women scored as more shrewd than they were as freshmen.

**Discussion**

An examination of life-style preferences shows that 64 percent
of the women are family-oriented, while 26 percent preferred dual and 10 percent preferred career (Table 1). These findings indicate a less traditional life orientation than many of the studies that have been completed on the subject (Katz, 1969; Steinman, 1970; McMillan, Cerra & Mehaffey, 1971). In addition to 36 percent of the women who did not indicate a family orientation, almost three-fourths of those who preferred a family orientation expected to return to work full-time after their youngest child is in school. Therefore, only 17 percent of the women preferred no work or a part-time working status outside the home for the future.

The personal background information (Appendix A) indicated that most of the women in the study were enrolled in traditional majors and expected to pursue traditional occupations—teaching (54 percent), social work (13 percent), and library work (5 percent). The only indication of less traditional interests was represented by the fact that 65 percent of the women expected to seek another degree after graduation. It is possible that the presence of a faculty that is 50 percent women provided abundant role models and influenced the women toward more education and work as a part of their future lives. It is also possible that the feminist movement of recent years may have exerted an influence toward acceptance of less traditional life roles.

Eighty percent of the women, however, preferred the same general life-style that they reported to have preferred as freshmen. The 28 women (20 percent) who indicated a change of orientation during college, while moving to all three orientations, most often moved to a dual orientation (N=15). It is possible that a trend identified in
the literature review which indicated a movement away from viewing woman's role as an either/or (career or family) situation is visible here. This possibility is offered because almost half of the women who indicated a dual orientation moved to that preference during college. Also related to this trend is the fact that 73 percent of the family-oriented women expect to work full-time outside the home after children are in school.

The personality profiles of the three groups of women as juniors or seniors (Figure 1) indicate that the dual-oriented women are more similar to the family-oriented women than the career-oriented women. Family and dual-oriented women did differ noticeably, however, on three of the 16 personality scales. Dual-oriented women were significantly more tense and were more assertive while family-oriented women were significantly more conservative. During college, while family-oriented women (and the career-oriented women) were becoming more confident, dual-oriented women were growing more apprehensive as well as remaining significantly more tense and significantly more imaginative. Family-oriented women remained significantly more conservative, more submissive and more group-dependent than the others during college.

Interviews with the women who changed their orientation revealed that those who moved to a dual-orientation during college cited as influential factors in this move a growing interest in applying their field of study, and being able to justify working while their preschool children were at home. The latter was based
on hearing about and seeing other women who planned to do or were already doing both. Given the above, and the fact that the dual-oriented women were the most assertive and the most imaginative of the three groups, it appears likely that they would prefer an opportunity to attempt a dual role. However, the fact that they scored as more tense and apprehensive than the other two groups, and became even more so during college, might suggest that they are still not sure that they are capable of assuming a dual role because they recognize difficulties they may encounter.

Another observation that may have some relevance relates to some of the background information about the dual-oriented group. While 17 percent (N=20) of the other women studied had already married, 36 percent (N=13) of the dual-oriented women were married and 18 percent of them (N=5) had a child, were in college, and therefore were already living their preferred role. It is possible that their personality characteristics to some degree reflect their experience with the dual role.

Career-oriented women, who do not plan to marry, or if they do, do not plan to have children, have a profile that does not closely resemble either of the other two groups. They are significantly more tough-minded, more confident and more controlled than the others. During college they grew even more confident, but while the other groups were becoming more trusting, the career-oriented women, who were the most trusting group as freshmen, became more suspicious. A possible explanation of their increased suspiciousness might relate to the existence of strong societal values which view
marriage and children as normative. Increased suspiciousness might also be a defensive reaction to a conservative college environment as it relates to religious values. These feelings were expressed during interviews.

Women who indicated a change of life-style orientation during college, when viewed as a group, differed from the other women on two aspects of background information. They changed their major field of study after beginning college more often (43 percent as compared to 16 percent of the nonchangers) and had higher grade point averages (57 percent in the 4.0 - 3.5 category as opposed to 31 percent of the nonchangers). The fact that almost half of the women who changed their life-style orientation, also changed their major field of study during college, may suggest a relationship between the uncertainty of a preferred field of study and the inability to envision a preferred life role at an early stage in their college career or possibly a realization of the freedom to do so.

The fact that the change group had higher grade point averages than the nonchangers leads one to question the relationship between academic ability and the clarification of future interests. Upon closer examination, for example, it was found that the 12 women who came to college as family-oriented and moved to dual and career orientations were excellent students. Nine of the 12 had a grade point average in the 4.0 - 3.5 range while two others were in the next highest category (3.4 - 3.0). This raises a question as to whether they were ever sufficiently motivated to direct their intelligence toward the clarification of life goals during high
school. The tendency toward changing one's major field of study that was exhibited by the change group may also suggest a need for more life-oriented planning during high school.

In summary, it appears that the results of this study indicate that the women who preferred different life-style orientations also differed to a measurable degree in regard to personality characteristics. It also appears that these women are considering less traditional life orientations in that full-time work outside the home is considered to be very important. Another finding indicated that the women who changed their life-style orientation during college differed noticeably from the nonchangers with regard to academic achievement and stability of major field of study.
CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Synopsis of the Study

The purpose of this study was to explore the life-style preferences of a current population of junior and senior college women by gathering, examining and analysing self-report and personality data. This purpose was directed toward identifying and developing necessary information, and a method for gathering and treating it, that will be useful in planning student development programs for college women. The impetus for the study came from current developments in changing life-styles and roles for women.

The population consisted of the 200 junior and senior women at a small, private, church-related liberal arts-oriented college. The Ohio Dominican College study group included 140 of these women (70 percent of the total population) who responded to an invitation to participate. The objectives developed for the study required four types of data: (1) the life-style preferences of the women; (2) the extent to which life-style preferences changed during college, and factors that influenced the change; (3) the relationship of life-style preference and personality; and (4) the relationship of life-style preference and personality change during college.
The women were asked to report their post-college life-style preference and to indicate whether or not it had changed since beginning college. The Personal Information Form (Appendix B) was used to elicit this information as well as to elicit personal background information. The women also responded to the Sixteen Personality Factor Inventory to provide personality data. Freshmen personality data from the same instrument were available for 82 of the 140 women, and this was used as comparative data to measure relative change in personality.

Through the use of descriptive statistics it was found that 64 percent of the women preferred a family orientation while 26 percent preferred a dual orientation and 10 percent preferred a career orientation (Table 1). Twenty-eight of the women (20 percent) indicated a change of life-style orientation during college and 25 of them were interviewed to identify factors that influenced the change. A majority of the women who changed moved to a dual orientation and just under half of the women moved away from a career orientation. The family-oriented category lost slightly more than it gained (Table 2). The results of the interviews (Appendix C) indicated that influences outside the college experience were as important as those related to college in motivating a change. The general outside of college influences most often cited were men (especially potential marriage partners), society's acceptance of less traditional women's roles, and economic concerns. The college influence most often cited was the interest that the women developed in applying their field of study. Also mentioned were significant female peers who were generally
influential in the dormitory setting and women faculty who acted as role models.

A one-way analysis of variance and the Tukey-b and Scheffe post-hoc tests showed that there were significant differences among groups on three of the personality scales as measured in the subjects' junior or senior years (N=140). Family-oriented women were found to be significantly more conservative than either of the other groups, and the dual-oriented women were significantly more tense than the career-oriented women. The career-oriented women were significantly more tough-minded than the family-oriented women. Noticeable differences approaching statistical significance were observed on three other personality scales—dual-oriented women were more assertive and career-oriented women were more controlled and more confident than the others.

A two-way analysis of variance and post-hoc tests were used to test three null hypotheses that were offered to measure the relationship of change of personality during college and life-style preference. In order to do this, the women's personality scores as freshmen, and later as juniors or seniors, were used (N=82).

The first of three hypotheses directed at personality change was not accepted because a significant difference between the groups of women preferring different life-styles and the women's personality scores was found on three personality scales. The dual-oriented women remained significantly more imaginative during college while they also remained significantly more tense. The family-oriented women remained significantly more conservative without regard to
time. While not significant at the .05 level, the family-oriented women remained noticeably more submissive and noticeably more group-tied during college.

The second of the three hypotheses related to personality change was not accepted because significant personality differences were found on seven of the 16 personality scales. In this case all of the women who had freshman and junior or senior scores were compared without regard to life-style orientation. A test occasion main effect was found on seven of the 16 personality scales in that the women became significantly more intellectually aware, more stable, more sober, more venturesome, more trusting, more imaginative, and more self-sufficient. While not significant at the .05 level, the women also became noticeably more reserved, more confident, more controlled, and more relaxed during college.

The third of the three hypotheses related to personality change was accepted because no significant interaction effect was found on any of the 16 scales in regard to the direction of personality change during college among the groups of women who preferred different life-styles. A noticeable difference approaching significance, however, was found on three personality scales. The family-oriented women became more assertive while the dual-oriented women became more submissive. An examination of the group mean scores as freshmen and later as juniors or seniors indicates that the dual-oriented women were the most assertive and the family-oriented women the most submissive as freshmen. The movement of both groups was toward the mean for all three groups. The career-
oriented women became more suspicious while the dual-oriented women became more trusting and the dual-oriented women became more apprehensive while the career-oriented women became more confident.

Implications of the Findings

There are several general implications of this study's findings. The first implication is related to the indication that the college women in this study viewed their preferred life roles as less traditional than has previously been identified in the literature. If one were to combine the family-oriented women, who indicated a preference to work full-time after children were in school, with those who indicated a career or dual orientation, a total of 83 percent of the study population would be represented. With so many of the women viewing full-time employment as a part of their life role, it appears that the choice of a preferred life-style is becoming less a question of an either/or option (family or career) and more one of a combination of the two basic roles.

Most studies done prior to this one did not yield as strong an indication toward less traditional roles for women. However, some recent studies indicated a trend toward the less traditional. Since this study was directed at women at a small Catholic-affiliated college in the midwest, one could contend, as did the author in the first chapter, that it is inappropriate to generalize these findings. But the fact that this group of college women may be considered more conservative than other groups makes these findings of a less traditional orientation even more noteworthy. As was mentioned earlier,
the data yielded by the Personal Information Form (Appendix B) in regard to the women's fields of study and their planned occupations, indicated that their interests were traditional. But the findings also indicated that a surprisingly high proportion of the women (65 percent) planned to pursue graduate study at some point in the future. This suggested the possibility that the women were not as traditional or conventional as other factors seemed to indicate.

It is important to observe that 50 percent of the faculty these women were exposed to during college were women. This is a very high percentage of women faculty to find at a coed college. The possibility of role-model influence must be considered as an explanation for the high percentage of women that had graduate school interests and as an explanation of the indication of less traditional life-style preferences.

A second implication of this study's findings is related to what appears to be a conflict in the dual-oriented women. While they scored as more imaginative and more assertive than the other groups, and were interested in pursuing a motivation which views a simultaneous family and career as preferable, they appear to have doubts about their ability to actualize the dual role. These doubts are indicated by the fact that they scored as more tense and more apprehensive than the others, and became even more tense and apprehensive during college while the other groups were changing in the opposite direction. How will these women respond when children are born and what role will their husbands be willing to assume as they attempt to fulfill their dual desire? These unanswered questions and possibly others may
explain their concern.

Two related points appear appropriate here. As was mentioned earlier, a higher percentage of dual-oriented women were already married at the time this study was conducted and almost half of the dual-oriented women moved to this preference after beginning college. The first point suggests that their experience with the marital aspect of the dual role has possibly resulted in problems, or has identified potential problems that will arise when children are born, that may conflict with their interest in pursuing full-time work outside the home. In regard to the second point, the fact that almost half of the dual-oriented women moved to this preference during college, may suggest that they have not had enough time or help to clarify how they will actualize their relatively new preference.

A discussion of the dual-oriented woman is necessarily speculative at this time because the literature indicates that prior studies dealing with women's life-styles have been directed at career versus family interests. In most cases the career-oriented category included women who did not have a family as well as those who did. This study's findings indicate a need to recognize a third category with special concerns and problems. These women must also be served and assisted.

There appear to be significant questions arising from this study's findings which indicate a strong interest in a dual role, and labor statistics which indicate that growing numbers of women are working outside the home, especially educated women. Combining these phenomena with society's mixed reaction to the appropriateness of
this trend points to a need to provide women with assistance in
clarifying their goals. Personal development programs conducted at
colleges could help meet this need by providing specific activities,
information, and opportunities to discuss implications inherent in
women's attempts to pursue a dual role.

What will render family and career more congruent for women
and to what extent is congruence possible? It would seem that
programs attempting to respond to this type of question should be
aimed at college men as well as women. Obviously colleges cannot
assume total responsibility for the societal adjustments that appear
necessary. Since the implications of a changing role for women could
have profound effects on the family structure in American society,
a collective response by all of our social sciences, as well as
government agencies, may be necessary.

A third implication of the findings suggests that a majority
of the women studied chose their life-style preference by the time
they entered college (80 percent). What is not known is whether
specially designed programs made available to women early in their
college years would provide the impetus for them to seriously
reexamine their interests. And, if these programs did exist, to
what extent would they be useful in helping women to further clarify
their initial interests as well as motivating them to change to a
more suitable life orientation? It would appear that either result
could justify the existence of such programs.

As was mentioned earlier the women who did change their
life-style orientation after beginning college (20 percent) differed
from the non-changers in two ways. The changers had higher grade point averages and changed their major field of study during college with greater frequency than the non-changers.

It is possible that the brighter students have a tendency to consider alternatives more readily and this resulted in their change of fields of study and less stability in their life-style orientation. If this is the case, it may indicate the need to programmatically present alternatives to women earlier while providing them with more opportunities for career and life role planning.

The fourth implication is derived from the ability, by use of this study's methodology, to identify personality differences among women who prefer different life-styles. In addition to those personality characteristics identified for dual-oriented women the findings also indicated that the career-oriented women were the most tough-minded, controlled, confident and relaxed while the family-oriented women were the most conservative and the least self-sufficient. Other studies reported in the literature had related findings, but again it should be pointed out that they compared family women who were career-oriented as well, and career women, with women who were exclusively family-oriented. No dual category was identified. Nonetheless, it is possible to identify refined personality differences among women who prefer different life-style orientations. If certain personality differences can be identified with enough consistency to consider them determinants of life-style preference, it is possible that a reliable research base can be developed. Colleges could then help women clarify suitable life-style
interests through the use of a personality test in conjunction with a woman's expressed interests and other related factors.

The last implication of the study appears to relate in a general way to the first four discussed. The combined use of self-report, test analysis and personal interviewing techniques utilized in this study provide a protocol that may be useful in developing special programs for college women. More and more colleges now gather what can be termed intake data from their entering freshmen through the use of personality and vocational interest inventories. The American College Testing (ACT) program and the College Entrance Examination Board (CEEB) provide the college with additional information in the form of the student's self-assessment of interests, strengths and weaknesses. Combining these different data into a reliable base, and applying the information on the basis of individual need, could enable colleges to plan and implement effective programs that would be useful to women as they are offered an opportunity to begin examining and clarifying life goals as soon as they enter college.

If further research, then, continues to identify personality characteristics and other influential variables that are related to women's roles, while continuing to refine data about the effect of such factors as marriage partners, socio-economic background, parents and the college experience, it is conceivable that a national data base could be developed. The availability of reliable information about the relationship of life roles to influential factors would enable high school counselors and college student personnel workers
to approach the life-planning process on the basis of a personal characteristics-life goal congruence model. An approach of this type would provide a structure within which student development specialists can intervene in ways that will help women plan for career contingencies earlier and more effectively.

Suggestions for Further Research

From the study's implications, several recommendations for further research can be made. These include a further investigation of the following:

1. College women's life-style pre and post college as well as during college.

2. The stability of women's life-style preferences using control groups and experimental groups which would receive treatments in the form of different programs which help them examine life role implications and alternatives throughout college.

3. Attempts to identify personality variables and other variables that are related to women's life-style preferences.

4. Attempts to clarify the differences between dual-oriented women and the family and career-oriented women.

5. Men's perceptions of the changing roles of women and the effect of these perceptions on women's life-style choices.

6. The congruence of women's personal characteristics and life-style orientation.

7. Attempts to identify characteristics and backgrounds of women who identify a preferred life-style early in life as opposed
to women who identify their preference later in life.

8. The relationship of women's life-style preferences and determinants using a variety of data gathering models.
APPENDIX A

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE STUDY POPULATION
CHARACTERISTICS OF THE STUDY POPULATION (N=140)

1. Year of graduation from high school
   a. Less than five years ago - 112 (80%)
   b. 5-10 years ago - 17 (12%)
   c. Over 10 years ago - 11 (8%)

2. Marital Status
   a. Not married - 107 (76%)
   b. Married - 33 (24%)
      (1) Children - 15 (11%)

3. Grade point average at college
   a. 4.0 to 3.5 - 55 (39%)
   b. 3.4 to 3.0 - 37 (26%)
   c. 2.9 to 2.5 - 37 (26%)
   d. 2.4 to 2.0 - 11 (8%)

4. Academic majors (fields of study)
   a. Education - 44 (31%)
      (1) Special education - 21
      (2) Elementary education - 21
      (3) Secondary education - 2
   b. Social welfare - 17 (12%)
   c. Psychology - 16 (11%)
   d. Home Economics - 8 (6%)
   e. Foreign Languages - 7 (5%)
   f. Mathematics - 7 (5%)
   g. General studies - 6
   h. English - 5
   i. Biology - 5
   j. Business admin. and economics - 5
   k. Library science - 4
   l. Medical technology - 4
   m. Art - 4
   n. History - 3
   o. Physical education - 2
   p. Religious studies - 2
5. Change of major after beginning college

a. Did not change 107 (76%)

b. Did change 33 (24%)

c. Direction of changes

- Math to social welfare to psychology
- Math to business administration (3)
- Math to library science
- Math to psychology
- Math to education
- Education to sociology to general studies
- Education to social welfare
- Education to English (2)
- Education to library science
- English to education (2)
- English to psychology
- French to art
- German to social welfare
- Spanish to biology
- Psychology to special education
- Psychology to Spanish
- Psychology to social welfare
- Chemistry to education
- Biology to psychology
- Biology to social welfare
- Social welfare to religious studies
- Social welfare to psychology
- Economics to library science
- Business administration to home economics
- Home economics to education
- Political science to general studies
- Law enforcement to psychology
- Art to business administration
- Speech and theater to education

6. Kinds of jobs to be pursued

a. Teaching 75 (54%)

(1) Elementary education 20
(2) Special education 20
(3) Home economics 6
(4) Psychology 5
(5) Foreign language 5
(6) English 5
(7) Math 5
(8) Art 3
(9) Religious studies 2
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>10) History</th>
<th>1</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11) Biology</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12) Nursing</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13) Physical education</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Social work</td>
<td>18 (13%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Library work</td>
<td>7 (5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. Business, management or personnel</td>
<td>7 (5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. Math, computer, or technology</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f. Counseling</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g. Nursing</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h. Translator and foreign service</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i. Artist</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j. Dietician</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k. Police work</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l. Undecided</td>
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7. Plans for post-graduate education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>a. Undecided</th>
<th>5 (4%)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>b. Do not plan to pursue post-graduate study</td>
<td>44 (31%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Plan to pursue post-graduate study</td>
<td>91 (65%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1) Masters in education</td>
<td>20 (14%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) Masters in guidance or counseling</td>
<td>9 (6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3) Masters in social work</td>
<td>8 (6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4) Undecided about field of study</td>
<td>8 (6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5) No degree planned</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6) Masters in medical technology</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7) Masters in psychology</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8) Masters in library science</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9) Masters in business admin.</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10) Masters in home economics</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11) Masters in religious studies</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12) Masters in math</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13) Masters in art or fine arts</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14) Ph.D. (History, education, economics)</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15) Masters in foreign language</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16) Masters in English</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17) Masters in Nursing</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18) Masters in Criminology</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19) Masters in Music</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20) Masters in Biology</td>
<td>1</td>
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APPENDIX B

PERSONAL INFORMATION FORM
PERSONAL INFORMATION FORM

PART I - BACKGROUND INFORMATION:

1. When did you graduate from high school? Check one.
   _____Less than 5 years ago.
   _____5 - 10 years ago.
   _____Over 10 years ago.

2. Are you presently married? Yes _____ No _____
   If so, do you have children? Yes _____ No _____

3. What is your present grade point average? Check one.
   _____4.0 - 3.5
   _____3.4 - 3.0
   _____2.9 - 2.5
   _____2.4 - 2.0

4. What is your present academic major? ____________________________
   If you have changed your academic major during college, what
   was it previously? ____________________________

5. What kind of job will you pursue? ____________________________

6. Do you plan to continue your education after graduation?
   _____Yes _____No
   If so, what course of study and/or degree will you pursue?
   ____________________________

PART II - LIFE SITUATION SELECTION

A. Please look over the possible life situations described on the
   other side of this sheet and choose the one that most closely
   represents your preference at this time. While the term
   "work" is used, any full-time involvement outside the home is
   considered work or a career for the purpose of this study.
   Even if you are already married and have children, please
   select your preferred life situation.

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Mark an X beside your preference.

___1. After graduation I expect to pursue work full-time and do not expect to ever marry.

___2. After graduation I expect to eventually marry and continue working full-time. I do not expect to ever have children.

___3. After graduation I expect to work full-time until I marry. When I marry I will stop working full-time outside the home.

___4. After graduation I expect to work full-time and eventually marry. If and when I have children, I will stop working full-time and devote my time to my family. At some time in the future, I may return to a part-time job but will never return to a full-time job outside the home.

___5. After graduation I expect to work full-time and eventually marry. If and when I have children I will stop working and devote my time to my family. I will return to a full-time job after my youngest child is in the first grade or sometime thereafter, but not before.

___6. After graduation I expect to work full-time and eventually marry. If and when I have children I will stop working and devote my time to my family. I will return to a full-time job before my youngest child has begun school.

___7. After graduation I expect to work, marry and continue working full-time, even if and when I have a child, therefore combining career and family with only a short interruption for childbirth.

___8. At this time I cannot choose one of the above seven alternatives because I am presently undecided.

B. If you checked "undecided" (#8) as your choice, go back and take another look at the seven life situations and check the one that you lean toward at this time. Mark that number here. #

C. Please try to think back to the time when you were beginning college. If you had been asked at that time to choose the one life situation that you preferred, would it have differed from your present selection? Yes or No. If so, which one would it have been? Mark that number here. #
APPENDIX C

SUMMARY OF INTERVIEWS
SUMMARY OF INTERVIEWS (N=25)

Career to Dual (N=4)

1. Ruled out children as incompatible with career upon entrance to college. *Changed mind because:* Met fiancé who wanted children and also because she met a number of peers who were planning to combine work/children. She became confident she could do both.

2. Ruled out children at entrance because she wanted a career and could not justify combining both. *Changed mind because:* After beginning college developed confidence in combining work/children for three reasons: (a) Mother provided a negative role model by sitting home with no outside interests after children were raised; (b) Observed faculty role models who were combining career/marriage; and (c) Came to accept birth control and thus can plan her family to some degree.

3. Planned to become a nun when she entered college. Described herself as a small town person unaware of many other possibilities. *Changed mind because:* Cited general influence of college in broadening her outlook. Her contacts with peers and classroom subjects were important but spoke of exposure to "different" students as the most significant.

4. Against marriage at entrance—too confining especially with children. *Changed mind because:* During college came to feel that a dual role was feasible. This was primarily influenced by another woman (peer) who she came to know through the dormitory
experience. The general growing acceptance by society of a dual role for women was also an important influence.

Career to Family (N=8)

1. Not interested in children because she did a lot of babysitting and found that children made her nervous. Her boyfriend who is presently her fiance was against having children. **Changed mind because:** College helped her "grow up" and clarify her interests. Couldn't be specific and simply stated the general influence of college. Came to view children as a vital part of womanhood and has convinced her fiance of the same. Did not move to dual because she believes mother's place is in the home when children are young.

2. Came to college with no interest in children and stated that an unhappy childhood and an inability to get along with her parents "turned her off." **Changed mind because:** Began going steady during college and her fiance wants children. Has also changed her mind because her dormitory experiences with friends have convinced her that the unhappy home is the exception rather than the rule.

3. Came to college against marriage because she never knew her father well (left mother early in subject's life). **Changed mind because:** Lived with a "wonderful" family for a semester while away at college and found the experience so satisfying that she views family life in a new light.

4. Began college with no interest in children but could not specify why. **Changed mind because:** Met her fiance during college and he changed her mind about children. She would not consider a dual
role because she does not feel she is capable of doing both due to the lack of organization in her personal life.

5. Had not dated much in high school and did not view a relationship with a male as very important. Had no interest in marriage. **Changed mind because:** Has lived vicariously through her dormitory friends' dating and in some cases marriage. While she still has not dated much she now wants marriage as a part of her life. Would not consider a dual orientation because she has been convinced by her child psychology course that a mother should be at home with young children.

6. Attended an all girl's high school, and while she dated often she never met anyone that she really liked. At the same time she had a strong interest in a career (foreign languages) that would include a lot of travel. Therefore, came to college with no interest in marriage and saw marriage as incompatible with her career goal. **Changed mind because:** Fell in love with a young man in her junior year and plans to marry. Would not consider a dual orientation because she could not justify leaving young children at home.

7. Came to college against having children because she did not feel she had the temperament to raise them (terrible temper) and could not justify personal sacrifices involved in having children. **Changed mind because:** Claimed that college changed her outlook. Made good friends, became more tolerant of others, and began to value "giving". Felt that adjustments made in the dormitory
living situation gave her confidence in her ability to adjust. Would not consider dual role because she believes the mother's place is with young children even though she is not sure she will be able to maintain her composure sitting at home.

8. Came to college very ambitious and never expected to marry.
   
   Changed mind because: She met a young man who is now her fiancé and plans to marry and have a family. No other influences were offered.

   **Family to Dual (N=9)**

1. Moved away from the family orientation because of her fiancé and for economic reasons. Fiancé feels that one salary would not provide them with the style of living they have been accustomed to and she agrees even though she openly admits that she would prefer to be at home with her children until they are at least of school age.

2. Moved away from family orientation because as she got involved in her major field (teaching) she could not justify leaving it for several years to raise a family. Felt that she was able to justify this decision because her fiancé feels they need two incomes and because of society's growing acceptance of a mother combining children and full-time work.

3. Changed her preference for two college-related reasons: (a) Close friends at college who were interested in the women's movement convinced her that it is the quality of contact with children that is important and not the amount of time spent with them.

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(b) As she got into her field of study, she developed a strong interest in utilizing it and could not justify leaving it for several years because of children.

4. Major reason for change was a negative role model provided by her mother who regrets not having developed other interests while raising her children and now that children are raised is terribly bored with her life. Considered two college-related influences as minor but nonetheless important: (a) Stimulation of the academic experience made her interested in applying it. (b) Faculty role-models who were living a dual role.

5. Change was motivated by the need to earn money and be responsible for helping to support a family. During college came to value the need to maintain a degree of independence as an individual and views work extremely important in filling this need. Credited the general college experience for her changed orientation but could not be specific.

6. Became convinced that the quality of contact with children was more important than amount of time spent with them and this was helped along by society's growing acceptance of the dual role for women. In regard to college, her interest in her field of study had developed to the point that she could not be happy leaving it for several years and functioning exclusively as a housewife and mother.

7. Decision was economically motivated by the felt need to help maintain a suitable standard of living for her family. A lesser
influence was her development of a strong interest in applying her field of study.

8. After two years of college subject decided that she had invested too much of her time and resources in college to justify leaving a job for several years to raise children exclusively. In general she felt that the college experience had broadened her outlook about life and stimulated her need to remain somewhat independent as a person. Work was viewed as a way of filling this need.

9. Felt that biggest influence was the growing acceptance of combining work and children by society. It never occurred to her that this was an acceptable role during high school. She also felt that two incomes were necessary today.

Family to career (N=2)

1. Came to college rather traditional in her outlook on life and as an agnostic. Became involved with a religious group of students at college and through these peers as well as some supportive faculty, she changed her outlook on life and religion. Cannot now justify marriage because she feels a greater commitment to people in general and views marriage as too restrictive because of the time involved and because it narrows one's interests.

2. Grew up during college and became convinced that marriage would restrict her as she continued to develop her own interests. Felt a need to pursue a variety of experiences and develop as an independent person.
Dual to career (N=1)

1. Was always career-oriented but also believed that everyone should eventually marry. The college experience broadened her outlook on life and the recent women's movement has made an unmarried life acceptable to her. She cited the meeting of different people and intellectual discussions as specific college influences that were important in changing her mind.

Dual to family (N=1)

1. Came to college expecting to pursue a dual role but cited her experiences while pursuing an education degree that led her to believe that the mother's place is in the home when children are young. She specifically singled out her psychology courses as influencing her decision.
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