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The Ohio State University, Ph.D., 1974
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CONSISTENT CAREER PREFERENCES, PERSONALITY
AND WOMEN'S PERCEPTIONS OF MALE VIEWS OF FEMININITY

DISSERTATION

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

By

Roger O. Lewis, Jr., B.A., M.A.

* * * * *

The Ohio State University
1974

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to express my thanks to my adviser, W. Bruce Walsh, for his assistance, advice and encouragement not only in the matter of this dissertation, but through the course of my graduate study in the Counseling Psychology area of the Department of Psychology. My thanks are extended also to members of my reading committee, Dr. Samuel Osipow and Dr. Frank Fletcher, for their time, interest and assistance.

Special thanks go to my wife, Grace, without whose continued interest and encouragement this project might have been a good deal longer in undertaking and completion.
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Choosing a career appears to be a more complicated process for females than for males. In addition to making a career choice which is consistent with her aptitudes and interests, a woman must also consider whether that choice is consistent with socially accepted notions about femininity and with her own feminine self-concept. One of the major decisions a woman makes involves the choice between homemaking and career commitment (Kriger, 1972).

Among researchers who have investigated differences in patterns and problems of vocational development between males and females are Rose and Elton (1971), who concluded that separate theories of vocational choice are necessary for men and women if such theories are to be based upon personality constructs. Apparently many of the problems faced by women with respect to choosing a career involve male attitudes and female perceptions of those attitudes. Matthews and Tiedeman (1964) found that among the major
attitudinal themes affecting vocational choice and choice of life style in young women were their perceptions of male reactions to female use of intelligence and conflict over family and work demands on the time of the working wife and mother. Simply choosing a career and rejecting the homemaker role altogether apparently does not solve the problem since most women still want something more than a career, and that means marriage or intimate heterosexual relationships (Bernard, 1966; Freedman, 1967).

Some writers have emphasized the significance of male attitudes about women to the extent that they consider male attitudes to be the major factors in female decisions. Bettelheim (1962), Heist (1963) and Riesman (1964) hypothesized, for example, that women tend to make their career decisions on the basis of what they think males will accept or tolerate. Female perceptions of male views regarding appropriate feminine behavior may be viewed, then, as a variable which must be investigated if patterns of female vocational development are to be understood and theories developed to assist in explanation and prediction of female vocational choice. Bailyn (1964) suggested that male attitudes were of major importance to young women just entering careers and that an understanding of male attitudes and
female perceptions of those attitudes may be requisite to an understanding of the process underlying female vocational choice.

In the case of the female who has made or is in the process of making a vocational decision, the problem arises of selecting a vocation which is consistent with her interests and abilities.

Holland (1965) discussed the importance of making sound vocational choices because of their relation to need satisfaction and personal happiness, suggesting that the ability to identify and enter potentially satisfying environments and to avoid those that are potentially unsatisfying is a requisite for good personal adjustment.

Super (1957) emphasized the need for appropriate vocational choices in the following way:

Work having such a central role in human life, it is not surprising that vocational adjustment is easily viewed as the implementation of a self-concept. If a person cannot be himself in such a major segment of his life . . . it seems unlikely that his life satisfactions can be significant or that his general adjustment can be good.

In support of these positions are the findings of Walsh and Russel (1969) which indicated that college freshmen whose chosen or intended major fields were not consistent
Holland's theory states that an individual whose orientation is Investigative (as defined by the Vocational Preference Inventory) ought to be working in an occupation which is intellectual in nature. If an individual chooses an occupation or college major in keeping with his interests, he is defined as congruent. If his chosen occupation or major is inconsistent with his expressed interests, he is regarded as incongruent (Holland, 1966).

The theory is based upon the following assumptions:

1. In our culture most persons can be categorized as one of six types: Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising, or Conventional. Each type is a model personality against which an individual can be compared, and is the product of interaction among a number of personal and cultural variables.

2. There are six kinds of environments: Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising and Conventional. Each is dominated by a particular personality type and is exemplified by different settings posing different problems and stresses.

3. Individuals tend to seek environments which will enable them to express their interests, abilities, attitudes and values, and to
avoid environments which are less conducive to such expression.

4. Behavior can be explained by the interaction of individual orientation (or personality pattern) and environment. In other words, knowledge of individual personality pattern and environmental pattern ought to be helpful in predicting potential outcomes from any pairing of individual and environment (Holland, 1973).

The primary purpose of this study was to identify the ways in which congruent and incongruent women differ from each other on measurable personality variables and to determine those personality variables associated with differing female perceptions of male models of femininity. Women who perceive males as differentiating between appropriate and inappropriate behavior in females on the basis of traditional models of femininity were defined as traditionally-influenced for purposes of this study. Hawley (1971) used the term "dichotomous" to describe the traditional view of femininity. That is, the traditional view is based upon judging behavior as appropriate or inappropriate based on the sex of the individual in question. For example, regardless of ability, it is appropriate for males to play football, but inappropriate for females. In contrast an "androgynous" (Hawley, 1971), or nontraditional view of feminine behavior, would utilize other bases (such
as aptitude) in determining appropriateness of feminine behavior rather than making sex the major criterion. Women who perceive males as defining appropriate feminine behavior on the basis of a nontraditional model of feminine behavior were defined as nontraditionally influenced.

More specifically this study focused on:

1. Identifying differences between congruent and incongruent females on measurable personality variables.

2. Identifying differences between traditionally- and nontraditionally-influenced women on measurable personality variables.

3. Exploring the interaction between congruence and traditionality of influence on measurable personality variables.
CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter focuses on five major areas of literature that have relevance for this study.

Research on the relationship between congruence of vocational choice and personality characteristics is discussed first.

The remainder of the review deals primarily with research on women and variables affecting female vocational choice.

The home-career conflict in women is discussed, as well as differences between homemakers and career-oriented women.

Interpersonal and social factors thought to have impact upon female vocational decisions are then discussed, including male attitudes toward working women, female perception of those attitudes, need for achievement in women, the effect of social and familial expectations, etc.

Finally research on self-esteem and vocational decision-making is discussed, including possible effects
Research on Congruence

The nature of the relationship between the making of vocational choices which are consistent with expressed interests and both personality variables and general personal adjustment has been a subject of recent investigation by Walsh and other writers.

Walsh and Russel (1969) administered the Mooney Problem Checklist to groups of students who had made consistent and inconsistent college major choices (consistence defined by agreement between the chosen field and the individual's orientation as defined by scores on the scales of the Vocational Preference Inventory). The finding that those who had made congruent choices reported fewer problems of personal adjustment suggests that general adjustment may be one of the variables related to the making of appropriate or inappropriate educational-vocational decisions.

Walsh and Barrow (1971) employed the California Psychological Inventory in an attempt to assess personality differences between congruent and incongruent college freshmen. Although findings were inconclusive, they suggested that congruent females tended to be more planful, practical
and clear-thinking than other groups. The findings also suggested the need for separate theories of vocational development for males and females.

Walsh and Lewis (1972) used Omnibus Personality Inventory variables to assess differences among congruent, incongruent and undecided male and female college freshmen. Findings suggested that congruent males tended to be less anxious, better integrated and less impulsive than incongruent or undecided males, which provides support for Holland's contention that congruence between person and environment is related to personal adjustment and feelings of stability. None of the personality variables differentiated significantly among female groups, however, which suggests that somewhat different personality variables may be operating in male and female vocational development and that different approaches may be required in order to identify factors influencing female vocational decision making.

Walsh (1974) used the Self-Directed Search, the California Psychological Inventory and the Omnibus Personality Inventory to investigate the relationship between personality and congruence of college major choice in a sample of male and female students taken primarily from upper class levels (4 sophomores, 24 juniors, 24 seniors
and 4 graduate students). Findings suggested that congruent males and females tended to be more disciplined, practical and well-informed than the incongruent groups. In addition, congruent males reported themselves as being more socially accepted, more confident and ambitious, and more planful and productive than the incongruent groups. This finding also confirms Holland's notions regarding the relationship between appropriate vocational choices and general adjustment and underscores the importance of making such choices for men and women.

In a study of vocational maturity and self-concept in students who had made congruent and incongruent college major choices, Walsh and Osipow (1973) employed the Vocational Preference Inventory, the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale, the Vocational Development Inventory and the Career Questionnaire, Form IV. Although the self-concept variables employed were not found to be significantly related to the appropriateness of college major choices made by the male and female freshmen subjects in this study, differences were found between congruent, incongruent and undecided students were found to differ on measures of vocational maturity. Both congruent males and females reported more specific occupational plans, more constructive daydreaming
and a stronger tendency to implement plans than the undecided groups.

In another study of self-concept, vocational maturity and satisfaction, Walsh, Howard, O'Brien, Santa-Maria and Edmondson (1973) found that congruent male students expressed greater satisfaction than incongruent females with physical college environment, attitudes of faculty and other students and with academic conditions associated with vocational development.

Morrow (1971) administered the Vocational Preference Inventory upperclassmen majoring in mathematics and sociology in a study of satisfaction with college major choice. Subjects were classified on the basis of VPI scale scores into Holland's six personality types and asked to respond to a questionnaire of satisfaction with major field choice. They hypothesis was that students who had made congruent choices would indicate greater satisfaction than those who had made incongruent choices. The hypothesis was confirmed for mathematics majors, but not for students majoring in sociology. Morrow offered as a possible explanation the possibility that stereotypes of mathematics may be more consistent than those regarding sociology. In general, however, the findings lend some support to the notion that
satisfaction is related to congruent college major choices and suggest the worth of future research in this area.

In sum, these findings suggest a relationship between the making of congruent educational-vocational decisions and personal adjustment, stability and satisfaction. Further, they identify some personality variables which appear to be related to the making of appropriate vocational choices, at least in males. The fact that personality variables related to the making of appropriate vocational decisions by females have been less successfully identified suggests that a different approach may be necessary if vocational development and vocational decision making in women is to be better understood.

Women and Vocational Choice

The remainder of this review of literature will focus on areas of research which relate primarily to, or have implications for, the nature of vocational development in females and attendant vocational decision making processes.

I. The Home-Career Conflict

Many writers have recognized the existence of the
home-career conflict and the importance of its resolution to the making of satisfactory vocational decisions by women. This recognition may be seen in attempts to differentiate in some meaningful way between homemaking and career-oriented women (Wagman, 1966; Hoyt and Kennedy, 1958; Gysbers, et al., 1968), in attempts to develop measures of career orientation in women (Schissel, 1968) and in research which points out the significance of resolving the conflict (Kriger, 1972).

A basic reason for the existence of the conflict is the continued importance of marriage for most women. Ginzberg (1966), Bernard (1966) and Freedman (1967) have pointed out that women want more than a career and that a primary goal for most women (whether they work or not) is marriage.

Various writers have emphasized the importance of differing factors in contributing to the conflict, but a recurring theme appears to be the clash between the needs of the individual woman to have a source of personal satisfaction and her need to fulfill the socially defined roles of wife and mother. Rand and Miller (1972) found that the average high school or college woman would like to combine marriage and a career but expects that her fulfillment of wife and mother roles will interfere to some extent with her career.
Matthews and Tiedeman (1964) identified as contributors to home-career conflict such factors as female impressions of male reactions to use of intellect, competing family and work demands on the time of the working wife and mother, and acceptance of the socially defined feminine role.

Farmer (1971) suggested society's failure to give approval to female career choices as a major factor placing women into a bind situation in which they feel they are cheating their families if they work and themselves if they do not.

II. Home-oriented vs. Career-oriented Women

This section will focus on research exploring the differences between homemaker-oriented and career-oriented women, emphasizing those factors which appear to influence career choice and type of career chosen.

Need for achievement has been suggested as a factor in the resolution of the home-career conflict by a number of writers, including the following.

Kriger (1972) investigated need for achievement and perceived parental child-rearing practices in a study involving career women and homemakers. In addition to the finding
that career women were assessed as having greater need for achievement than homemakers (with women in male-dominated fields having the highest need for achievement scores) was the finding that homemakers perceived their parents as being more restrictive in their child-rearing practices than did career women.

Hoyt and Kennedy (1958) found career-oriented women to score higher on EPPS scales of Achievement, Intraception (need to know and understand) and Endurance (accomplishment of goals) and homemakers more motivated by needs for affection and acceptance. In addition, homemakers scored higher on traditional female occupational scales on the SVIB, while career women scored higher on Physician, Psychologist, Author, Artist, Librarian and Physical Education Teacher.

Mash (1967) found career salient women to score higher on need for achievement and endurance compared to noncareer salient women.

Gysbers, Johnston and Gust (1969) offered a possible explanation for greater need for achievement in career women following a longitudinal study of women identified by SVIB scores as either career-oriented or homemaker-oriented. Their findings suggest that there may be a connection between career orientation in women and social class or
educational level of parents.

Berens (1973) offered an alternative explanation, based on the finding that achievement motivation in both sexes seemed to be related to parental training which did not adhere to traditional sex role stereotypes.

The following writers have suggested educational level, masculinity of interests and scholastic ability as important factors in career orientation.

Mulvey (1963), in a study of the career patterns of 475 women 20-27 years after high school, concluded that level of education and level of aspiration were the most important determinants of career pattern in women.

Harmon (1970) found that career-committed women have no different plans at age 18 from those of noncommitted women. Career committed women do, however, stay in school longer, earn higher degrees and work more, and they appear to do so for motivational rather than circumstantial reasons.

Among those researchers who have suggested masculine orientation as a basis for career interest in women are Gough (1968), who concluded that females who go to colleges are typically more dominant, determined and aggressive than those who end their education at the high school level.

Munley (1974) found career oriented women more
interested in male-dominated occupations than women who were not career oriented.

Astin and Myint (1971) found career commitment in women to be related to scholastic ability and, like Mulvey and Harmon, to aspiration to advanced degrees.

Watley and Kaplan (1971) similarly found career orientation in women to be related to scholastic ability.

An interesting corollary to these findings on the relation of scholastic aptitude to career orientation is Rezler's (1967) finding that women planning to enter male-dominated areas tend to score higher on measures of academic aptitude than women planning to enter more traditional female occupational areas.

Finally, Nagely (1971) concluded that women in male-dominated fields seem more career committed than women in other fields, less likely to give up their careers if asked by husbands, and more likely to consider their work as important as that of their husbands.

These findings suggest that career women are achievement motivated, possessing some traditionally masculine traits (determination, endurance), and influenced to some extent by nontraditional sex role stereotypes held by parents. The latter is suggested by Nagely's finding that
women in male-dominated fields tend to describe their fathers as highly educated and likely to accept employment of women.

It appears that any and all of the investigated variables discussed above could have a significant influence on the career plans of women. What is not clear is how they may interact, and with what other variables, in influencing decisions which result in careers ranging from homemaking to combinations of career and homemaking to career commitment in either traditionally female or traditionally male-dominated career fields.

III. Interpersonal and Social Factors

This section will focus upon some of the factors in female vocational decision making which derive from social and familial expectation, male attitudes, female perception of male models of femininity and feminine self-concepts. Katz (1968) found that among the factors influencing career choice and choice of life style in women were parental expectations, perceptions of those expectations, and the attitudes of significant peers, especially boyfriend or fiances.

Much has been written regarding the influence of male attitudes on female career decision making.
Bettelheim (1962) and Heist (1963) stated that women tend to base decisions on current male views of appropriate vocations for women.

Riesman (1964) and Surette (1967) stated more strongly that women choose careers based upon what they think men can accept or will tolerate.

Bailyn (1964) asserted that male attitudes constitute the most significant source of support or hostility for the young woman just beginning a professional career.

Farmer and Bohn (1970), following a study of career interests in women and resolution of the home-career conflict, concluded that women could become more actively involved in careers if they felt that men would not view that negatively.

Some understanding of the nature of current male attitudes toward women in careers might prove useful in clarifying the nature of the stresses imposed by those attitudes.

Rossi (1965) investigated male attitudes toward women entering scientific fields, finding that college males had rather traditional views regarding appropriate feminine roles. The general feeling among males sampled was that women should not choose careers which might not be readily combined with the raising of children, regard-
less of female interests and aptitudes.

Nelson and Goldman (1969) found that males tend to accept the dual role of career and homemaking for women in general, but not for their own wives.

Kaley (1971) found that professional men who are married doubt the ability of women to maintain both a successful career and a successful marriage.

McMillin (1972) found that college men tend to reject the idea of their wives having a life-long career, even if the career could be interrupted periodically for children or other family matters.

Meier (1972) investigated male and female attitudes toward female social equality, finding, as expected, that males were less inclined to accord full equality to females. An additional finding of interest, however, was that males from homes in which the mother had worked tended to rank higher on social equality than males from homes with non-working mothers.

In sum, men appear to disapprove of the idea of women committing themselves to careers, particularly in cases where a full-time career might be combined with marriage and the raising of children. Since women do opt for careers, however, and do combine careers with marriage
and children, the issue of female perception of male attitudes and responses to them is raised for consideration. In addition, it appears that there are male attitudes which encourage female career commitment.

Steinmann, Levi and Fox (1964) investigated college women's perceptions of self, contrasted with "ideal self" and men's "ideal woman." They concluded that women tend to perceive selves and ideal selves as basically similar, but perceive men's ideal woman as being much more passive and accepting of subordinate roles.

Almquist and Angrist (1971) investigated role model influences on career aspiration in a longitudinal study of college women. They found that career-oriented women tended to perceive their college professors as having a positive view of their academic ability and were most strongly influenced by professors and occupational role models.

Nagely (1971) found, in a study of working mothers in traditional and male-dominated fields, that women in male-dominated fields had fathers who were more likely to accept employment of women.

Hawley (1971, 1972) investigated the relationship between career choice in women and female beliefs about men's views of appropriate feminine behavior. Women
entering traditional female occupations tended to view men as dichotomizing attitudes into male and female categories, having different standards of appropriate behavior for each sex. Women who were planning to enter male-dominated fields tended to think that men did not see sex as a major determinant of appropriateness of attitudes or behavior.

Finally, Steinmann and Fox (1964) in an investigation of male and female perceptions of female roles, found that men's "ideal woman" was not significantly different from women's "ideal woman." Women's perception of the male ideal, however, was of a femininity model much less active and self-assertive than the model actually held by males.

These findings suggest that female perception of male views of femininity, rather than the male views themselves, may be a significant factor in choice of vocation by women, or perhaps whether the woman chooses a career at all.

Other research has focused on how women perceive and define appropriate sex roles and how they reconcile such perceptions with their career decisions.

Tucker (1970) postulated that women choose occupations which are congruent with their feminine self-concept and reject fields that are incongruent with that concept.
Three groups of female subjects, homemakers, elementary school teachers and research scientists, responded to an adjective check list, describing themselves and the other two occupational groups. Homemakers saw themselves as feminine and both teachers and scientists as masculine (the scientists were described as more masculine). Teachers saw homemakers as being similar to themselves (i.e., feminine) and scientists as being masculine. The scientists attributed many feminine characteristics to themselves and some masculine traits to the other two groups. Tucker concluded that the characteristics attributed to the scientists by the other two groups were incongruent with the feminine self-concepts of those groups— a phenomenon which might preclude many women from entering a scientific field.

Horner (1969) cited another factor deterring entry into professional or male-dominated fields in her statement that intelligent women may be discouraged by fear of both success and failure. If a woman succeeds in her field, but by so doing violates her feminine self-concept, then she loses anyway.

Horner (1972) elaborated on female resolution of achievement-related conflicts, stating that competent, achievement-oriented women experiencing conflict between
feminine self-concept and expression of ability tend to adjust to their feminine self-concept.

Rand (1968) described an alternative model of resolution, concluding that career-oriented women redefine sex role to include characteristics appropriate to both sexes, while homemakers tend to conform to more traditional models of sex role differentiation.

The literature suggests that there are many sources of influence on women in considering a vocational decision. Family and social expectations, the influence of peers, male attitudes and female perceptions of those attitudes, feminine self-concept and the pull of interests and aptitudes all exert some force. Perception of male models of femininity appears to be a major force and may have inputs into the formation of feminine self-concept. Resolution of the home-career conflict is suggested as the starting point for the woman making a vocational decision, and the resolution of conflict between feminine self-concept and interests and aptitudes appears to be a major problem in the selection of appropriate field by the woman who is committed to having a career (whether full-time or in combination with a family).
IV. Self-Esteem and Effects of Sex Role Stereotyping

Another variable investigated for its possible effects upon vocational choice, and which could have significant implications for women, is self-esteem.

Students assessed as being relatively high in self-esteem tend to choose occupations which they perceive as demanding their stronger abilities, as opposed to low self-esteem students, who tend not to seek work environments on the basis of their being consistent with personal strengths (Korman, 1967a). Korman (1967b) also found that high self-esteem students tended to seek occupational environments that would be personally fulfilling, that is, would meet personal needs, whereas low self-esteem students tended to base choices on external criteria and to minimize the importance of personal fulfillment.

In an investigation of job satisfaction, Korman (1969) found that high and low self-esteem groups tended to rate jobs in different ways consistent with their methods of occupational choice. That is, high self-esteem subjects tended to rate their jobs on the basis of personal satisfaction and low self-esteem subjects tended to rate on the basis of such external criteria as money, social desirability and
how others viewed the job.

Greenhaus (1971) obtained similar data using groups of high and low self-esteem subjects. He found that the low self-esteem subjects tended to look more to external or social cues and less to degree of congruence or personal satisfaction in determining occupational satisfaction.

An additional finding of Korman (1967a), with potential significance for women, was that women may tend to make vocational choices in a manner similar to low self-esteem males, that is, women as a group may tend to base vocational decisions on external factors rather than on personal fulfillment or utilization of aptitudes.

A possible explanation for women's tendency to follow this pattern (if indeed they do) is that they may be influenced to a significant extent by what males think appropriate for women or by their own perceptions of male and societal demands.

An alternative explanation, to be explored in the following section, is that women may tend to have a lower level of self-esteem than males and that this may be related to current sex-role stereotypes.

Gelfand (1962) defined self-esteem in the following way:
A person's characteristics evaluation of himself as an individual; low self-esteem is characterized by a sense of personal inadequacy and an inability to achieve need satisfaction in the past; high self-esteem is defined by a sense of personal adequacy and a sense of having achieved need satisfaction in the past.

The following research on sex-role stereotyping suggests that women may be socially conditioned to regard themselves as personally inadequate, or at least less adequate than males.

Sheriffs and Jarrett (1953) utilized a checklist of 58 behaviors to which male and female subjects responded, indicating which behaviors they thought characterized males, which females and which they preferred. Males and females generally agreed on which behaviors were characteristic of which sex and both stated a preference for the behaviors which characterized males.

Sheriffs and McKee (1957) had male and female subjects respond to a checklist, choosing words that described males and females in general. Males were described as straightforward, rational, competent, bold and effective, whereas females were described as warm, socially oriented, irrational and snobbish.

McKee and Sheriffs (1957) found a marked preference for masculine sex-role stereotypes using a forced choice.
procedure, despite the fact that when subjects were permitted to respond in a more open-ended fashion their views of sex-role stereotypes were more equalitarian.

If it is the case that women perceive themselves to be less competent than men, it is understandable that male attitudes and female perceptions of those attitudes should be a potent influence in career choices. This problem may be ameliorated to some degree, however, if women perceive competent female models in their environment. Baruch (1973) found, for example, that females whose mothers had career preferences tended to have higher self-esteem and to more positively evaluate their own competencies.

**Summary**

It appears that the making of a vocational choice by a woman is a more complicated task than for a man. In addition to considering the various alternatives open to her and reconciling the usual influences (such as aptitudes, interests, level of education required, etc.) she must also content with a number of variables not faced by males. Initially, it appears, females must make a conscious decision to pursue a career, to confine herself to the traditional roles of wife and mother, or to attempt to combine
marriage and family with her career in some way which is suited to her. In any case, she must resolve in some way a primary home-career conflict. Following that decision she must take into account male views regarding appropriateness of vocational choice, consider attitudes which may be held by a possible future husband and resolve the conflict between feminine self-concept and pursuit of interests and abilities (especially if they are in a direction not generally regarded as feminine).

This suggests that an adequate understanding of vocational development and decision making in females may be contingent upon an understanding of the influence of a number of variables and their interactions. Among the variables discussed which might have impact upon female vocational decision making have been congruence of vocational choice, conflict over need for career and need for the satisfaction and stability of marriage, need for achievement, the effects of level of education and level of aspiration, scholastic aptitude, social and family expectations of appropriate fulfillment of female sex roles, male attitudes toward working women, male models of femininity and female perception of those models, fulfillment of personally defined appropriate sex roles,
self-esteem and the effects of sex role stereotyping on female self-esteem and on the vocational decision making process.
CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This study had three major purposes:

1. To assess personality differences between women students whose college major choices were consistent with their primary VPI codes and those whose major field choices were inconsistent,

2. To assess personality differences between women who view males as having traditional models of femininity and those who perceive males as having nontraditional views of the feminine ideal,

3. To explore the interaction between female perception of male models of femininity and personality for congruent and incongruent female students.

Sample

The sample for this study consisted of 80 female undergraduate students enrolled at the main and Marion Branch campuses of The Ohio State University. The congruent-traditionally-influenced group consisted of 20 subjects. The incongruent-traditionally-influenced group consisted of 18 subjects. The congruent-nontraditionally-influenced and
the incongruent-nontraditionally-influenced groups consisted of 21 subjects each. A breakdown of subjects by college major appears for congruent subjects in Table 1 and for incongruent subjects in Table 2. Congruent subjects are also grouped by personality type according to classification by scores on the Vocational Preference Inventory. There are no Realistic, Enterprising or Conventional types among the congruent subjects.

**Instruments**

Four instruments were used in this study:

1. The Vocational Preference Inventory, which was used to classify subjects as having made congruent or incongruent college major choices (Holland, 1965),

2. A measure of women's perceptions of male models of femininity (Hawley, 1972), which was used to classify subjects as traditionally or nontraditionally influenced according to their perceptions of male views regarding appropriateness of feminine behavior,

3. The Self-Description Inventory (Ghiselli, 1971), which was used to assess personality differences among the experimental groups,

4. Three scales of the Omnibus Personality Inventory (Heist and Yonge, 1968), which provided additional personality measures.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Investigative</th>
<th>Traditionally-Influenced</th>
<th>Nontraditionally-Influenced</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Biology</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Pre-Medicine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Medicine</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Veterinary Medicine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical Technology</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Optometry</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nursing</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Nursing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
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<td>Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>1</td>
<td>Social Work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical Therapy</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>History</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speech Therapy</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Medical Dietetics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Artistic</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journalism</td>
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<td>Journalism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Languages</td>
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<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Landscape Horticulture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Dance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Fine Arts</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### TABLE 2

**COLLEGE MAJOR FIELDS OF INCONGRUENT SUBJECTS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Traditionally-Influenced</th>
<th>Nontraditionally-Influenced</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nursing</td>
<td>Nursing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Work</td>
<td>Psychology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>Medical Communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychology</td>
<td>Social Work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupational Therapy</td>
<td>Sociology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical Therapy</td>
<td>Political Science</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural Resources</td>
<td>Home Economics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>Dietetics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Landscape Architecture</td>
<td>Dental Hygiene</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fashion Merchandising</td>
<td>Occupational Therapy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pharmacy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Journalism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Architecture</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Nursing: 6, 4
- Education: 2, 2
- Social Work: 2
- English: 1
- Psychology: 1, 2
- Occupational Therapy: 1
- Medical Communication: 2
- Social Work: 1
- Sociology: 1
- Political Science: 1
- Home Economics: 1
- Dietetics: 1
- Dental Hygiene: 1
- Occupational Therapy: 1
- Pharmacy: 1
- Journalism: 1
- Architecture: 1
The Vocational Preference Inventory (VPI)

The VPI is grounded in Holland's theory of why people choose the vocations they do and is based upon the following assumptions (Holland, 1973):

1. The choice of a vocation is an expression of personality.

2. Interest inventories are personality inventories.

3. Vocational stereotypes have reliable and important psychological and sociological meanings.

4. The members of a vocation have similar personalities and similar histories of personal development.

5. Because people in a vocational group have similar personalities, they will respond to many situations and problems in similar ways, and they will create characteristic interpersonal environments.

6. Vocational satisfaction, stability and achievement upon the congruence between one's personality and the environment (composed largely of other people) in which one works.

Internal consistency and homogeneity of content for the sixth revision of the VPI is reported as moderate to high for most scales according to the manual (Holland, 1965). Over short periods of time the retest reliability has been moderate to high (.70 to .80) declining over
longer periods (.40 to .60).

Construct validity has been tested in a variety of educational, institutional and occupational settings (Holland, 1958; Fairweather, 1960; Lopez, 1962). Holland (1965) has taken these results as providing support for the meanings attributed to the scales.

The VPI was shown to be able to predict major field choice and occupational choice in a two-year study involving high aptitude students (Holland, 1962). Prediction improved when a three letter code was used (Holland and Whitney, 1968).

The six scales on the VPI used in this study were the Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising and Conventional scales.

**Women's Perceptions of Male Models of Femininity**

The second instrument, used to classify subjects according to their perceptions of male views of feminine behavior, is a scale of thirty-five items beginning with the words "Significant men in my life think women . . . ." and ending with a statement referring to feminine attitudes or behaviors. Subjects responded to the items using a six point scale which ranges from "Strongly Agree" to "Strongly
Disagree." Reliability has been estimated at .93 according to the author (Hawley, 1972). Concurrent validity is suggested by the ability of the instrument to differentiate between groups of women engaged in traditional female occupations (e.g., teaching) and those engaged in nontraditional female fields (mathematics and sciences).

**The Self-Description Inventory** (SDI)

The SDI consists of 64 pairs of personally descriptive adjectives, chosen so that the alternatives in each pair are matched in terms of social desirability. In half the items the subject selected the more self-descriptive of the pair; in the other half the less descriptive. The six scales from the SDI used in this study, along with definitions (Ghiselli, 1971) are the following:

1. Self-Assurance: a measure of self-esteem defined by the extent to which the individual feels able to cope with problems.

2. Decisiveness: defined as the ability to make decisions quickly and confidently.

3. Masculinity-Femininity: defined by differentiation between intellectual-logical and intuitive-affective approaches to problem solving, the former considered more masculine and the latter more feminine.

4. Need for Self-Actualization: defined as desire to fully utilize one's talents and abilities.
6. Need for Job Security: defined as need to be protected from loss of job or unfavorable assignments (or as a general need for security measure, to be protected from adverse forces).

Concurrent validity for the six scales used in this study was established by correlation between scale scores and judges' ratings, correlation with behavior in task settings (.41 for Self-Actualization; .52 for Decisiveness; .66 for Self-Assurance), or by the ability of the scale to differentiate between groups (Masculinity-Femininity, Need for Security).

The Omnibus Personality Inventory (OPI)

The three OPI scales used in this study were Theoretical Orientation (preference for dealing with theoretical concerns, thinking scientifically), Anxiety Level (tendency to be high strung and tense) and Personal Integration (tendency to admit to few attitudes or behaviors regarded as emotionally disturbed or asocial—Heist and Yonge, 1968).

Procedure

Approximately 160 female subjects originally participated in the study. Subjects were recruited from among students enrolled in the university's introductory
psychology course (and required to participate in research) and on a voluntary basis from students in residence halls, sorority houses, the School of Journalism and students enrolled in psychology courses on the university's branch campus in Marion, Ohio.

Testing sessions began with instructions to subjects to indicate their major field or intended major on the answer sheet of the VPI. Subjects then responded to the VPI, Hawley's scale of female perceptions of male models of femininity, the Self-Description Inventory and the Omnibus Personality Inventory scales.

Subjects with two, or more, equal scores on the VPI scales were eliminated from the study unless none of the tied scores allowed the subject to be classified as congruent, in which case the subject was retained. Subjects who submitted incomplete protocols or who specified no major field were likewise eliminated.

Responses to items on Hawley's scale were scored on a scale of one to six points, higher scores being given to responses indicating perception of a nontraditional view of femininity. Total scores were then computed for each subject. Subjects who scored in the top one third of those responding were defined as nontraditionally influenced.
Those scoring in the bottom one third were defined as traditionally influenced.

**Experimental Groups**

The 80 subjects who met all criteria for inclusion in the study (i.e., classifiable as congruent or incongruent and scoring in the top or bottom one third of Hawley's scale) were placed into four experimental groups defined as congruent-traditionally-influenced (20 subjects), congruent-nontraditionally-influenced (21 subjects), incongruent-traditionally-influenced (18 subjects) and incongruent-nontraditionally-influenced (21 subjects).

Subjects whose VPI codes correspond with their reported college major codes (Holland, 1970) were defined as congruent. Congruent was defined as agreement of the peak VPI scale with the first letter of the college major code (given as occupational codes in the Occupations Finder of the Self-Directed Search). For example, a student whose reported college major (pre-medicine) was classified as Investigative-Social (ISA) according to the Occupations Finder and whose peak VPI scale was investigative would be defined as congruent. If that same student had scored highest on the Realistic scale of the VPI, he would have been
classified as incongruent since his peak scale would not have corresponded with his college major code.

Subjects scoring in the top one third on Hawley's scale were defined as nontraditionally influenced; those scoring in the bottom one third were defined as traditionally influenced.

Hypotheses and Statistical Tests

Three hypotheses (congruence, traditionality of influence and interaction) were tested for each variable using a 2 x 2 analysis of variance for unequal numbers. Specific directional hypotheses for each variable are stated below:

1A. The congruent groups score significantly higher than the incongruent groups on the following personality scales:

   a) Self-Assurance
   b) Decisiveness
   c) Need for Self-Actualization
   d) Anxiety Level
   e) Personal Integration

1B. There are no significant differences in mean personality scale scores between congruent and incongruent groups on the following variables:

   a) Masculinity-Femininity
   b) Need for Achievement
   c) Need for Security
   d) Theoretical Orientation
2A. Traditionally and nontraditionally influenced groups differ in mean personality scale scores on the following variables:

a) Masculinity–Femininity (Nontraditionally-influenced more masculine)
b) Need for Achievement (Nontraditionally-influenced score higher)
c) Need for Self-Actualization (Nontraditionally-influenced higher)
d) Need for Security (Traditionally-influenced higher scores)
e) Theoretical Orientation (Nontraditionally-influenced higher)

2B. There are no differences in mean personality scale scores between traditionally and non-traditionally-influenced groups on the following variables:

a) Self-Assurance
b) Decisiveness
c) Anxiety Level
d) Personal Integration

3. There is no significant interaction between congruence and traditionality of influence.
CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Method of Analysis

A 2 x 2 (two levels of congruence and two levels of traditionality of influence) analysis of variance for factorial designs with unequal cell frequencies (AVUNCF) was employed in the statistical analysis of data from this study. The Tukey (b) test was employed to differentiate more specifically among the experimental groups on those personality variables found to be significant in the analysis of variance (Winer, 1962).

Results of the Analysis of Variance

Hypothesis 1A asserted that congruent groups would score significantly higher than incongruent groups on the following personality variables:

a) Self-Assurance
b) Decisiveness
c) Need for Self-Actualization
d) Anxiety Level
e) Personal Integration
The test for the main effect of congruence was not found to be significant for any of the personality variables employed. Congruent groups did not score higher than incongruent groups on Self-Assurance (see Tables 3 and 12), Decisiveness (see Tables 4 and 13), Need for Self-Actualization (see Tables 7 and 16), Anxiety Level (see Tables 10 and 19) or Personal Integration (see Tables 11 and 20). Hypothesis 1A was, therefore, rejected.

Hypothesis 1B stated that congruent and incongruent groups would not differ on the following personality variables:

a) Masculinity-Femininity
b) Need for Achievement
c) Need for Security
d) Theoretical Orientation

No significant differences were noted between congruent and incongruent groups on Masculinity-Femininity (see Tables 5 and 14), Need for Achievement (Tables 6 and 15), Need for Security (Tables 8 and 17) and Theoretical Orientation (Tables 9 and 18). Hypothesis 1B was confirmed.

The test for the main effect of traditionality of influence (i.e., female perception of a dichotomous or traditional male view of appropriate female behavior) was found to be significant for six personality variables.
Hypothesis 2A stated that traditionally and nontraditionally-influenced groups would differ in mean personality scale scores on the following variables:

a) Masculinity-Femininity (Nontraditionally-influenced more masculine)
b) Achievement Motivation (Nontraditionally-influenced higher)
c) Need for Self-Actualization (Nontraditionally-influenced higher)
d) Need for Security (Traditionally-influenced higher)
e) Theoretical Orientation (Nontraditionally-influenced higher)

Significant differences (p = .05) were not found between groups on Masculinity-Femininity scale scores (see Tables 5 and 14).

No significant differences were found between groups on Achievement Motivation (Tables 6 and 15), although the nontraditionally-influenced groups averaged higher scores on this variable, with nontraditionally-influenced congruent subjects scoring highest.

Significant differences were found between traditionally and nontraditionally influenced groups on Need for Self-Actualization, with nontraditionally influenced groups scoring significantly (p = .05) higher, confirming the third portion of Hypothesis 2A.

No differences were found between traditionally and
nontraditionally influenced groups on Need for Security (see Tables 8 and 17). Traditionally influenced groups had consistently, though not significantly, higher scores on this variable, however, suggesting greater need for security.

Part five of Hypothesis 2A was confirmed. Nontraditionally influenced women scored significantly higher \( (p = .01) \) on Theoretical Orientation than did traditionally influenced women. (See Tables 9 and 18).

Hypothesis 2B stated that there would be no significant differences in mean personality scale scores between traditionally and nontraditionally influenced females on the following variables:

- a) Self-Assurance
- b) Decisiveness
- c) Anxiety Level
- d) Personal Integration

In fact, however, nontraditionally influenced women obtained a significantly higher mean score \( (p = .01) \) on this variable than traditionally influenced women, with congruent nontraditionally influenced women having the highest mean score (Tables 3 and 12).

Nontraditionally influenced women also scored significantly higher \( (p = .05) \) on Decisiveness than their traditionally influenced counterparts (Tables 4 and 13).
On Anxiety Level, nontraditionally-influenced women again had significantly higher (p = .05) scores, with congruent nontraditionally-influenced women having the highest mean score, and, thereby, admitting to the least anxiety (Tables 10 and 19).

Finally, nontraditionally-influenced women also had higher scores (p = .01) than traditionally-influenced groups on Personal Integration. Once again the congruent nontraditionally-influenced group had the highest mean score (see Tables 11 and 20).

Hypothesis 2B was rejected. Nontraditionally-influenced groups had significantly higher scores (p = .05, .01) than traditionally-influenced groups on all four variables.

Hypothesis 3 was confirmed. The interaction effect was not found to be significant for any of the personality variables.

Results of the Tukey (b) Test

The Tukey (b) was used to look more closely at the above significant findings in a follow-up analysis. All combinations of groups were analyzed for each variable found to be significant in the analysis of variance.
No significant differences ($p = .05$) among groups were found for the Self-Assurance and Anxiety Level variables (see summary of Tukey, Table 21). Nontraditionally-influenced groups had higher mean scores on both these variables, however, and both were found to contain significant group differences in the analysis of variance. Apparently, inter-group differences were not sufficiently great for the Tukey to discriminate further.

Significant differences were found for the Decisiveness variable. Congruent-traditionally-influenced women had lower scores ($p = .05$) than the other three groups, while incongruent-nontraditionally-influenced women had higher scores than the other three groups. (Table 21).

On the Need for Self-Actualization variable, congruent-traditionally-influenced women were again found to score lower than the other groups ($p = .05$) and incongruent-nontraditionally-influenced women to score higher than other groups. (Table 21).

Congruent-traditionally-influenced women were found to score significantly lower ($p = .01$) on Theoretical Orientation than both nontraditionally-influenced groups. (Table 21).

Finally, on the Personal Integration variable, the
congruent-nontraditionally-influenced group was found to score significantly higher \((p = .05)\) than both the congruent and incongruent-traditionally-influenced groups.

**Summary of Results**

Congruence was not found to be significant for any of the personality variables employed in this study.

Traditionally and nontraditionally-influenced groups were found to differ on a number of personality variables, however. Nontraditionally-influenced groups had higher mean scores \((p = .05, .01)\) on Self-Assurance, Decisiveness, Need for Self-Actualization, Theoretical Orientation, anxiety Level (indicating less anxiety) and Personal Integration.

Use of the Tukey \((b)\) test in a follow-up analysis allowed for further discrimination among experimental groups on four of the six variables found to be significant in the analysis of variance.
TABLE 3
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS ACCORDING TO CONGRUENCE OF COLLEGE MAJOR CHOICE AND TRADITIONALITY OF INFLUENCE

Self-Assurance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Traditional Influence</th>
<th>Nontraditional Influence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Congruent College Major Choice</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>23.00</td>
<td>25.33</td>
</tr>
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<td>S.D.</td>
<td>3.8251</td>
<td>2.6520</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incongruent College Major Choice</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>22.611</td>
<td>25.762</td>
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<td>S.D.</td>
<td>4.3943</td>
<td>5.7263</td>
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<tr>
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</table>
# TABLE 4

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS ACCORDING TO CONGRUENCE OF COLLEGE MAJOR CHOICE AND TRADITIONALITY OF INFLUENCE

Decisiveness

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
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<th>Nontraditional Influence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>Congruent College Major Choice</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>17.750</td>
<td>19.476</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S.D.</td>
<td>5.1898</td>
<td>5.2784</td>
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<tr>
<td>N</td>
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<td>21</td>
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<tr>
<td>Incongruent College Major Choice</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
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<td>22.00</td>
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<td>S.D.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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</table>
TABLE 5
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS ACCORDING TO CONGRUENCE OF COLLEGE MAJOR CHOICE AND TRADITIONALITY OF INFLUENCE

Masculinity-Femininity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Traditional Influence</th>
<th>Nontraditional Influence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Congruent College Major Choice</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>13.100</td>
<td>12.667</td>
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<tr>
<td>S.D.</td>
<td>2.2219</td>
<td>2.5560</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>20</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incongruent College Major Choice</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>13.111</td>
<td>12.857</td>
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<td>S.D.</td>
<td>2.6097</td>
<td>1.9820</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
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<td>21</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
TABLE 6

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS ACCORDING TO CONGRUENCE OF COLLEGE MAJOR CHOICE AND TRADITIONALITY OF INFLUENCE

Achievement Motivation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
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<th>Nontraditional Influence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Congruent College Major Choice</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
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<td>7.9884</td>
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<td>Mean</td>
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</table>
TABLE 7

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS ACCORDING TO CONGRUENCE OF COLLEGE MAJOR CHOICE AND TRADITIONALITY OF INFLUENCE

Need for Self-Actualization

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</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>S.D.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Congruent College Major Choice</td>
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<td>2.1879</td>
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<tr>
<td>Incongruent College Major Choice</td>
<td>9.333</td>
<td>3.4641</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
### TABLE 8

**MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS ACCORDING TO CONGRUENCE OF COLLEGE MAJOR CHOICE AND TRADITIONALITY OF INFLUENCE**

**Need for Security**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Traditional Influence</th>
<th>Nontraditional Influence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Congruent College Major Choice</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>12.100</td>
<td>11.381</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S.D.</td>
<td>2.5110</td>
<td>3.5563</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Incongruent College Major Choice**

| Mean                   | 11.333                | 10.762                   |
| S.D.                   | 3.9258                | 3.8197                   |
| N                      | 18                    | 21                       |
TABLE 9
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS ACCORDING TO CONGRUENCE OF COLLEGE MAJOR CHOICE AND TRADITIONALITY OF INFLUENCE

Theoretical Orientation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Traditional Influence</th>
<th>Nontraditional Influence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Congruent College Major Choice</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>13.050</td>
<td>18.762</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S.D.</td>
<td>5.8712</td>
<td>6.5185</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Incongruent College Major Choice</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>17.167</td>
<td>18.667</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S.D.</td>
<td>4.7681</td>
<td>4.5092</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### TABLE 10

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS ACCORDING TO CONGRUENCE OF COLLEGE MAJOR CHOICE AND TRADITIONALLITY OF INFLUENCE

**Anxiety Level**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Traditional Influence</th>
<th>Nontraditional Influence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Congruent College Major Choice</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>11.200</td>
<td>14.333</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S.D.</td>
<td>5.0845</td>
<td>3.2762</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Incongruent College Major Choice</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>11.167</td>
<td>13.238</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S.D.</td>
<td>5.0439</td>
<td>4.3116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TABLE 11
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS ACCORDING TO CONGRUENCE OF COLLEGE MAJOR CHOICE AND TRADITIONALITY OF INFLUENCE

Personal Integration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Traditional Influence</th>
<th>Non raditional Influence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Congruent College Major Choice</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>30.250</td>
<td>39.048</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S.D.</td>
<td>13.4120</td>
<td>7.6384</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incongruent College Major Choice</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>30.444</td>
<td>36.524</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S.D.</td>
<td>11.2313</td>
<td>9.2768</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TABLE 12

SUMMARY OF THE ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF SCORES ON SELF-DESCRIPTION INVENTORY SCALES ACCORDING TO CONGRUENCE OF COLLEGE MAJOR CHOICE AND TRADITIONALITY OF INFLUENCE

Self-Assurance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variation</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Congruence</td>
<td>1, (a-1)</td>
<td>0.0306</td>
<td>0.0017</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traditionality of Influence</td>
<td>1, (b-1)</td>
<td>148.6634</td>
<td>8.0544</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Congruence and Influence</td>
<td>1, (a-1)(b-1)</td>
<td>3.3249</td>
<td>0.1801</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ERROR</td>
<td>76, (n-ab)</td>
<td>18.4574</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 13

SUMMARY OF THE ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF SCORES ON SELF-DESCRIPTION INVENTORY SCALES ACCORDING TO CONGRUENCE OF COLLEGE MAJOR CHOICE AND TRADITIONALITY OF INFLUENCE

Decisiveness

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variation</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Congruence</td>
<td>1, (a-1)</td>
<td>71.5922</td>
<td>2.7592</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traditionality of Influence</td>
<td>1, (b-1)</td>
<td>112.2133</td>
<td>4.3258</td>
<td>.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Congruence and Influence</td>
<td>1, (a-1)(b-1)</td>
<td>8.8062</td>
<td>0.3394</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ERROR</td>
<td>76, (n-ab)</td>
<td>25.9465</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### TABLE 14

**SUMMARY OF THE ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF SCORES ON SELF-DESCRIPTION INVENTORY SCALES ACCORDING TO CONGRUENCE OF COLLEGE MAJOR CHOICE AND TRADITIONALITY OF INFLUENCE**

**Masculinity-Femininity**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variation</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Congruence</td>
<td>1, (a-1)</td>
<td>0.2247</td>
<td>0.0408</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traditionality of Influence</td>
<td>1, (b-1)</td>
<td>2.3887</td>
<td>0.4335</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Congruence and Influence</td>
<td>1, (a-1)(b-1)</td>
<td>0.1542</td>
<td>0.0280</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ERROR</td>
<td>76, (n-ab)</td>
<td>5.5108</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### TABLE 15

**SUMMARY OF THE ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF SCORES ON SELF-DESCRIPTION INVENTORY SCALES ACCORDING TO CONGRUENCE OF COLLEGE MAJOR CHOICE AND TRADITIONALITY OF INFLUENCE**

**Achievement Motivation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variation</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Congruence</td>
<td>1, (a-1)</td>
<td>143.1702</td>
<td>1.9149</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traditionality of Influence</td>
<td>1, (b-1)</td>
<td>196.4827</td>
<td>2.6279</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Congruence and Influence</td>
<td>1, (a-1)(b-1)</td>
<td>145.1423</td>
<td>1.9413</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ERROR</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TABLE 16
SUMMARY OF THE ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF SCORES ON SELF-DESCRIPTION INVENTORY SCALES ACCORDING TO CONGRUENCE OF COLLEGE MAJOR CHOICE AND TRADITIONALITY OF INFLUENCE

Need for Self-Actualization

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variation</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Congruence</td>
<td>1, (a-1)</td>
<td>8.2915</td>
<td>1.2632</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traditionality of Influence</td>
<td>1, (b-1)</td>
<td>32.7290</td>
<td>4.9862</td>
<td>.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Congruence and Influence</td>
<td>1, (a-1)(b-1)</td>
<td>1.0288</td>
<td>0.1567</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ERROR</td>
<td>76, (n-ab)</td>
<td>6.5639</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 17
SUMMARY OF THE ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF SCORES ON SELF-DESCRIPTION INVENTORY SCALES ACCORDING TO CONGRUENCE OF COLLEGE MAJOR CHOICE AND TRADITIONALITY OF INFLUENCE

Need for Security

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variation</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Congruence</td>
<td>1, (a-1)</td>
<td>9.4858</td>
<td>0.7781</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traditionality of Influence</td>
<td>1, (b-1)</td>
<td>8.3530</td>
<td>0.6851</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Congruence and Influence</td>
<td>1, (a-1)(b-1)</td>
<td>0.1079</td>
<td>0.0089</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ERROR</td>
<td>76, (n-ab)</td>
<td>12.1917</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### TABLE 18
**SUMMARY OF THE ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF SCORES ON OMNIBUS PERSONALITY INVENTORY SCALES ACCORDING TO CONGRUENCE OF COLLEGE MAJOR CHOICE AND TRADITIONALITY OF INFLUENCE**

Theoretical Orientation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variation</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Congruence</td>
<td>1, (a-1)</td>
<td>72.2915</td>
<td>2.3909</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traditionality of Influence</td>
<td>1, (b-1)</td>
<td>267.6704</td>
<td>8.8527</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Congruence and Influence</td>
<td>1, (a-1)(b-1)</td>
<td>88.3491</td>
<td>2.9220</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ERROR</td>
<td>76, (n-ab)</td>
<td>30.2360</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### TABLE 19
**SUMMARY OF THE ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF SCORES ON OMNIBUS PERSONALITY INVENTORY SCALES ACCORDING TO CONGRUENCE OF COLLEGE MAJOR CHOICE AND TRADITIONALITY OF INFLUENCE**

Anxiety Level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variation</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Congruence</td>
<td>1, (a-1)</td>
<td>6.9887</td>
<td>0.3517</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traditionality of Influence</td>
<td>1, (b-1)</td>
<td>136.5434</td>
<td>6.8715</td>
<td>.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Congruence and Influence</td>
<td>1, (a-1)(b-1)</td>
<td>5.6129</td>
<td>0.2825</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ERROR</td>
<td>76, (n-ab)</td>
<td>19.8708</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TABLE 20

SUMMARY OF THE ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF SCORES ON OMNIBUS PERSONALITY INVENTORY SCALES ACCORDING TO CONGRUENCE OF COLLEGE MAJOR CHOICE AND TRADITIONALITY OF INFLUENCE

**Personal Integration**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variation</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Congruence</td>
<td>1, (a-1)</td>
<td>30.4558</td>
<td>0.2739</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traditionality of Influence</td>
<td>1, (b-1)</td>
<td>1114.2683</td>
<td>10.0213</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Congruence and Influence</td>
<td>1, (a-1)(b-1)</td>
<td>36.7942</td>
<td>0.3309</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ERROR</td>
<td>76, (n-ab)</td>
<td>111.1900</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TABLE 21

SUMMARY OF TUKEY (b) TESTS ON SELF-DESCRIPTION INVENTORY AND OMNIBUS PERSONALITY INVENTORY SCALES FOUND TO BE SIGNIFICANT IN THE ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE. (EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS WHICH HAD MEAN SCORES SIGNIFICANTLY DIFFERENT FROM OTHER GROUPS ARE REPORTED BY SETS.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-Assurance</td>
<td>(No differences)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decisiveness</td>
<td>CT/IN *</td>
<td>.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Need for Self-Actualization</td>
<td>CT/IN</td>
<td>.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theoretical Orientation</td>
<td>CT/CN, IN</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anxiety Level</td>
<td>(No differences)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal Integration</td>
<td>CT, IT/CN</td>
<td>.05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* C = Congruent College Major Choice
I = Incongruent College Major Choice
T = Traditionally Influenced
N = Nontraditionally Influenced

Groups listed to the left had significantly lower mean scores than those listed to the right.
Discussion

The findings indicate no relationship between congruence of college major choice made by women and the personality variables employed in this study. This is consistent with the findings of Walsh and Lewis (1972) for the Omnibus Personality Scales used in this study (Theoretical Orientation, Anxiety Level and Personal Integration) and suggests that the scales of the Self-Description Inventory may not be useful in measuring personality variables associated with the making of vocational decisions by women. This finding tentatively suggests the possibility that different personality variables may be involved in female vocational decision making processes and that a separate theory of vocational development and different decision making models may be requisite to an understanding of women's career decisions.

A number of differences between traditionally-influenced and nontraditionally-influenced women may be noted in the findings.

On the Self-Assurance variable, nontraditionally-influenced women were found to score higher than traditionally-influenced women. This suggests that nontraditionally-
influenced women may have a higher regard for their ability to cope with problems (Ghiselli, 1971) and may reflect an overall sense of greater self-esteem. Nontraditionally-influenced women were so defined on the basis of their apparent lack of perception of traditional feminine sex role stereotypes in significant males. Research on sex role stereotyping (Sheriffs and Jarrett, 1953; Sheriffs and McKee, 1957; McKee and Sheriffs, 1957; Rosenkrantz et al., 1968) suggests that both men and women tend to prefer those personality characteristics commonly associated with male sex role stereotypes and that women appear to hold less positive views of themselves in comparison with men. This suggests that women may have generally lower self-esteem than males and that this may be related to the way they perceive sex role stereotypes. It is possible, then, that nontraditionally-influenced women may have more positive self-concepts because they do not perceive significant males as stereotyping them in traditional ways (i.e., as less competent, less effective) and, therefore, do not perceive themselves in this way.

Nontraditionally-influenced women also scored higher than traditionally-influenced women on the Decisiveness variable. If nontraditionally-influenced women are,
as a group, more self-assured concerning their competence, it seems reasonable that this might have some effect upon their degree of confidence in the appropriateness of decisions which they have made. The higher scores on Decisiveness in the nontraditionally-influenced group suggest that this group tends to make decisions more quickly and more confidently, rather than tending to wait for more information and making decisions in a tentative manner (Ghiselli, 1971). Lower scores on this variable in the traditionally-influenced group suggests a tendency to conform to a more hesitant, less confident style of decision making.

On the Need for Self-Actualization variable, nontraditionally-influenced women again tended to score higher than the traditionally-influenced group. This variable is intended to assess need to fully utilize talents and abilities (Ghiselli, 1971). Since the nontraditionally-influenced group appears to be higher in self-esteem (see previous discussion of findings on Self-Assurance), this finding is consistent with the self-esteem research of Korman (1967a, 1967b). Korman's findings indicated that high self-esteem subjects tended to seek vocational environments consistent with abilities and offering greater potential for personal fulfillment, whereas lower self-esteem subjects tended not
to seek opportunities for personal fulfillment, but instead tended to base vocational choices on external criteria. In short, nontraditionally-influenced women (perhaps as a function of higher self-esteem) tend to express a stronger need than traditionally-influenced women to fully utilize their abilities and to seek opportunities for personal fulfillment.

Nontraditionally-influenced women scored higher on Theoretical Orientation than their traditionally-influenced counterparts. This variable is intended to assess interest in, or preference for, analytical thinking, or scientific activities (Heist and Yonge, 1968). The higher scores of the nontraditionally-influenced group suggest that this group may tend to have interests of a more masculine nature than traditionally-influenced women, or that nontraditionally-influenced women may perceive less male opposition to the expression of such interests by women, perhaps as a result of their apparent tendency to perceive less traditional sex role stereotypes in men. An alternative explanation is that nontraditionally-influenced women, like the career women studied by Rand (1968), may tend to redefine their feminine self-concept to include characteristics appropriate to both sexes, whereas traditionally-
influenced women may tend to adhere to more traditional sex role stereotypes.

Nontraditionally-influenced women also scored higher on Anxiety Level, which suggests a tendency toward less anxiety or expression of anxiety than in the traditionally-influenced group (Heist and Yonge, 1968).

Finally, the higher scores of the nontraditionally-influenced group on the Personal Integration variables suggest that this group tends less to admit to feelings of isolation or social rejection than the traditionally-influenced group, whose lower scores suggest a greater tendency to admit to attitudes and behaviors characterizing alienated or disturbed persons (Heist and Yonge, 1968).

The findings on Anxiety Level and Personal Integration suggest lower anxiety and better personal adjustment in the nontraditionally-influenced group. If, as suggested by the findings on Self-Assurance and Decisiveness variables, nontraditionally-influenced women are higher in self-esteem, perceive themselves as better able to cope with their problems and feel more confident about their decisions, it seems reasonable to assume that they feel less anxious. In addition, if nontraditionally-influenced women perceive significant males as having more egalitarian sex role stereotypes
and a more positive view of women, and if they also feel more comfortable with the feminine sex roles and self-concepts which they have defined for themselves, a likely result of such feelings would appear to be a greater feeling of acceptance and fewer feelings of alienation and isolation than those experienced by traditionally-influenced women.

In short, it appears that nontraditionally-influenced women tend to present themselves as more self-assured, more decisive, having a greater need to make full use of potential, more interested in scientific pursuits, less anxious and admitting to fewer feelings of alienation or emotional disturbance when compared to traditionally-influenced women.

To summarize, the findings of this study suggest that certain personality variables are able to differentiate between women who perceive traditional (dichotomous) models of femininity in males who are significant to them and women who perceive nontraditional (androgynous) models of femininity in significant males. Congruent and incongruent groups were not found to differ on the personality variables employed in this study, suggesting the need for further investigation into the nature of the relationship between
personality and educational-vocational decision making in women.

In general, the findings suggest that female perception of nontraditional male models of femininity may be associated with greater interest in the sciences as a potential career area, stronger desire to fully utilize intellectual abilities and overall personal adjustment.
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The purpose of this study were:

1. To assess personality differences between women students whose college major choices were consistent with their primary VPI codes and those whose major field choices inconsistent,

2. To assess personality differences between women who view males as having traditional models of femininity and those who perceive males as having nontraditional views of the feminine ideal,

3. To explore the interaction between female perception of male models of femininity and personality for congruent and incongruent female students.

The sample for this study consisted of 80 female undergraduate students on the main and Marion Branch campuses of The Ohio State University. Four instruments were employed in the study: Holland's Vocational Preference Inventory, Hawley's measure of female perceptions of male models of femininity, The Self-Description Inventory and three scales from the Omnibus Personality Inventory. The VPI was employed to identify congruent and incongruent college major choice
groups. Hawley's scale was used to identify traditional and nontraditional influence (that is, whether female subjects perceived significant males as having traditional or nontraditional models of femininity). The Self-Description Inventory and the Omnibus Personality Inventory scales were used to assess differences in personality variables among the experimental groups.

The experimental groups were four in number: congruent-traditionally-influenced (20 subjects), congruent-nontraditionally-influenced (21 subjects), incongruent-traditionally-influenced (18 subjects) and incongruent-nontraditionally-influenced (21 subjects).

A 2 x 2 analysis of variance for unequal Ns was used to test three hypotheses (congruence, traditionality of influence and interaction). Significant findings were further analyzed by means of the Tukey (b) test.

Conclusions

The test for the main effect of congruence was not found to be significant for any of the personality variables. The test for the main effect of traditionality of influence was found to be significant for three Self-Description Inventory variables (Self-Assurance, Decisiveness and Need
for Self-Actualization) and for the three Omnibus Personality Inventory Variables (Theoretical Orientation, Anxiety Level and Personal Integration. Nontraditionally-influenced women scored higher on all significant scales. The test for the interaction effect was not found to be significant for any of the personality variables.

To summarize, the findings indicate that some of the personality variables employed were able to differentiate between traditionally-influenced and nontraditionally-influenced groups.

The findings suggest that nontraditionally-influenced women (i.e., those who perceive nontraditional male models of femininity in significant males) may be more interested in scientific areas as possible career fields, may have greater self-esteem and more confidence, may have a greater desire to utilize intellectual potential, and may be better personally adjusted than women who perceive more traditional male femininity models in significant males.

Limitations

This study used only the dominant, or peak scale score, of the VPI to define congruence. Research by Holland and Whitney (1968) indicated that use of a three letter code
improved prediction over those being made on the basis of peak VPI scale score alone.

This study is further limited by the dangers inherent in generalizing beyond the student population from which this sample was drawn, the limited size of the sample (roughly 160 students initially with a final sample size of 80 subjects), and the fact that students who were undecided about college major were not included in the study. In addition, most of the subjects were drawn from among students enrolled in psychology courses. While enrollment in psychology courses does not necessarily indicate a potential major field choice (i.e., psychology), it may be that students who take psychology courses share some common interests and personality characteristics less likely to be found among individuals in the general population. In short, generalization of the conclusions of this study would require replications of this study at other institutions (preferably including undecided students), using larger samples, or better still, sampling from the female population in general.

Implications

One implication that might be drawn from this study
is that female students may be affected in personality development and, possibly, in vocational development, differentially by their perceptions of sex roles and sex role expectations (of society in general and men in particular). Some of the findings suggest that nontraditionally-influenced females (i.e., those who perceive males as having a nontraditional model of femininity) are, as a group, more self-assured, more confident in decision making, more inclined to aspire to more full use of potential, more oriented toward male-dominated fields, less anxious and better personally integrated than traditionally-influenced women.

The fact that the personality variables employed were unable to differentiate between the congruent and incongruent groups suggests the need for further exploration of the meaning of congruence in the female vocational decision making process. It is possible, and has been suggested by many researchers, that vocational development in women is influenced by very different personality variables and social factors than is male vocational development. This suggests the advisability of pursuing the investigation of vocational development and decision making in women independently, rather than attempting to
apply models of male vocational decision making to women.

Finally, research into the identifying of some of the social factors (in addition to continued research on the effect of male expectations) which may influence vocational development in women might prove to be of great assistance in helping the counselor to understand the special problems faced by women in making vocational decisions and ultimately assist the female student in overcoming problems and arriving at a decision appropriate for her.
APPENDIX A

THE SELF-DESCRIPTION INVENTORY
THE SELF-DESCRIPTION INVENTORY

The purpose of this inventory is to obtain a picture of the trait you believe you possess and to see how you describe yourself. There are no right or wrong answers, so try to describe yourself as accurately and honestly as you can.

In each of the pairs of words below, check the one you think most describes you.

1. ___capable
   ___discreet
2. ___understanding
   ___thorough
3. ___cooperative
   ___inventive
4. ___friendly
   ___cheerful
5. ___energetic
   ___ambitious
6. ___persevering
   ___independent
7. ___loyal
   ___dependable
8. ___determined
   ___courageous
9. ___industrious
   ___practical
10. ___planful
    ___resourceful
11. ___unaffected
    ___alert
12. ___affectionate
    ___frank
13. ___progressive
    ___thrifty
14. ___sincere
    ___calm
15. ___thoughtful
    ___fair-minded
16. ___poised
    ___ingenious
17. ___sociable
    ___steady
18. ___appreciative
    ___good-natured
19. ___pleasant
    ___modest
20. ___responsible
    ___reliable
21. ___dignified
    ___civilized
22. ___imaginative
    ___self-controlled
12. ____sharp-witted
    ____deliberate

13. ____kind
    ____jolly

14. ____efficient
    ____clear-thinking

15. ____realistic
    ____tactful

16. ____enterprising
    ____intelligent

28. ____conscientious
    ____quick

29. ____logical
    ____adaptable

30. ____sympathetic
    ____patient

31. ____stable
    ____foresighted

32. ____honest
    ____generous
In each of the pairs of words below, check the one you think **least** like you.

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<td><em><strong>irritable</strong></em></td>
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<td>46.</td>
<td><em><strong>dreamy</strong></em></td>
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<td><em><strong>dependent</strong></em></td>
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<td><em><strong>bitter</strong></em></td>
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<td>59.</td>
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<td><em><strong>self-pitying</strong></em></td>
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<td>60.</td>
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<td><em><strong>outspoken</strong></em></td>
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<td><em><strong>resentful</strong></em></td>
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47. ___changeable
   ___prudish

48. ___nervous
    ___intolerant

63. ___sly
    ___excitable

64. ___irresponsible
    ___impatient
APPENDIX B

HAWLEY'S SCALE OF FEMALE PERCEPTION
OF MALE MODELS OF FEMININITY
All of these statements are concerned with what men think women should be or do. Please indicate the strength of your agreement or disagreement by selecting the appropriate number (see code below) and writing it in front of the statement in the space provided.

1. VERY STRONGLY AGREE  4. DISAGREE  
2. STRONGLY AGREE  5. STRONGLY DISAGREE  
3. AGREE  6. VERY STRONGLY DISAGREE  

It is important that you respond as you think the important or significant men in your life believe. Before you start, decide on the men in your life who have influenced you. There may be contradictory influences. In this case think of the most influential men (or if some are of equal influence, the most recently influential) and the way in which they view female behavior.

_____ 1. Significant men in my life think men and women should share both the responsibilities and privileges of life equally.

_____ 2. Significant men in my life think women should be the "power behind the man" and not the one "out in front."

_____ 3. Significant men in my life think women should let the man believe he is the dominant one even if this is not true.

_____ 4. Significant men in my life think women should always be honest when they are asked an opinion, even if this opinion is in disagreement with a man.
5. Significant men in my life think there should be a division of labor between the sexes, as women and men have different abilities.

6. Significant men in my life think women should be paid the same salary which would be paid to a man in the same position.

7. Significant men in my life think they should make the decisions regarding important financial matters and women should make decisions regarding home and children.

8. Significant men in my life think women expect to be slightly illogical.

9. Significant men in my life think women should be helpless because this is flattering to a man.

10. Significant men in my life think women who are easily impressed and somewhat naive are especially feminine.

11. Significant men in my life like women who use "feminine wiles" to accomplish their aims.

12. Significant men in my life dislike women who think sex is paramount in all man-woman relationships.

13. Significant men in my life think the one single most important thing a wife can do to ensure a good marriage is to be supportive to her husband.

14. Significant men in my life think it is extremely important to marry a woman who is physically desirable in the eyes of other men.

15. Significant men in my life think women should never let outside interests or activities interfere with their domestic duties.

16. Significant men in my life think the best way for women to express their love for their families is to perform the small services, e.g., lay out clothes, cook favorite dishes, etc.
17. Significant men in my life think it is possible for women to handle both a home and an outside career and do justice to them both.

18. Significant men in my life think women do not belong in business and professional life because they act inappropriately; for example, they burst into tears when things go wrong, they demand equal treatment with men in some cases and insist on their feminine prerogatives in others.

19. Significant men in my life think women who engage in activities outside the home are more interesting than those who do not.

20. Significant men in my life think women are naturally "people-centered" and men are naturally "idea-centered."

21. Significant men in my life think woman's place is in the home.

22. Significant men in my life think modern woman is too competitive.

23. Significant men in my life think women should be able to follow any vocation or profession they wish, even if it violates tradition.

24. Significant men in my life think women should not compete for top-salaried positions.

25. Significant men in my life do not want women to be highly successful in areas where their own egos are deeply involved.

26. Significant men in my life think women can be competitive in all endeavors without appearing masculine.

27. Significant men in my life think women should never be placed in positions of authority over men, even if they are qualified.
28. Significant men in my life think the relationship between husbands and wives can be good even if both are competing in the same area.

29. Significant men in my life think the intellectual capacity of men and women is equal but different.

30. Significant men in my life think it is more important for a truly feminine woman to be beautiful than to be intelligent.

31. Significant men in my life think women should limit themselves to friendships with other women.

32. Significant men in my life think it is just as important to educate their daughters as to educate their sons.

33. Significant men in my life think it is important for a woman to be articulate and verbally fluent.

34. Significant men in my life think it would be perfectly appropriate to have a woman President of the United States if she were qualified.

35. Significant men in my life think there are no genetically based differences in the way men and women think.
REFERENCES


Walsh, W. B., and Barrow, C., Consistent and inconsistent career preferences and personality. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 1971, 1, 271-278.


