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WORK VALUES AND BACKGROUND FACTORS AS PREDICTORS
OF WOMEN'S DESIRE TO WORK

DISSERTATION

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the Degree Doctor of Philosophy in the Graduate
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By

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* * * * *

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

One of the many social changes that mark the twentieth century in America concerns the increasing presence of women in the labor force. Women workers have increased in number so that now they constitute a large proportion of the total labor force.

Working women, their characteristics, their problems and their effect upon the labor force have been the subject of an enormous number and variety of publications. Most of the works have been published in the years since World War II, a period in which the proportionate number of women in the work force has been rapidly expanding.

The publications appear in many forms. Some are popular articles in women's magazines. Some concern the psychology of women, some their education and others the history of working women. Extensive statistical analyses have been described in the many publications of the Women's Bureau, a branch of the U. S. Department of Labor. Summaries of recent developments and their implications are presented in Womanpower, an excellent book published by the National Manpower Council in 1957.

Despite the superabundance of literature dealing with

working women, few investigations have been made tracing the development of women's attitudes toward work. Little has been done in the way of attempting to predict the future work behavior of a group of women.

This particular investigation aims to add to the understanding of the characteristics of women who wish to work. The aim is furthered by: (1) the review of the salient factors known to affect women's work lives; and (2) the empirical study of the backgrounds and work motivation of two selected groups of women college graduates. The investigation is conducted as part of a possible longitudinal study of women's work attitudes, to be followed up five years later.

Demography of the Women's Work Force: Changes in Labor Force Composition

In March 1957 the Nation's labor force was comprised of 21,500,000 women workers who constituted 33 per cent of the entire work force (Women's Bureau, 1957b). Census data compiled each decade since 1890 show gradual increases in the proportion of women in the population who work. In 1890, 18 per cent of the women above the age of fourteen worked (Women's Bureau, 1953). The proportion rose still further to 26 per cent in 1940 and still higher as the 1960 census approached. Women have taken their place in the world of work and are likely to continue to increase their representation in the work force.

But a look at the other side of the female employment

figures shows that the majority of women are not in the work force. For example in April 1953, nearly 40 million women over fourteen years of age were not working (Women's Bureau, 1953). On the other hand at this same time nine million men were not in the work force. It appears then that women rather than men make up the manpower reserve available for emergencies. However, women's employment is usually conditional depending upon the presence of a mother surrogate (Kelley, 1951).

A study of statistical information about working women should therefore concentrate on factors relating to the presence of women in the labor force. Attention should be given to the dynamic characteristics of women's lives that lie behind labor force participation statistics, and predict their likelihood of working during different times of their lives.

Effect of Marriage

Foremost among the circumstances that influence women's employment is marriage and the changes that accompany it. Garfinkle (1950) found, for example, that marriage and the presence of children are the most important conditions keeping women out of the labor force.

During the first half of the twentieth century, extensive changes occurred in the female work force. The single women workers, at first in the majority, have more recently been replaced by the married women (Women's Bureau, 1953). The marital status of the women workers has changed consid-

erably since 1910, at which time 61 per cent of the women workers were single. By 1930 the proportion was reduced to 54 per cent, and by 1940 to 49 per cent. According to the postwar census of 1950, 32 per cent of the working women were single, and by 1955 the all time low of 25 per cent was recorded.

At the same time there have been changes in the composition of the population. There has been a decrease in the number of single women in the population from almost 14 million in 1940 to 11 million in 1952, a decrease of nearly 20 per cent (Women's Bureau, 1953). Data from the Census Bureau (Women's Bureau, 1953, p. 59) indicate that

Population changes however, do not account for the "new (married) look" of today's women workers, by comparison with 1940. Married women increased by 29% in the population during these years, but by more than 100% in the labor force because a larger proportion of married women sought jobs outside their home during this period. In 1940, only 17% of the married women in the population were workers; but in 1952 about 27% of the women were workers.

Much of the rise in the number of married women workers is due to attitudinal change, higher and earlier marriage rates (Women's Bureau, 1958b). Though the representation of the married women in the labor force has increased, "the percentage of single women in the labor force is consistently highest and the percentage of married women lowest" (Women's Bureau, 1958b, p. 32). Moreover, unmarried women are almost as well represented in the work force as are men. In 1956, for example, half of the single women in the population were

working; two-fifths of women who were widowed, divorced or separated or whose husbands were in the Armed Services or employed away from home were working; only three-tenths of the married women with husbands living at home were working (Women's Bureau, 1957a). The difference in labor participation between the married and single women is greatest during the ages of twenty to thirty-four, the major child bearing years (Women's Bureau, 1958b). It has been found (Garfinkle, 1950, p. 4) that "labor force participation rates for married women reach an initial peak of about 30 percent at age 22, when about one-third of the married women have no children, but drop to 22 percent between the ages of 25 and 30 when the proportion of married women with no children declines to about 20 percent."

In 1950 Garfinkle developed work life expectancy tables for working women. He found that twenty year-old women who will remain single for their entire lives have an average of 40 years of work remaining. Men of the same age are expected to work an average of 43 more years. But twenty year-old married working women who will not have children nor be divorced have only a work life expectancy of 31 years. Estimates are far more difficult to make for married women with children. But if mothers who will have no more children return to the labor force when they are thirty years of age, they might be expected, as are married women without children, to average another 23 years of work.

Recent information from a national survey (Women's Bureau, 1958a) of women college graduates of 1956 is consistent with long range data. Six months after graduation, 37 per cent of the women were married; of the married alumnae 69 per cent were working; a still higher percentage (82%) of those whose husbands were attending school were working.

Effect of Children

It is not marriage per se that keeps women out of the labor force, rather it is the presence of children. "Overall, about one of every three mothers with children under 18 years of age was working in 1957. But the ratio changed considerably when the ages of the children were taken into consideration. Among mothers with school-age children only, about two out of five were working. For those with some preschool children, the ratio was about one out of five" (Women's Bureau, 1958b, p. 40). Mothers who were widowed, divorced, or separated are far more likely to be employed. In 1957, 36 per cent of the women in this category who had preschool children were working; 63 per cent of those with school-age children held jobs (Women's Bureau, 1958b).

The proportion of mothers working depends upon the age of their children. In 1940, an estimated 6 per cent of mothers with preschool children were working and only 9 per cent of mothers with children under the age of eighteen were employed. By 1946, 12 per cent of those with preschool children were in

the labor force whereas 18 per cent of those with children under eighteen were working. Further increases were apparent from the 1952 data, raising the proportion of working mothers to 16 per cent for those with preschool children and to 24 per cent for those with children under the age of eighteen.

Though exact figures are not available, the authors of Womanpower (National Manpower Council, 1957, p. 132) think that "since 1940, the proportion in the labor force among mothers of preschool children has probably more than doubled." Since 1946, this proportion has become fairly stable from year to year. The authors have noted also that "public opinion poll data indicate that Americans overwhelmingly disapproved of having the mother of young children go to work when her husband is able to support her" (p. 327).

It seems then that women with preschool children are not inclined to seek a job outside the home. On the other hand however, women with school-age children are taking on job responsibilities more readily. Much of the increase in the female labor force has been attributed to the tendency for these women to work (Garfinkle, 1950). In 1952, for example, 35 per cent of the mothers with school-aged children were working (Women's Bureau, 1953). This is more than twice as high as the proportion of working mothers with younger children. The age of the children appears to relate more directly to their mothers' employment than does their mere presence.

Not only the presence of a child but also the number of

children a woman has affects the chances that she will be willing to work. Havemann and West (1952) found that with every additional child a college-educated mother further reduced her chances of re-entering the labor market. For women Ph.D.'s from Radcliffe College (1956), the number of children related closely to the amount of time spent in paid employment: average number of children for full-time workers, .84; for women employed part-time, .90; for those employed intermittently 1.4, and an average of 1.7 children for those who were not employed at all.

Income: its Effects on Employment

The financial situation of individual families to a great extent determines the presence of the wife in the labor force. Durand (1946) found an inverse relationship between the employment of women in 1940 and the incomes of their husbands in 1939. At each successively higher income group there were fewer women working. For women with no children under ten years of age, peak participation (33%) was found among those whose husbands had only \$1.00 to \$199 in income; minimum participation was among those women with husbands' earning over \$3,000. Somewhat the same trends are evident for 1952 (Women's Bureau, 1953). Peak employment level (29%) was found among women whose husbands had earned from \$2,000 to \$3,000, whereas minimum employment again was among those with the highest salary bracket (\$10,000 and over). But the relationship between a husband's income and his wife's participa-

tion in the labor force took a slightly different form in 1952. Women with husbands in the lowest income bracket (under \$1,000) were not as well represented in the labor force (24%) as were those in the peak participation (29%) group whose husbands earned between \$2,000 and \$3,000. Though these percentage differences are small, it is interesting to note that the proportion of wives working did not fall under 24 per cent until the \$5,000 to \$6,000 income bracket in which only 20 per cent of the wives were represented. In still higher income groups, the proportion dropped off until, in the highest income bracket of \$10,000 and over, only 13 per cent of the wives were working. In 1957 however, labor force participation was spread over still more income groups; labor force participation of wives varied from 29 per cent to 36 per cent in the income groups ranging from \$1,000 to \$5,999 (Women's Bureau, 1958b). Among wives whose husbands earned from \$7,000 to \$9,999, 21 per cent were in the labor force. However, only 12 per cent of the women whose husbands made \$10,000 and over were working. It appears, then, that employment rates among wives have increased in all income brackets arranged according to husband's income and that perhaps the greatest increases have occurred in the middle income brackets rather than at the extremes. These changes might reflect more liberal attitudes toward working wives and/or the need and desire for a double income during a period in which inflation is evident. The working women of today are not mainly single women or women from extremely low economic groups, but more

than ever before wives and mothers and women in general from moderate income groups.

Age of Working Women

The age of working women has increased considerably. In 1890 the median age of working women was twenty-five (Women's Bureau, 1953). By 1950 it had soared to thirty-six and by 1957 the average age in the female work force was about forty years (Women's Bureau, 1957b).

The greatest changes in employment rates took place among women between the ages of thirty-five and fifty-four (Women's Bureau, 1953). The proportion of women in the population in this age range has increased since 1930. During 1930, 22 per cent of women between the ages of thirty-five and forty-four worked while only 20 per cent between forty-five to fifty-four were employed. Just before World War II (1940) 27 per cent of this younger group worked and 22 per cent of the older women were in the labor force. During the postwar period of 1950, 35 per cent of the thirty-five to forty-four year group worked and 33 per cent of those in the forty-five to fifty-four age group were employed.

That mature women have been returning to work is also clear from a perusal of the statistics on the age distribution of women workers from 1940 and 1956 (Women's Bureau, 1953; Women's Bureau Chart, C-3). In 1940, 59 per cent of the women working were under thirty-five years of age; whereas in 1956 the proportion had been reduced to 40 per cent. Those between

thirty-five and forty-four years of age made up 19 per cent of the women's labor force in 1940 and 23 per cent of the labor force in 1956. Whereas in 1940, 13 per cent of the working women were between forty-five and fifty-four years of age, 20 per cent were of that age in 1956. There was also an increase in the proportion of older women (ages 55 to 64) in the labor force, for they represented only seven per cent of all working women in 1940 and 13 per cent in 1956.

Some of these changes can be attributed to an increase in the number of women in each age bracket. Figures compiled by the Women's Bureau (1953, p. 44) indicate however that "the number of women 45 years and over (has) increased four times in the population, but almost nine times in the labor force." The advent of an older population has not alone accounted for this new group of workers. Perhaps legislation regulating compulsory school attendance had enabled these women to express their willingness to work while their children were attending school. Also many women who were employed as temporary workers during World War II have chosen to continue working during the ensuing years when they were somewhat more advanced in age. It is generally felt that "the higher age trend is likely to continue for another decade, since the women now entering the labor force are members of the relatively small generation born during the 1930's when birth rates were low. This scarcity of young workers, both men and women, improves the job prospects of older workers for the next few years" (Women's Bureau, 1956b, p. 27).

The labor force participation statistics lead one to the conclusion that there are two periods in which women are most likely to work: (1) before and shortly after marriage and (2) a period beginning approximately 10 to 15 years later when their children are in school and continuing possibly until retirement. Women now have their children earlier and consequently find that the children soon grow-up to live their own lives and leave behind them the "empty nest" for a relatively young but mature mother to watch over. And since women now enjoy an increasingly longer life expectancy, they can anticipate living many productive years after they have completed their major contribution as a mother. These are the years that are often devoted to paid employment or to community and volunteer activities. Early anticipation of the activities of these middle years when a woman is neither school age nor retirement age would contribute immensely in facilitating women's transition from one phase of life to another.

Effect of Urbanization

Place of residence has a definite effect on the labor force participation rates of women. It has been found that urban women are twice as likely to be in the labor force as are farm women (National Manpower Council, 1957). In 1960, 33 per cent of the urban women were employed; whereas only 23 per cent of the rural nonfarm women were working and 16 per cent of the rural farm women were involved in paid

employment (Women's Bureau, 1953).

Thus it appears that women need to be in areas where jobs are available if they wish to work. And perhaps the need becomes more impelling when they have specialized skills and therefore desire to be more selective in accepting jobs. But urban areas provide more than expanded job opportunities. Also associated with urban living are more liberal attitudes toward the employment of wives and mothers, a trend toward smaller families, smaller residence and a desire for a larger income (Young, 1947).

Effect of Education: Focus upon the Woman College Graduate

"Chances that a woman will seek paid employment tend to increase with the amount of education she has received. For example, more than half of the American women with a college degree were working in 1957, in contrast to less than one-third of the women who had left school after the eighth grade. The relationship of educational attainment and employment was almost as strong for married women living with their husbands as it was for single women. The percentages of married women in the labor force were: 40% of college graduates, 31% of the high school graduates, 28% of the elementary school graduates, and 21% of those with less than five years' schooling" (Women's Bureau, 1958b, p. 92). These data are further described in Table I.

Like other women, college women are most likely to be employed when under the age of twenty-five; between ages

Table 1

Percentages of Women in the Labor Force by
Educational Attainment and Marital Status, 1957

(Women 18 years of age and over; adapted from
Women's Bureau, 1958b, p. 93)

Years of School Completed	Percent of Women in Labor Force			
	Total	Single	Married ¹	Other
College: 4 years or more	55	90	41	67
High School: 4 years	41	80	31	57
Elementary School: 8 years	31	62	28	34

¹ With husband present

twenty-five and thirty-four only 45 per cent have jobs while between forty-five and fifty-four, 55 per cent are employed (Wolfe, 1954). The high employment rate of college women which exists even during the years in which women generally are not employed in part reflects the lower frequency of marriage among college women. Havemann and West (1952) have found that while 13 per cent of all American women were not married, 31 per cent of the college women in their sample were unmarried. There is evidence, then, that the marriage rate for college women is lower than that of the general population and that the existence of a large number of unmarried college women boosts the labor force participation for the college-educated group.

An additional explanation may be found by considering

data quoted in Womanpower (National Manpower Council, 1957). Family planning appears to relate to educational level since it was found that half of the college women under forty-five who were married two to three years had not yet had a child; whereas only one-third of those with an elementary school education did not have a child by this time. Freedman (1957), however, cites evidence that "differential fertility" based on socioeconomic differences is fast disappearing and that eventually the differential fertility trend will actually be reversed, with families who can most afford a large number of children bearing the most children.

Recent information indicates that the marriage and child-bearing patterns of college women have changed (National Manpower Council, 1957). No longer do many college women remain unmarried; many more than ever before are marrying, marrying at a young age and having large families. It appears that a mutually exclusive choice between marriage and a career is unnecessary and that many more are combining employment with homemaking.

In 1957 the majority (75%) of the employed college graduates had professional or technical jobs. Clerical work occupied 14 per cent of these women, while the remaining 11 per cent were involved in some type of managerial work (Women's Bureau, 1958b). There has been an increase in the number of women performing professional and technical types of work. In 1958, for example, the number of women in these

areas was two-fifths higher than in 1950 and more than three-fifths higher than in 1940 (Women's Bureau, 1958b). But when the percentage of all women workers in these jobs is considered, the proportion is about the same in 1958 as it was in 1940.

Among women employed in these jobs, the proportion of married and single women was about the same in 1952, 43 per cent and 42 per cent respectively (Women's Bureau, 1953). There are therefore, fewer married women represented in professional and technical work than there are in other occupations.

Women who have received education beyond the bachelor's degree generally have considerable work experience. A survey was made of the employment records of 1240 women physicians who had graduated from seven large Eastern medical schools before 1940 (Lowther & Downes, 1945). Of the women, 90 per cent were at the time involved in full-time work. An average of 82 per cent of those who were married were working full time. A better controlled study of women physicians (Dykman & Stalnaker, 1957) who graduated from medical school between 1925 and 1940 showed that 49 per cent of the women worked full time, as estimated from the number of hours the woman physician practiced each year. Of the women M.D.'s, 33 per cent had spent some time in which they were not practicing medicine; whereas only 6 per cent of the men physicians made the same comment. But in general, the women

have not lost too much work time, since on the average women M.D.'s had been out of practice only 4.5 years since they had received their medical degrees. Their post-graduate performance does not warrant the quota which limits the admission of women to medical school to five per cent of the total enrollment. Indeed, foreign countries have far more women physicians, e.g. Russia fills 70 per cent of its physicians' jobs with women (Baumgartner, 1959).

Women who have earned a Ph.D. degree also have an extensive work history to exhibit. Bryn Mawr's 366 Ph.D.'s who replied to a questionnaire indicated that 95 per cent of them had been employed at some time (Bliss, 1954). Of those of working age, i.e., those who received their Ph.D.'s on or after 1910, 75 per cent were working. The majority of the women who were working (60%) were engaged in college teaching. Radcliffe College Ph.D.'s (1956) were also predominantly employed as college teachers.

Another study of women Ph.D.'s dates back to those 1,025 women who took their degrees between the years 1877 and 1924 (Hutchinson, 1929). Only one-fourth of these women were married. Those who completed approximately one-third of their Ph.D. work after marriage were more likely to continue to be gainfully employed than were those who married later. Barnard College alumnae also maintained long work records (Pines & Weinberger, 1958). Even scientists who were not employed at the time of the study had contributed a number of years of

work: an average of 6.5 years of work in science for those without a graduate degree; 7.8 years for those who held an M.S. degree and 10 years of work for women with Ph.D.'s or M.D.'s.

Area of concentration while at college apparently is also related to the probability of future employment. Havemann and West's (1952) study of American women college graduates indicated that for women over forty years of age, college major was closely related to long-term employment. Those still working represent the following proportion of all who majored in the following areas: 41 per cent of those in science, 36 per cent in business administration, 30 per cent in the humanities and 21 per cent of those who majored in home economics. Havemann and West state that some of these figures, especially those for the education majors, reflect the effects of spinsterhood. The Radcliffe Ph.D. study (1956) also indicated that employment rates are higher for science majors (social or natural science) than for those who received their doctorates in the humanities. Barnard College alumnae who majored in science are also somewhat more likely to be employed than other Barnard graduates (Pines & Weinberger, 1958). Evidence from the Barnard questionnaire study that was specifically directed towards alumnae who had worked toward or attained a graduate degree in science indicated that 51 per cent of the respondents were working at the time the study was conducted. Data collected

on all Barnard alumnae who graduated between 1893 and 1955 showed that 45 per cent of the respondents were employed full or part time and that of those working, half were combining work and marriage (Poverman, 1957).

In summary then, the work life expectancy of women college graduates is longer than for women of less education. If women attain degrees beyond the bachelor's they are still more likely to remain part of the work force. Since these women are considered to be reserve or active brainpower, they deserve continual study so that the factors which influence their labor force participation may be identified and better understood.

Possible Reasons for the Increase of Women Workers

An extensive history of working women would doubtlessly have to extend far back in time, beyond periods in which they began to be involved in paid employment. Prior to the Industrial Revolution a woman was chiefly an unpaid worker who provided the family unit with an endless number of services. She alone did the spinning and wove cloth, made clothing, prepared food and washed the laundry. With the advent of machinery, some women shifted their work place from the home to the factory. These very same changes may still be taking place, except that the present-day working women are more diverse in their characteristics such as their marital status, family backgrounds, educational level and the type of job they hold.

Smuts (1959) has written an excellent historical account of women's work life in America, highlighting their activities in the second half of the nineteenth century. At that time many women worked at home by taking in boarders, by sewing or as in a number of New York East Side homes, worked at home making cigars. Only a limited number of jobs were open to women and most of these were filled by lower class girls who worked in factories, or worked as laundresses or domestic servants. Teaching was the only profession that employed many women.

Introduction of Machines and Improvement of Work Conditions

One can even point to certain machines which through their development have opened whole job areas to women (Hooks, 1951). The telephone and the typewriter are examples of the machines that are today the basic work tools for close to two million women (Women's Bureau, 1958b). Clerical workers and telephone operators are almost exclusively women, making up nearly 95 per cent of all of the workers employed in the occupations (Women's Bureau, 1958b).

Through numerous forms of legislation, the work situation has become more appealing to women. The work place has become cleaner and more attractive as have the rest rooms. Better dining facilities have been added to work establishments and the length of the work day and work week have been drastically reduced. Considerations of work conditions and length of work day appears to be rather important

to women. Zweig (1952) found, for example, that women workers had no particular job preferences but that they were concerned about work conditions.

Availability of Jobs for Women

Also of great significance to potential working women is the fact that women now have more jobs and a broader spectrum of jobs open to them. Public policy in the form of legislation and government programs has affected the rate at which women are employed. It has been found, for example, that "the spread of compulsory education required more teachers, and public health programs, more nurses. Welfare programs, more and more developed on a State and National scale, have brought increased opportunities for social case workers and also have added greatly to the need for clerical and other services both by Federal and local governments" (Hooks, 1951, p. 9). During World War II, when the need for reserve manpower was great, the U.S. Employment Service issued a list of one thousand war occupations and seven hundred non-war occupations which were suitable for women (Shartle, 1952). That women are spreading out into a greater number of occupations is particularly apparent in the professions. In 1940, three-fourths of the women working in the professions were engaged in teaching and professional nursing (including student nursing); whereas in 1950 only two-thirds of the professional women were engaged in this type of work (Women's Bureau, 1958b). Recently a large number of women

have been drawn into the professional occupations of accounting, auditing and engineering. However, the authors of Womanpower (National Manpower Council, 1957) feel that the growth in the employment of women is more often accomplished through increased employment in occupations held by women and by the emergence of new women's occupations than through the entrance of women into exclusively masculine occupations.

Increase of Educational Level

Important to the employment of women is the fact that the education of women has been extended upward and that the educational level of their children has been extended downward (Wolfe, 1954). More women are recently obtaining a higher education than at previous times and also pre-school children are attending nursery schools in greater number. In 1957, 32 per cent of the women in the population over eighteen years of age had finished four years of high school while five per cent (compared with 9 per cent for men) had completed college.

Those women who already have their bachelor's degree from college, tend to receive additional education. A survey (Poverman, 1957) of Barnard College alumnae from classes of 1893 to 1955 indicates that two-thirds of those who replied to the questionnaire had gone on for additional education and that half of this group received advanced degrees. Of a representative sample of women college graduates studied six months after their graduation in June 1956, nine per cent were

attending school full time and another five per cent were employed and/or attending school part time (Women's Bureau, 1958a). Of those who were not attending school at the time, almost two-thirds had hopes of doing graduate work sometime in the future.

Though the number of women receiving Ph.D. degrees has been increasing through the years, the proportion of Ph.D. degrees given to women has fluctuated considerably, and recently has even decreased. The relative proportions of all doctorates that have been given to women since 1890 are as follows (National Manpower Council, 1957): 6 per cent between 1890 to 1900; 12 to 16 per cent between 1910 to 1940; 20 per cent at the close of World War II and 10 per cent since 1949.

That a high proportion of women received Ph.D.'s at the end of the second World War is easily accountable; the men of graduate school age were in the Armed Services. On the whole, however, women are not at present increasing their proportional representation among America's Ph.D.'s. This is a waste of talent, since an educated manpower reserve will be needed for enlistment into college teaching when the anticipated college boom occurs in the 1960's.

Great Demand for Workers

The tendency for women to want to work and the actual demand for workers has been a happy coincidence. The general trend ever since World War II has been for an expansion of

America's economy. This trend is expected to continue since estimates of population growth place the population estimate for 1965 at 193 million persons (Women's Bureau, 1958b). More goods and services will be needed and it is expected that about five million additional women workers and an equal number of men will be required to meet these demands (NEW YORK TIMES, 1959). There will be expanding opportunities for women in the teaching of science and mathematics, nursing, physical therapy, public health, medical research and social welfare. A study by the International Federation of University Women of the employment situation regarding women in 28 countries indicates that in nearly all countries there are new opportunities opening for women (Teltsch, 1959). For example, in Austria women are becoming specialists for electronic calculating machines; in Brazil they are working in petrography and in India meteorology is becoming an important field of work for them.

In the United States women can fill jobs in which they are critically needed if they choose to work in mathematics, statistics and the sciences (Women's Bureau, 1958b).

The need for women workers has been great during times in which consumption was high. But what happens in the time of a recession or depression? At such times does there exist a higher unemployment rate for women than for men? These questions were partially answered in the 1958 recession. In May 1958 the unemployment rate for women was 7.2 per cent

of the civilian labor force and 7.1 per cent for the men (NEW YORK TIMES, 1958). Women in most occupation groups, other than operatives, had about the same unemployment rates as did the men. However, there were few jobs in which men and women were in competition for employment. Operatives, of which two-thirds were women, had a high unemployment rate. Possibly the women were younger and had less seniority and consequently were the first to lose their jobs. The effects of a full-scale depression are hard to predict, but it does seem that women with less job experience and seniority might be the first to become unemployed, especially if they are in jobs in which they compete with men.

World War II doubtlessly contributed much to the changes in the employment of women. During the war many women entered the labor force quite unexpectedly and without preparation. The majority of them succeeded in helping the war effort, and in addition, helping to establish themselves in the world of work. Far more of them than anticipated continued to remain in the labor force after the war.

Factors Conducive to the Employment of Women

A. Urbanization

Migration toward the cities or the suburbs has brought women to places where jobs are available. Urbanization is accompanied by the choice of smaller dwelling units and often by the use of more services such as are offered by commercial laundries, and the manufacturers of prepared and

ready-to-serve foods. Labor-saving household gadgets have perhaps released women from many household chores and thus provided them with extra hours which can be used for other activities such as volunteer work or paid employment.

B. Family Size

The long range twentieth century trend toward smaller families has been considered to favor the employment of women. As has been earlier discussed, there seems to be an inverse relationship between the employment of women and the size of their families. The effects of the recent increase in the birth rate upon the employment of mothers can as yet not be adequately assessed. Ordinarily one might expect that these women who bear relatively larger families will not be as likely to work as mothers with small families. However, since they are in general bearing their children at an earlier age, their family responsibilities will be dwindling when they are in their 30's or early 40's. Muts (1959) has also suggested that women with many children will be attracted to the labor force mainly because large family maintenance costs are high.

It is not easy to chronicle the changes in the attitudes that husbands have taken towards their wives' desire to work. But changes have been taking place in their attitudes, as can be inferred from the increasing number of married women who are working. It appears that the time has come when a work-

ing wife is not considered as much of a reflection on her husband's ability to support his family as it once was (Garfinkle, 1950).

C. Financial Motivation

The need for an income to meet daily expenses or raise the family standard of living has apparently influenced many women to enter the labor force. The implications of the inverse relationship between husbands' salary and wives' paid employment have already been discussed. That women whose husband's salaries are in the lower income brackets work, substantiates the notion that daily or essential financial needs are closely related to labor force participation. The women whose husbands have had low salaries have been over the years the ones who were most likely to work to "make ends meet." But perhaps some changes have been occurring in the lower middle classes in which women have been working with the intention of earning money for "extras" or luxury items. These distinctions are difficult to make since one man's luxury may be another's necessity.

The authors of Womanpower (National Manpower Council, 1957) claim that the wish to raise one's standard of living is a distinguishing feature of woman's employment. They write that (p. 22) "where the family could live in modest comfort upon the husband's earnings, the wife's willingness to take a job, even when it imposes heavy demands upon her

time and energy, is nourished by a desire to assure a better life for herself and for her family." Participants in a conference on Womanpower (National Manpower Council, 1958) realized that young couples can more nearly approximate their future peak income level by having two salaries during their first years of marriage.

Families in which both husband and wife work earn more money annually than do those in which only the husband works. In 1952, for example, (Women's Bureau, 1953) only one-fourth of the families in which the wife was not working had an income over \$5,000 while nearly half of the families with husband and wife working achieved this income level.

When women are asked to describe their reasons for working, money and the many ways in which it can be spent are most often mentioned. A 1950 study of 8,300 women from six trade unions showed the financial needs of women workers (Women's Bureau, 1952). Of these women two-thirds spent their earnings for their own support or the support of others. In five unions, nine out of ten women said they were working to support themselves. The majority of women (from half to nearly two-thirds) were supporting at least one other person either partly or fully. Of women living with their families, 14 to 20 per cent were the only wage earners in their family. These statistics lead one to believe that these women who belong to unions worked to meet the expenses

of day-to-day living. But some women also stated that they were working for other reasons: to buy a home; to educate their children or to pay medical bills.

D. Non-monetary Work Motivation

Myrdal and Klein (1956) mention a 1950 study of 12,708 families of York, England, made by Rowntree and Lavers. In 10 per cent of these households, the wives were employed full or part time. These were the reasons they gave for working: 35 per cent said 'to make ends meet'; 27 per cent indicated they wished to have luxuries; 21 per cent said they wanted the pleasure of meeting people instead of being cooped up in the house; 13 per cent wished to buy furniture; 2 per cent wished to pay for their children's education; and 1.5 per cent, many of whom were nurses, indicated that they felt a 'sense of duty'. Many of the women frankly indicated that they wanted a higher standard of living and were prepared to work to obtain it.

Zweig (1952) conducted 445 interviews in England in an attempt to study "women's life and labour." He was impressed with the extent to which women working in industry stressed their need for independence as it can be satisfied through employment. The greatest satisfaction that these working women experienced came from the "extras" which their salaries provided. Zweig estimated that no more than one in three was under pressure to meet the basic economic needs and that

the others worked to earn the "extras." So important appeared the allotment of household money that he suggested that a thorough study of family spending might provide worthwhile information about family relationships.

More of the same information is found in Jefferys' (1952) study of 234 married women employed in the higher grades of British Civil Service and government sponsored research organizations. As a group these women did not show a single main reason for working. Somewhat more than one out of five were working to provide their families with the main or sole source of income, but as is found in most studies, many additional reasons were given. Considerations other than financial ones stated frequently were: interest in their work or "failure to secure satisfaction from unrelieved domesticity." Financial considerations were given in most cases as either primary or secondary reasons for working. It seems likely that working women all over the world if queried, would express some kind of a financial reason for working.

As little information as there is about the financial motives of women workers, there is far less known about the non-monetary work values. The authors of Womanpower (National Manpower Council, 1957) have compiled a list of possible motives other than economic that draw women into the work force:

Wish to realize potentialities; need for adult companionship; need for personal independence; find homemaking dull and unrewarding; not making fruitful use of free time though involved in community activities; had careers interrupted by marriage and family; feel need for teachers and nurses in the community; fear empty lives when children are grown.

The participants of the 1957 Conference on Womanpower added the following reasons (National Manpower Council, 1958):

Have problems at home with parents, husband, in-laws; experience boredom or loneliness; effects of changes in household technology; wish for self-fulfillment (recognition, status, sense of achievement); sheer interest in the work itself and dedication to a vocation; feelings of patriotism.

A full understanding of the reasons that women have for working requires intensive research. It is hoped that the present study will reveal some relevant work values that differentiate working women from full-time homemakers.

Problems and Conditions Associated with Women's Work

Women's progress in the world of work and in her life in general has been in the direction of greater opportunity, responsibility and independence. Young (1947) finds that the history of women's progress can almost be traced by the publications of the American Academy of Political and Social Science. For example, the 1914 publication "Women in Public Life," edited by James P. Lichtenberger, described the "intensified social consciousness and social ferment" that was

present. The sense of "impending change" that is said to have been present anticipated the Nineteenth Amendment which granted women the franchise in 1920. The transitional stage in women's attainment of their present responsibilities and roles was described in 1929 when Viva B. Boothe edited the publication, "Women in the Modern World." In this issue the "new woman" with her "new interests, new responsibilities and new way of doing things" was described. Louise M. Young the editor of the 1947 issue, stated that the postwar volume described the profound social changes that had been taking place. This most recent publication appeared at a time when a large number of women showed their interest in employment by continuing to work during postwar times when they were no longer urgently needed. The 1947 work was rightfully named "Women's Opportunities and Responsibilities" since their opportunities had multiplied during the intervening years since the 1929 publication.

Prestige of Domestic Role

The traditional "Kinder, Kirche, Küche" roles assigned to women have been extended throughout this century. Florence Kluckhohn, for example, found Talcott Parson's descriptions of female roles useful in discussing women's dilemma (Bryson, 1953). Women's "domestic" role covers their activities as wives, mothers, and housewives. Women may also act as

"culture bearers" for their families or can be "glamour girls." And their fourth possible role involves "careers." Even with women's improved chances of employment and other activities, F. Kluckhohn feels that women's domestic role is still greatly in conflict with the American values of action and accomplishment and receives little prestige and recognition. Perhaps this accounts for the increasing interest that married women show in work outside the home.

Lower Salary and Less Advancement

In general, women receive a smaller annual income for full-time work than do men. This is often a reflection of the type of job they hold, their education and their training (Women's Bureau, 1958b). But there still are instances in which women working at the same kind of work as men receive less pay than do men. Efforts to eliminate such inequalities have been made through legislation, collective bargaining and public education (Women's Bureau, 1958b).

Proportionally fewer women are found in higher-level positions within an occupation than in the entire occupation (Women's Bureau, 1958b). This even holds for traditional occupations for women, such as library work, in which men hold a larger proportion of the administrative positions. The authors of Womanpower (National Manpower Council, 1957) attribute this absence of women in higher level positions to:

restrictions on account of conventional attitudes; the fact that women are limited in training for higher positions and are reluctant to be trained; women lack seniority, experience and skill; they accept entry jobs which do not lead to advancement.

Clustering of Women's Occupations

A distinctive characteristic of women's occupations is their concentration in just a few of the many existing occupational groups. In 1958, three-fifths of all the working women were employed as clerical workers, operatives, or service workers (Women's Bureau, 1958b). The fourth largest group were the professionals and they were followed in size by those employed in private-household work, sales and management work.

The areas in which women receive college degrees also reflects the tendency of women to remain in a few traditional occupational groups (National Manpower Council, 1957). It was found that one-half of all the bachelor's level and first professional degrees given to women were in education, nursing, library science and home economics. At the master's level four-fifths of the degrees went to women in the fields of education, English, home economics, nursing and fine arts, and 30 per cent of the doctorates awarded to women were in education.

Myrdal and Klein (1956) have observed an international trend for women to enter fields of work which do not fall into the category of "women's jobs ." The survey of the International Federation of University Women (Teltsch, 1959) has brought forth evidence in agreement with Myrdal and Klein's observations. However, in the United States, Lynn White, former President of Mills College, suggested educating women along more feminine lines by offering them courses in food and nutrition, textiles and clothing, health and nursing, house planning and interior decoration, garden design, applied botany and child development.

Women's Work Pattern

Worthy of additional comment is the fact that women in contrast to men have an unusual work life pattern. While men are nearly always employed after they have completed their formal education, women tend to slip in and out of the labor market as their marital status and their roles as mothers change. The proportion of women in the labor market varies according to whether they are single women, married, divorced or widowed. It has been found too that their participation is closely related to the presence or absence of children, their age and their number.

For all but a small proportion of women who work throughout their whole lives, labor force participation is greatly determined by the events in their personal lives. Zweig

(1952, p. 23) after analyzing the results of 445 interviews of British women and their supervisors, came to the conclusion "that the facts of life and situations (of potential working women) come first and the attitudes are simply ways of adjustment and adaptation." It seems that many working women are employed because of the exigencies of life and not because paid employment has been part of their long range plans.

Gruenberg and Kretch (1952, p. 37) as judges for a contest held by a magazine which is read by women with less than average education, noted that the work plans and the marriage plans of the women who responded to the contest "had nothing to do with one another, allowed no room for one another, were in fact totally inconsistent with one another." Lloyd-Jones (National Manpower Council, 1958) added further evidence by citing the dissertation research of one of her students. A national sample of college girls, eighteen and nineteen years of age anticipated marriage before or after graduation from college and planned on having several children. They gave no thought to the future years when they will be forty, fifty or sixty years of age.

Empey (1958, p. 155) in his investigation of the plans of nearly two thousand high school seniors and 403 college freshmen, of which approximately half were girls, contributed the additional notion that "the planning of these young women was

not directed towards choosing marriage without thought of a career so much as it was in finding some traditional female occupation which would provide them with a career if the career, although a second choice, became a necessity."

These women though not too much further along in their planning for their later years than those mentioned by Lloyd-Jones, at least have some plans involving possible "emergency" vocations.

Need for Education and Job Experience

Education and its concomitant preparation for work, especially in the professions, is assuming increasing importance for women who anticipate working. Education is the key to many higher level jobs and to a higher salary (Women's Bureau, 1958b). Advanced degrees beyond the bachelor's level prove especially helpful in some occupations. One of Hutchinson's (1929) respondents to a survey of women Ph.D.'s who received their degrees before 1924 summarized one of the particular values of advanced education. She, a recipient of a Ph.D. degree in physiology, stated that "for the woman with academic interests who also has assumed family responsibilities the Ph.D. is an excellent device. It enables her in a way to bottle her resources and keep them in cold storage over a quiescent period. Perhaps I am assuming too much influence for the Ph.D. as a recommendation. But I think that reinforced by adaptability, zeal

and a reasonable contact with the progress of one's subject, it is a unique asset in counterbalancing a span of years without active professional work, since it represents a certain guarantee for sustained interest in a field which is also supported by an adequate background" (Hutchinson, 1929, p. 116). And as mentioned before, women with more education, are more likely to be drawn back into the work force when the time seems appropriate.

Besides education, job experience is of considerable importance to women who wish to work. Not only is it of value in finding a position, but it also seems to relate to whether or not women will return to the labor market. In a study of manpower resources in Columbus, Ohio, Kelley (1951) found that those women without job experience were not likely to consider themselves available for employment at the time of the study as were the others.

Bias Against Women Workers

A comparative survey of male and female Ph.D.'s in psychology highlighted additional problems that women in the professions face (Bryan & Boring, 1947). The respondents clearly indicated that men were favored over women in their professional development. Most of the men (81%) felt that it was easier to obtain the work they desired because they were men; only nine per cent of the women felt this advantage because they were women. Of the men, 70 per cent felt that

being a member of the male sex increased their earning capacity; a mere eight-tenths per cent of the women thought that their income was increased because they were women. The majority of men (63%) stated that it was easier to perform professional duties as men; whereas only 10 per cent of the women felt that because they were women they could perform these duties better. Nearly half of the men (48%) replied that being a male facilitated promotion and only one per cent of the women could say this for being a woman.

The Effect of Marriage on the Work Life and Personal Life of Women

It is no longer true that most working women are spinsters; thus the effect of marriage on women's work life and personal life becomes of considerable importance. This aspect of work behavior is still relatively unexplored and much can be done to obtain an adequate understanding of problem areas.

In general marriage and motherhood prove occupationally disadvantageous to the working woman. Evidence of this comes from Bryan and Boring's (1947) survey of members of the American Psychological Association. While three-fourths of the men who responded to the study said that marriage was a professional asset, only one-half of the women made this claim. Another fourth of the women went on to say that marriage made a career more difficult. The rearing of children interfered more with a woman's career than does a childless mar-

riage. Of the married women, 25 per cent reported their children to be a professional asset and 60 per cent considered them to be a liability, professionally. More men (40%) considered their children an asset in their work and far fewer reported them as being a liability than did the women (5%).

A. Attitude of Husband

That married women who work need the approval of their husband is self-evident. What is less clear is the understanding of the dynamics of the husband-wife relationship in families in which the wife works. What effect does the wife's work have upon her husband's self concept? How is her financial contribution assimilated into the family budget? How much more time does the husband whose wife works contribute to housework?

Hoffman's dissertation (described in Stolz, Siegel & Adamson, 1958) touched upon these topics. In her study of families with children in the Detroit elementary schools, she carefully matched the backgrounds of two groups of 89 families chosen on the basis of whether or not the mothers had been employed within a one to two month period. Her results showed that in families in which the mother was employed full time, the father participated significantly more in household tasks. As far as "area control" went, i.e., control over an area of activity regardless of importance, working women had less area control and their husbands more area control than in families in which the wife

was not working. "Parental control" or control over important aspects of the behavior of others, was not significantly related to maternal employment. Bryan and Boring (1947) found that among psychologists half of the married women and one-third of the married men studied reported that their spouses enthusiastically supported their professional work. Since the proportion is higher for women, it might be suspected that spouse approval is related to their presence in the labor market and that women psychologists with less enthusiastic support of their husbands might not be employed at all.

Men's endorsement of the working activities of married women is certainly not unanimous. It is suspected that approval is more likely to come from men in the upper socio-economic groups (National Manpower Council, 1957). Evidence from a 1957 poll conducted by Purdue University and mentioned at the Arden House Conference of Womanpower (National Manpower Council, 1958) supports the notion that the male's attitude toward working women varies with age and education at the high school level. Of the representative sample of high school students from grades 10, 11, and 12, one-fourth of the boys think that married women should not work at all. But the proportion of the boys with this attitude decreased as the grade level increased. Data extending through the graduate and professional school level would be of considerable worth.

B. Effect upon Marital Success

In regards to this incompletely studied area, Reuben Hill (quoted in Applebaum, 1956, p. 13) stated that "consensus of the research to date is that gainful employment of the wife is not a significant factor either in marriage success or marriage failure. It is a peg on which conflict can be hung, a socially approved area in which to disagree, as are religion, child-bearing practices, money matters, in-laws and other areas of conflict."

Locke and Mackeprang (1949) have attempted to study this problem by obtaining information from a college-educated sample of husbands and wives from metropolitan Los Angeles. Forty-one employed wives and their husbands were matched with 51 couples in which the wives were homemakers only, on the basis of college or professional training of wife, residence in Los Angeles and full-time employment or homemaking. Both groups of husbands and wives were matched for age, education, length of time married and for husband's income level. Uncontrolled were the long term aspects of employment or work as a homemaker, number of children in the families, the sociability of the couples and the presence of in-laws. With marital adjustment measured by combining items from the scales of Burgess and Cottrell, Terman and Locke, it was found that the couples with a working wife were not significantly different in their scores from those with homemaker wives.

C. Effect upon Behavior of Children

The relationship between the employment of mothers and the behavior of their children is of utmost social significance, but has received little attention from research workers. Stolz, Siegel and Adamson (1958) have written an annotated bibliography of works relating to the children of working mothers. Only 16 studies were found in Child Development Abstracts and several journals covering the years between 1932 and 1957, and only a few of these throw light on the actual problem.

As in many complex research areas, it is difficult to draw conclusions since appropriate controls are often lacking. Very often research workers have not controlled for socio-economic differences, differences in the emotional stability of parents and for the length of time that mothers were employed. Because of these difficulties it is only fair to add that at present there is no clear-cut answer to the question, "How are children affected by the situations which arise from their mothers' employment outside the home?"

In 1944, Netta Glass (1949) made a study of British children with and without working mothers. The 84 children involved were between the ages of 20 months and five years. Of the children studied, 48 lived in a day nursery and 48 remained at home with their mothers. All but 12 children belonged to the working class, and these 12 were estimated to belong to the middle class. No differences were evident

in the number of eating difficulties that appeared in both groups (21 in the nursery group and 22 in the home group). Among those with elimination problems eight were in the nursery group and six were in the group that stayed with their mothers. There were a greater number of sleep difficulties in the nursery group (18 in number) than in the home group, in which there were 11. When these three types of behavioral difficulties were added together it appeared that 47 difficulties were found in the nursery group and 39 difficulties in the home group. But when the problems were analyzed according to the number of children with difficulties it was found that 33 children were in the nursery school and 29 children were in the group that remained at home. From these data it appears that children who have been placed in nursery schools have at least a few more problems than do those who stay home, but additional evidence does not support this conclusion. The author found that more of the nursery school children came from homes in which adverse conditions existed than did those who stayed at home. The nursery school children were affected by the following home conditions: low standards of child care; unsatisfactory discipline; marital discord and the unusual personality and attitudes of the mother. Furthermore, 33 of the nursery school children were separated from their fathers who were presumably in the Armed Services; whereas only 14 fathers from the home group were absent. The author felt that there were

greater differences between the children from satisfactory homes and those who came from unsatisfactory homes than there were between those who attended the day nursery and those who stayed in their own homes.

Essig and Morgan (1946) studied the adjustment of girls in 9th and 10th grade home economic courses and related their adjustment level to their mothers' participation in the labor force. The experimental group was made up of 151 girls whose mothers worked while the control group had in it an equal number of girls whose mothers were full-time homemakers. Among those 163 cases which were eliminated from the study were girls whose mothers worked intermittently, girls who came from broken homes and girls with incomplete records. By analyzing the girls' responses to the Leland Stott "Home Life" scale, it was found that the experimental group, in general, was more poorly adjusted to family life. Though statistical tests of significance were not given, the authors concluded that the experimental group showed a greater feeling of lack of (1) love, (2) cooperation, (3) appreciation, (4) understanding and (5) interest between parents and their children. In the experimental group there was also a tendency for parents to dominate their daughters; many girls in this group were reticent and almost deceptive about the events in their personal lives.

Maccoby (National Manpower Council, 1958) has voiced several criticisms of the above study, pointing out that the absence of two controls, limits the validity of the authors'

conclusions. Neither the socioeconomic levels of the girls nor the emotional stability of fathers were taken into account in this study. Both of these factors might affect the adolescent girls' evaluation of their home life more than does the employment of their mothers.

Nye's unpublished investigation (described in Stols, Siegel, & Adamsen, 1958) of a sample of adolescents (grades nine to twelve) evaluated the effects of maternal employment. He found that there were five background factors that significantly differentiated the employed from the non-employed mothers. Employed mothers were likely to come from families for whom the following characteristics hold: low socioeconomic status as measured by the prestige of the husband's occupation; small number of children; high educational level of the mother; urban residence; broken marriage. When the background characteristics were controlled by sub-sampling, it was found that delinquent behavior as measured by a Guttman-type scale, occurred more often among the children of working mothers than among children whose mothers were not employed. No relationship was found between the employment of mothers and the following characteristics of their children: educational competence; neurotic tendencies; acceptance of their mothers.

Hand (1957) has also investigated the relationship between the adjustment of children and the employment of their mothers. With the aid of the California Test of Per-

sonality and the ratings of teachers and classmates, he classified 102 elementary school children into two categories: a well-adjusted group and a maladjusted group. No significant differences were found in the adjustment of children whose mothers worked and adjustment of those whose mothers were full-time homemakers. However, Stolz et al. (1958) have noted that the author failed to explain how the sample was selected; Hand ascertained maternal employment only by asking the children whether their mothers had jobs at the time of the study.

The most adequately controlled investigation of the effects of maternal employment on the behavior of children was conducted as part of Glueck and Glueck's (1957) well-known study of five hundred delinquents. These delinquents were matched with five hundred non-delinquents on the basis of general intelligence, ethnico-racial derivation, age and residence in culturally and economically underprivileged urban areas. With economic level held constant, more accurate conclusions could be drawn about the effects of maternal employment in low grade jobs on the behavior of offspring. A striking finding is that a significantly higher proportion of delinquents was found in families in which the mother was employed irregularly and not found for those in which mothers were employed regularly. Delinquents whose mothers were employed irregularly had significantly more emotional conflicts than those whose mothers were full-time workers. Many of the

occasionally employed mothers had histories of delinquency themselves and were married to emotionally disturbed men with poor work habits. The Gluecks suggested that these irregular workers were different from regular ones and perhaps wished to escape household routines and maternal responsibility.

Even among non-delinquents whose mothers worked occasionally there was greater hostility (measured by Rorschach test) than among those with mothers employed full-time and least among those with mothers who were full-time homemakers. Another finding of social significance is that working mothers, whether or not their children were delinquent, did not provide as adequate supervision of their children as did the mothers who were homemakers.

It then seems that in these lower class homes occasional maternal employment is associated with delinquency. It is unfortunate that intermittent employment was not studied by Essig and Morgan in their project on the adjustment of adolescent girls. The cases in which the mothers were intermittently employed were deliberately eliminated from their analyses.

Four of the five studies just discussed provide some evidence that the children of working mothers suffer some ill effects. The conclusion of the fifth study was that no significant differences in adjustment were found between

groups in which mothers were employed and those in which they were not. Since inadequate controls were used in the majority of these studies, it is impossible to make any conclusive statements about the effects of maternal employment on children's behavior. Considerably more research is needed at various socioeconomic levels taking into account the adequacy of non-maternal supervision, the emotional stability of the parents and the marital success of the parents. Longitudinal studies are necessary for the proper assessment of the effects of maternal employment on stages of children's development.

D. Need for Part-time Work

As a result of the large proportion of married women working or wishing to work, there has arisen a need for part-time jobs. During April 1958 a large number of women, about 30 per cent of those employed in nonagricultural industries, were working part time or less than 35 hours per week (Women's Bureau, 1958b). It is unfortunate, however, that many of the part-time jobs require unskilled labor and that the managerial, clerical and professional occupations have relatively few women working part time.

Hansl (1949) sees part-time work as a means of maintaining vocational continuity for women who temporarily have heavy domestic duties because of the presence of small children. She lists the many possible advantages that part-time rather than full-time employment holds for women: more time for family; less fatigue; less repetition and monotony of

housework; association with co-workers offsetting isolation of domestic life; use of education, training, work experience; vocational continuity between full-time jobs; maintenance of professional ratings and ego satisfactions. On the other hand the disadvantages are: her earnings might not cover her replacement (housekeeper and mother substitutes); fatigue might result from working in rush hours without rest pauses; part-time workers might not be identified with the group as much as full-time workers; work might be just another kind of routine; earnings might not cover job costs (clothes, taxes, lunches) and the job might not provide vacations, bonuses and benefits. An additional disadvantage might be felt by the employer since more administrative work is required in coordinating the activities of the part-time workers.

In response to a questionnaire survey, part-time workers (nurses, social workers, teachers, clerical workers, saleswomen, and service workers in hotels) gave for working reasons similar to those that Hansl noted (Women's Bureau, 1951). They included the wish: to supplement income; to have outside activities and contacts other than social; to use skills, training or experience; to help educate children or to meet other particular family expenses; to further an interest in a particular job or field of work.

There is some evidence that part-time workers, though they may be older than those in full-time work, do satis-

factory work. Gadel's (1953) study of 301 part-time women clerical workers who ranged in age from twenty-three to sixty-five (average forty-one years) provides positive evidence. she found that these women who worked from 20 to 35 hours a week performed their jobs as satisfactorily as younger full-time workers on the same job. Their work performance was assessed by means of supervisors' ratings, comparative ranks and production records. In addition they showed high job satisfaction and lower turnover rates. More research of this nature would be valuable in aiding women to return to their various occupations after a period of voluntary unemployment.

Theories and Viewpoints About Women and Their Work

Numerous published works have recently examined the conflicts which beset modern women. The authors, according to their particular viewpoints, arrive at diverse conclusions as to the nature of women's problems and the adequacy with which they solve them. The conclusions range from statements indicating that their roles in society are undergoing revision and reassessment to pronouncements that women are neurotic and "lost" or that they are "superior" to members of the male sex. Women and their contributions to society are clearly a major focal point of written discourse. Much of this literary attention stems from women's mass entry into paid employment. It is therefore fitting to add to this discussion of working women some ideas about their place in

society.

Ecclectic Approach

Myrdal and Klein (1966) recognize the trend for many women to combine family life with employment. No longer does there exist the question of whether women are mentally and physically capable of employment; rather the question is should they as individuals combine homemaking and employment. Myrdal and Klein's approach is one of highlighting the problems and compromises that are likely to confront working wives and mothers. They stress, for example, the need for women to plan ahead for middle age employment and do not consider it unreasonable for women to hold jobs that are traditionally described as masculine. They argue that if women are to be employed, the care of the home should be the joint responsibility of men and women, with possible arrangements made by building houses with space for communal cooking.

Komarovsky (1946; 1953) has made readers aware of the cultural contradictions in the definition of women's roles. Parents often expect their college educated daughters to play contradictory roles. For example, one of Komarovsky's students said that her family expected her to become "Eve Curie and Hedy Lamarr wrapped up in one."

Komarovsky does not follow the psychiatric or psychoanalytic school of thought. She reports, for example, that

"the identification of career interests with neurotic tendencies is, therefore, open to grave doubt. Today women pursue professions for the same mixture of vanity, curiosity, desire for service or for prestige, instinct of workmanship, and so on, which in addition to economic drives also motivate men" (1953, p. 45). She does not attribute an increase in women's frustrations or maladjustment to the rise in the proportion of working women. For she claims that "one can go so far as to say that whatever the woman does, whether she is single or married, a homemaker or a career woman, childless or a mother -- each design for living has its own pattern of frustrations" (1953, p. 49). She sees the new-style feminists, representing only about 20 per cent of the college women she observed, as women who expect their husbands to be sympathetic towards their aspirations. These college women did not revolt against homemaking duties; instead they exhibited a positive interest in some field and a desire to achieve in their chosen line of work.

Neo-antifeminism

Komarovsky (1953; Women's Bureau, 1955) coined the term "neo-antifeminism" as descriptive of a current trend. She reports that "because of the strains and tensions brought about by social changes in the status of women, which have disturbed the old equilibrium without as yet creating a new one, many find themselves nostalgic about the past and think

the solution will be to return to our rigid former definition of what the woman's and the man's role in society is" (1955, p. 79).

Foster and Wilson (1942) and Lynn White (1950) suggest that women's duties as homemakers and mothers be given greater meaning through emphasis of their higher education, thus offsetting the low status assigned to their traditional roles. Foster and Wilson arrived at this conclusion after studying the problems mentioned by a large number of college alumnae interviewed as volunteers or clients at an adult guidance service at the Merrill-Palmer School in Detroit. It was found that 82 per cent of the women reported a dislike for household tasks, lack of skill in dealing with them and difficulties in handling household help. The authors felt that women's education should be concerned with the development of competence in handling problems in the home and problems of a personal and economic nature. By stressing the need for education easing the transition from school to the home, the authors wished to de-emphasize purely vocational education.

White's argument can be summarized in a much quoted statement from his book. A young mother who wrote him stated, "I have come to realize that I was educated to be a successful man and now must learn by myself how to be a successful woman" (1950, p. 18). Though White did not set out to completely eliminate career preparation, he suggested that women

be educated along feminine lines which centered around the family institution and its well-being and dealing with food, beauty, warmth, shelter and security. Capitalizing on the feminine abilities of "conserving and cherishing" he suggested that some fields of work such as sociology, anthropology and psychology are especially appropriate for women. By doing so he was furthering an emphasis on the ability difference between men and women. But husbands will hardly disagree with White when he suggests, "Why not study the theory and preparation of Basque paella, of a well-marinated shish kabob, lamb kidneys sautéed in sherry, and authoritative curry, the use of herbs, even such simple sophistications as serving cold artichokes with fresh milk. A girl majoring in history or chemistry could well find time for one such course which, we may be sure, would do much to enliven her own life and that of her family and friends in later years" (1950, p. 78).

Psychoanalytical Approach

Komarovsky (1953) believes that the major intellectual source of neo-antifeminism can be traced to psychoanalytical theories. Lundberg and Farnham (1947) have stated that many of the problems of women and of society can be related to women's rejection of their "basic instinctual strivings" which relate to sexual activities and motherhood.

Lundberg and Farnham (1947, p. 22) described how the

"details of social change have affected the details of the life of the contemporary individual ...", and they came to the conclusion that this era is an unhappy one. The unhappiness is broadly expressed in the hatred, hostility and violences which have been evident in such movements as socialism, Communism, feminism and anti-Semitism. Unhappiness may also be inferred from "the long-term increase in juvenile delinquency, divorce, homicide, general crime, 'white collar' crime and alcoholism, the rise of aberrant movements in all the modern arts, and the sharp decline in the birth rate" (p, 36). They feel that the most precise expression of unhappiness is in neurosis, the basis of which is laid in the childhood home, and of which women are the prime creators. They add that with the devaluation of the importance of the home and children by society, "women's inner balance was disastrously upset" (p. 118).

Lundberg and Farnham believe that the pursuit of a career which involves both work and prestige goals is essentially masculine in nature. They find that though a small number of women adjust to their homemaker-career roles well, a large number of women find themselves faced with many frustrations as a result of this dual role. However, Lundberg and Farnham do not bar women entirely from career activities, suggesting that a "...step toward re-establishing the home on a sound emotional basis would involve public recognition

of the fact that the psychically balanced woman finds greatest satisfaction for her ego in nurturing activities. Teaching, nursing, doctoring, social work, guidance, catering, decorating, play direction, furnishing, are all entirely feminine nurturing functions, and there are many others. There is almost unlimited room for expansion in some of these fields -- for instance, social service work. In psychiatry, this work needs to be greatly expanded" (1947, p. 366).

They are in general agreement with Margaret Mead (1949) and Lynn White (1950) in suggesting that certain types of work are especially appropriate to women. Lundberg and Farnham (1947) approve of work in the social sciences (psychology, sociology, anthropology) and pedagogy and do not entirely discourage women from working in the physical sciences or business occupations (law, mathematics, physics, business, industry, and technology).

Deutsch (1944) sees femininity closely associated with passivity and masochism. She claims that "the fundamental identities 'feminine-passive' and 'masculine-active' assert themselves in all known cultures and races..." (p. 225). Both masochism and passivity, she claims, are "the outcome of the feminine constitution and of a mechanism of instinctual reversion related to it that turns energies directed toward the outer world inward ..." (p. 239).

Deutsch states that penis envy is not a primary factor,

but is of secondary importance in influencing the development of woman's personality. She believes that "a full understanding of woman's passivity can be obtained only from an investigation of the development of her sexual instincts and her ego" (p. 226). She studies passivity also as it is determined by woman's anatomy.

She finds that when a woman renounces aggression for love, "the aggressive forces that are not actively spent must find an outlet, and they do this by endowing the passive state of being loved with a masochistic character" (p. 251).

By no means are all active and aggressive forces lacking from the "feminine" personality. These forces are generally harmoniously integrated into the personality structure. The so-called "masculinity complex" makes its appearance only when the active-aggressive forces come into conflict with the feminine core of personality. This complex occurs when women are unsuccessful in dealing with and remedying their dissatisfaction with their passivity.

The "masculinity complex" often successfully sublimated, manifests itself at times in the affective life of women and in feminine phases of their lives such as childbirth. The intellectual woman, she observes "... is masculinized; in her, warm intuitive knowledge has yielded to cold unproductive thinking" (p. 291).

Sociological Approach: Masculine-Feminine Identification

A clearer understanding of the nature of sex roles emerges from studies of sex identification in America or from the findings of cross-cultural studies. Shifts in sex roles of American men and women are currently taking place and the entrance of large number of women into the labor force is a reflection of only one of the prevalent changes.

Lynn (1959) has summarized the findings of numerous studies in relationship to hypotheses about sex identification in America. He found data to support the hypothesis that a higher proportion of women than men adopt aspects of the role of the opposite sex. Even more important was his finding that data supported the hypothesis that a larger proportion of women than men show preference for the role of the opposite sex. Studies showed that less than five per cent of the adult males and as many as 31 per cent of the adult females consciously recalled having had a desire to be of the opposite sex. Doubtlessly these preferences reflect the high status that the masculine role holds in this society.

Margaret Mead's (1949; Seagoe, 1950) insightful observations of the American society and of primitive cultures contribute much to the understanding of masculine-feminine role identifications. She reports that young girls see their future roles clearly defined as similar to their mothers', thus recognizing in a simple way their potential motherhood.

Boys on the other hand, are unsure of their own roles because their mothers, with whom they spend much of their time, cannot act as prototypes for their adult behavior. Margaret Mead feels that boys begin seeking achievement as a means of reassurance after they recognize that they are different from their mothers. But she also recognizes that a biological regularity, the lactation of mothers, is fast being replaced by mechanical bottle feeding, making it possible for fathers and brothers to perform this act once restricted only to women.

Mead (Seagoe, 1950) notes that many variations in male and female responsibility have taken place in the history of the division of labor. When sheer physical strength is not involved she sees no particular advantage in assigning males or females to certain tasks, and she thinks that when certain complex activities are limited to one sex, valuable qualities are lost.

Mead (1949) recognizes that in every known society, though division of labor varies, young males provide food for some particular woman and her children. Though this is a common pattern all over the world, it is not "deeply" biological and is subject to modification.

Though basic changes have occurred in the roles of men and women, she believes that lost forms of behavior have always been re-established. For example, while Soviet Russia

once de-emphasized the child-bearing character of women, it soon returned to an insistence on the usual family pattern.

From Margaret Mead one gets the impression that is natural for anxiety to be experienced during periods in which changes in role identification are taking place; but she also thinks that conflicts will disappear as the new roles are more clearly defined. Her viewpoint on the changes in sex roles is far more optimistic than that of Deutsch (1944) or Lundberg and Farnham (1947) who feel that deviations from women's feminine role necessarily produce deleterious effects.

Johnson (1955) tested a theoretical formulation of Talcott Parsons in her study of two hundred women at Women's College of the University of North Carolina. The theoretical formulation dealt with "traits, attitudes, characteristics and functions" which may be called masculine or feminine and may be classified along the Instrumental-Expressive dimension. In order to measure this dimension she had the women rate themselves on a Guttman Scale which consisted of questions presenting conflicts between Instrumental and Expressive action. In defining the dimensions of this scale she describes Instrumental action as "action oriented to a cognitive definition of the situation, involving assessment in terms of cognitive standards such as "scientific truth" or "efficiency" ... The actor ... attempts to produce changes in cognitive aspects of the situation. Expressive action, on the other

hand, is oriented to an emotional or cathectic meaning of the situation, involving assessment in terms of "appreciative" standards such as "pleasing", "beautiful" (1955, p. 13). The women's scores on this scale were significantly related to their work motivation. The women high on the Instrumental component showed a high desire to work; whereas those high on the Expressive component were chiefly interested in home-making. "Expressive" women, if they wanted to work at all, chose occupations such as the teaching of small children or private secretarial work. "Instrumental" women wanted to be teachers at an advanced level, social welfare workers or technicians of various sorts.

Montagu (1953), in contrast to Lundberg and Farnham (1947), points out to the reader the many superiorities of women. Men, he notes, are afflicted with many more diseases and handicaps than are women. Men have unusual diseases that women never have; men have a higher mortality rate starting from fertilization; more boys have behavior problems than girls. There are more men in mental institutions and more men who are alcoholics. Women, on the other hand, recover faster from illnesses, and women drivers have fewer accidents than men.

Montagu observes that women, though superior in so many ways have not achieved a great deal. He explains this by noting that: (1) historically, most fields of achievement

have been closed to women; (2) when admitted to fields of work women were not permitted to have equal footing with men; (3) after admission into certain fields of work, they were not encouraged to excel, were actively discouraged or were not noticed at all.

Montagu recognizes that women want to be both good wives and good mothers, but notes also that women, especially educated ones, wish to utilize their abilities for some useful purpose outside the home. In order to make it possible for these women to work, he suggested that married couples work a four hour per day work week, making it possible for each person to share in household and job duties.

Summary

This chapter has dealt with descriptions of the changing characteristics of the women's work force. It was noted that women make up about one-third of the workers in the labor force and that the proportion of workers who are women is likely to increase. Working women more than ever before tend to be married and have families. On the average, the age of working women is higher than it has been during earlier periods. Furthermore, working women are more likely to be residents of cities rather than of rural areas. Moreover, the earnings of the husbands of women workers are generally in the middle income bracket. Finally, women's educational levels are closely related to their presence in the labor force; women

with a higher level of education are more likely to be employed than are women with less education.

When queried, women give numerous non-monetary as well as monetary reasons for working. Many women are cognizant of the problems which face the woman workers. It has been found, for example, that married women are not likely to remain in the labor force their entire lives. Women were also found to lack job experience and work in occupations which traditionally have been considered to be "feminine." Moreover, bias against women workers often appears evident from the relatively low salaries they earn and low rank positions they hold.

The proponents of psychoanalytic theories hold that intellectual women are "masculinized" and that many women suffer ego damage as a result of "denial of their basic instinctual strivings." However, available objective evidence indicates that working women are not partners of unsuccessful marriages. Neither are employed mothers likely to rear disturbed children.

From this study of the characteristics of women, their work and their personalities it appears that women have become permanently established as members of the work force and that women's presence in the work force is not necessarily evidence of their maladjustment.

The next part of the investigation deals with an empirical study of the work motivation of two groups of college-educated

women. It is concerned with a search for variables that predict these women's self-estimated work desire.

CHAPTER II

METHODOLOGY

The intention of this part of the study was to predict the work motivation of two groups of college women. Motivation to work was predicted from background and attitudinal items and from responses to a work value scale. The steps in the investigation were

1. The development of a scale to measure work motivation, to be used as the criterion.
2. The construction of a work value scale to measure the motivational pattern associated with the desire to work. The basic independent work value factors were statistically determined. Two measures of work values were computed, one to investigate the strength of each of the values and another to investigate the hierarchy of value patterns.
3. The collection of pertinent background and attitudinal items which have been found to be related to interest in employment.

The prediction weights for the value scale and information items were calculated from the questionnaire responses of the first of two samples of college women. These weights were then compared with the weights obtained from the replies of the second sample. In making these comparisons, it was of interest to note which weights "held" for the second sample and which ones predicted differently. From these observations, it was possible to find out which predictors were most efficient in predicting the probability of future employment.

Samples

Two groups of women participated in this study. By the time the study was concluded all of these women had received bachelor's degrees from Jackson College, a division of Tufts University in Medford, Massachusetts.

Sample I: 1958 Class Sample

The 109 women who were seniors in the spring of 1958 constituted the first group to be studied. Of these only 106 were included in the study since three women were foreign students.

To assure a large return of the 106 questionnaires distributed to the seniors, a number of key individuals were consulted. The Dean of Women of Jackson College showed her interest in the project as did the President of Student Government. The Student Government leader was instrumental in planning a meeting with the dormitory presidents at which the purpose and the plan of the research project were explained. The dormitory presidents helped to encourage the senior women to complete and return their questionnaires. Possibly because of this hierarchy of assistants, the number of respondents was high. Of the 106 students, 70, or 66 per cent of the total sample, responded to the questionnaire. A second questionnaire was passed out to the 70 seniors who had replied to the first one. Of these, 58, or 83 per cent completed the final questionnaire.

Sample II: 1953 Class Sample

The second group of women studied were the Jackson graduates of the class of 1953, 107 women who had graduated five years before those in the first group. To gain acceptance of this project, a notice was placed in the alumnae magazine. This notice briefly described the purpose of the study and stated that questionnaires would soon be mailed to class members. A month after the questionnaires were mailed to the alumnae, post cards were sent to those who had not yet replied. Since nine addresses were incorrect or unknown, the sample size was reduced to 98 in number. Of these, 60, or 61 per cent of the sample, replied. (One questionnaire could not be included in the analyses because the class member replied nine months after the questionnaires were sent out.)

The senior women were chosen for the purpose of studying attitudes toward employment in the years following college graduation. They were requested to record their attitudes toward possible employment during future phases of life, ending with the period in which their children would be from thirteen to nineteen years of age. Though a large span of time was covered, the study concentrated mainly on the period five years after graduation, during which time most of the girls were likely to marry and to start having children.

The alumnae were selected for a different reason, mainly that of studying the existing attitudes and behavior during

the five years after graduation. They were, in a broad sense, a cross validation group. The two groups were similar in that they had both attended the same college. However, the alumnae were different in that they had had a chance to test some of their attitudes toward work.

The predictors, that is the work values and background factors which were developed from the responses of the seniors, were tested on the alumnae. Later those developed on the alumnae were tried out on the senior sample. Though the alumnae cannot be said to be selected from the same group as the seniors, they hold certain characteristics in common. Evidence for this can be found in the Report to the Carnegie Study Committee on Admissions (Tufts University, 1958). The Carnegie Study was a survey made of the students admitted to Jackson in 1949, 1953 and 1957. The survey is of interest since the 1949 entrants who graduated are the alumnae referred to in this study. The 1953 entrants were admitted to college one year before the women who comprise the senior sample.

For these three classes, the proportion of women whose fathers were college-educated remained much the same (range from 55% to 63%). This was also true for the educational level of the mothers of the entering women (range for college educated mothers was from 38% to 43%). Of the entrants, 82 per cent to 86 per cent had attended public schools. The proportion of entering students who had been in the top 10 per cent

of their secondary school classes ranged from 45 per cent to 56 per cent; from 39 per cent to 51 per cent of these girls had "A" averages. For those who entered in 1949 and in 1953, 74 per cent and 73 per cent, respectively, graduated. The college cumulative academic average for each of these two classes was approximately 2.7 (C+ average).

From the above it is clear that there are similarities in the intellectual backgrounds of classes admitted to Jackson College. These two particular classes under consideration hold much in common, though there is a tendency for the more recent entrants to be academically superior to earlier groups.

The groups seem less similar in their leadership activities since the proportion of entering students reporting to have held one or more leadership level elective offices in secondary school had increased from 30 per cent among 1949 entrants to close to 60 per cent for those who entered in 1957. Of the 1953 entrants, about 42 per cent had held such offices. The more recent class surpassed the earlier groups in leadership participation.

With these differences in leadership experience and scholastic achievement in mind, it is possible to compare the work motivation of Samples I and II. Differences in the nature of the replies of the two groups can be traced not only to these variations in the women's backgrounds, but also to differences in their age, marital status and work experi-

ence at the time of the study. In addition, it must be noted that these two classes faced different employment conditions at the time of graduation. The alumnae had graduated in 1953, a time when unemployment was low; whereas the seniors who graduated in 1958 were confronted with a period of higher unemployment.

Work Value Scale

There are women who, for a variety of reasons, work almost as continuously as do men. It seems reasonable to believe that these working women have different needs from homemakers. The values they place in work must be different in nature. Evidence for this has been found by Hoyt and Kennedy (1958). Their findings show that there appears to be a difference in the interests and personality characteristics of "career-motivated" and "homemaking-motivated" women. From a sample of 386 college women, subgroups of 30 potential career women and 71 potential homemakers were studied. The mean scores of the two groups were significantly different on 16 of the 28 Strong Vocational Interest Blank Scales for Women. The "career-motivated" girls in general had interests similar to those of women who were employed in occupations which require a higher level of education. The mean scores of the two groups were also significantly different on 5 of the 16 scales of the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule. The career group scored higher on achievement, intraception and endurance scales, and the homemaking group higher on the

suocorance and heterosexuality scales.

It does seem, then, that a study of the characteristics of working women would be incomplete without an analysis of their work values. For this reason this study concentrates on needs that could be satisfied in the work situation; the work values found to be self-descriptive of women were assumed to be expressions of differences in their needs.

The first part of the study is concerned with the work values of two groups of women. The steps in constructing the scale were:

1. Selection of work value items from a preliminary questionnaire, previous studies and personality theories.
2. Sorting of the value items into a priori factor piles and rating and equating their social desirability.
3. Factor analysis of the items to determine the independence of the scales.
4. Development of a work value scale which can be rated two ways, as a Five Point Work Value rating and as a Ranked Work Value Scale.
 - a. The Five Point Ratings were based on a five point applicability scale.
 - b. The Ranked Scale items were matched on the General and Specific factor loadings and the social desirability of the items.

Preliminary questionnaires were filled out by 25 women, of whom 16 were graduate students, seven were graduate nurses obtaining their B.S. degrees and two were secretaries. Of value in formulating hypotheses and adding 11 work value items to the initial scale were their responses to the following questions:

1. If you were married, what sorts of things would keep you from working?
2. If you were not working, what would you miss most?
3. Why do women want to work outside the home?

Fifteen additional items were obtained from the study Williams (1956) made of the roles of women. These items were answers to the question, "What are the things that most appeal to you about the life of a working woman?"

The remainder of the work value items were developed from the personality theories of Murray (Hall & Lindzey, 1957) and Maslow (Hall & Lindzey, 1957) and the studies of Kornhauser (1938), Centers (1948), and Shaffer (1953). After studying these materials, it seemed that eight values could adequately describe needs which women satisfy through the work situation.

The following were the a priori value factors which were chosen and the authors who referred to them:

1. Dominance: over people (Centers, Kornhauser, Murray, Shaffer)
2. Economic security: different reasons for working for money (Centers, Kornhauser, Shaffer, Williams)
3. Expression or self-actualization: self-development (Centers, Maslow, Shaffer)
4. Independence (Centers, Kornhauser, Maslow, Murray, Shaffer, Williams)
5. Interesting activities: variety (Centers, Williams)
6. Mastery and achievement: things accomplished by learning and doing (Maslow, Murray, Shaffer, Williams)
7. Recognition: by others (Centers, Kornhauser, Maslow, Murray, Shaffer)
8. Social relations: interpersonal relationships, service to others (Centers, Kornhauser, Maslow, Murray, Shaffer, Williams)

A total of 245 items were constructed. Most of them came from the previously mentioned sources and some were added by consulting a thesaurus for synonyms. These items, typed on index cards, were next sorted into eight piles according to the categories described above. The sortings were made by one man and five women: one male psychology professor, one secretary, three psychologists and one advanced graduate student in guidance. Sorters assigned each of the 245 items to one of the a priori factors. Items which three of the six sorters placed in the same category could be included in the initial value scale, provided that they met the other stipulated requirements. Where there was disagreement between sorters it could be traced to the tendency for the expression and mastery scales to overlap. Though this overlap existed, the eight a priori scales were still used in the study because the method of factor analysis used required that the a priori factors be equal to or greater in number than the anticipated final factors (Wherry & Winer, 1953). When clusters are factored and analysis extended to the items, no more factors can be found among items than there are among the original clusters.

Social Desirability Ratings

After the items were sorted into a priori factor piles, "social desirability" ratings were made of each item. This attempt to forecast women's reactions to items was made in order to equate the extent to which the items are socially desirable or acceptable reasons for working.

Two groups of raters evaluated the items by rating them for "social desirability." One group was made up of the raters who did the factor sortings along with an additional woman college graduate. A second group of nine women were younger than the first raters and were more like the women in Sample I of the study. These were women from the sophomore and junior classes of Jackson College.

Both groups followed the procedure of sorting the pile of cards into five piles, according to the degree of social desirability (SD). The directions given were:

Rate all of the items on the basis of how socially acceptable each is as a reason for working for pay. Make the ratings along a 5 point scale where "1" indicates the item is very low in social acceptability, and "5" indicates it is very high in acceptability. "Three" indicates moderate acceptability. That means that you may give an item any rating from 1 to 5.

The distribution of the ratings for each group are similar. Though the groups were different in age and education their median responses were almost alike. Edwards (1957) has also observed that even extremely different groups such as American and Danish college students, members of "Skid Row", and hospital patients all give fairly similar social desirability ratings. He also found no differences in the ratings of males and females and members of different socio-economic groups.

It was apparent that two a priori scales, Dominance and Recognition, were on the whole rather low in SD value. The

Dominance and Recognition scales might be low in SD for the same reasons that Kornhauser (1938) noted in 1936. The men in his sample cared relatively little about power, fame, esteem and leadership. Perhaps people in general are hesitant to admit such desires if they do exist.

The Mastery and Expression scales, on the other hand, seemed high in their SD ratings. These differences in SD level might be due to the educational level of the sample used in this study. Centers (1948) noted that self expression while working is more important to the upper occupational groups than to those lower. It also seems that Mastery and achievement might be more important to those in higher level occupations and to those with more education.

On the basis of the median item ratings assigned by each group, items of extremely low social desirability, those with median ratings of "1" or "2", were eliminated from future use.

Items which had passed the first test of being assigned to a particular a priori factor by three of the six sorters and which had median SD ratings above "2" were among those 159 items included in the first work value scale administered to Sample I.

First Questionnaire: Sample I

The first questionnaire administered to Sample I, Jackson seniors, contained attitudinal and personal background items as well as 159 work value statements. These original

work values included 20 work value items for each of seven a priori scales and 19 items for the remaining Dominance scale. Each subject was instructed to rate herself on each of the reasons for working for pay, considering the way she thinks she will feel about working the first five years after graduation from college. These ratings were to be done on the basis of the following five point scale of applicability:

1. This reason does not apply to me at all
2. This reason applies to me slightly
3. This reason applies to me to a moderate degree
4. This reason applies to me to a high degree
5. This reason applies to me almost perfectly

After the questionnaires were returned, the preliminary work for the factor analysis of the data was done. This entailed scoring the a priori scales for each subject. For each scale the score was the sum of the applicability ratings of the 19 or 20 work values assigned to the particular a priori factor.

Factor Analysis

An extension of the Wherry-Winer method (1953) of factoring a large number of items was used. Essentially, a priori factor clusters were factor analyzed.

Several steps in this type of factor analysis were used:

1. Intercorrelate items with a priori scale scores; intercorrelate a priori factor scores (Table 2)
2. Use the Wherry-Doolittle Test Selection Technique (Garrett, 1947)

3. Find the orthogonal factor loadings for a priori factors (Table 3)
4. Use the Doolittle solution (McNemar, 1955) to find the beta coefficients (Table 4)
5. Perform a back solution to determine beta weights (Table 5)
6. Find the final orthogonal factor loadings (Appendix, Section A)

The work value scale data for 66 subjects of Sample I were punched on I.B.M. cards and processed on the 650 computer. Close to 1,300 correlation coefficients were calculated. These included correlations between each of the 159 items and the eight a priori scales, also correlations between each of the eight a priori scales (Table 2).

TABLE 2

Intercorrelations Between Eight A Priori Factor Scales

	(1)*	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
(1)	1.00	.31	.61	.58	.45	.47	.74	.51
(2)		1.00	.46	.53	.36	.32	.47	.34
(3)			1.00	.70	.84	.83	.77	.80
(4)				1.00	.61	.64	.68	.58
(5)					1.00	.76	.64	.68
(6)						1.00	.67	.70
(7)							1.00	.62
(8)								1.00

* Key to scales: 1--Dominance; 2--Economic; 3--Expression; 4--Independence; 5--Interesting; 6--Mastery; 7--Recognition; 8-- Social

Other useful data obtained from the computer were the mean scores and standard deviations of responses to each work value item. These mean scores indicated the applicability of the item to the sample or, in other words, the degree to which the item was preferred by the subjects. The preference index (P.I.) of the item is then the same score as the mean response of the subjects to the item.

After the correlations were computed, the Wherry-Doolittle Test Selection Technique was used to choose the scales with the highest unexplained variance. The scales were selected in the order of uniqueness: Economic, Dominance, Mastery, Social Relations, Independence, and Interesting activities. The Expression and Recognition scales (numbers 3 and 7) were eliminated because they overlapped considerably with the other scales; therefore after this step the factor analysis was carried out with only six factors in addition to the general (G) factor.

TABLE 3

Orthogonal Factor Loadings for Six A Priori Scales and their General Factor Loadings

	G	A	B	C	D	E	F
1	.64	.77	-.03	.05	-.07	-.05	.00
2	.53	-.03	.72	.10	-.07	-.11	-.08
4	.81	.05	.10	.59	-.05	-.02	-.07
5	.81	-.07	-.07	-.05	.59	.10	.03
6	.81	-.05	-.11	-.02	.10	.59	.05
8	.80	.00	-.08	-.07	.03	.05	.60

Table 4
Doolittle Solution

1	2	4	5	6	8	G	A	B	C	D	E	F
1.00	.31	.58	.45	.47	.51	-.64	-.77	.03	-.05	.07	.05	.00
-1.00	-.31	-.58	-.45	-.47	-.51	.64	.77	-.03	.05	-.07	-.05	.00
	1.00	.53	.36	.32	.34	-.53	.03	-.72	-.10	.07	.11	.08
	-.10	-.18	-.14	-.15	-.16	.20	.24	-.01	.02	-.02	-.02	.00
	.90	.35	.22	.17	.18	-.33	.27	-.73	-.08	.05	.09	.08
	-1.00	-.39	-.24	-.19	-.20	.37	-.30	.81	.09	-.06	-.10	-.08
		1.00	.61	.64	.58	-.81	-.05	-.10	-.59	.05	.02	.07
		-.34	-.26	-.28	-.30	.37	.45	-.02	.03	-.04	-.03	.00
		-.14	-.08	-.07	-.07	.13	-.12	.28	-.03	-.02	-.04	-.03
		.52	.27	.29	.21	-.31	.28	.16	-.59	-.01	-.06	.04
		-1.00	-.52	-.56	-.40	.60	-.54	-.31	1.13	.02	.10	-.08
			1.00	.76	.68	-.81	.07	.07	.05	-.59	-.10	-.03
			-.20	-.21	-.23	.29	.35	-.01	.02	-.03	-.02	.00
			-.05	-.04	-.04	.08	-.07	.18	-.02	-.01	-.02	-.02
			-.14	-.15	-.11	.16	-.15	-.08	.31	.00	.03	-.02
			.61	.36	.30	-.28	.20	.16	.36	-.63	-.11	-.08
			-1.00	-.59	-.49	.46	-.33	-.26	-.59	1.03	.18	.13
				1.00	.70	-.81	.05	.11	.02	-.10	-.59	-.05
				-.22	-.24	.30	.36	-.01	.02	-.03	-.02	.00
				-.03	-.03	.06	-.05	.14	-.02	-.01	-.02	-.01
				-.16	-.12	.17	-.16	-.09	.33	.01	.03	-.02
				-.21	-.18	.17	-.12	-.09	-.21	.37	.06	.05
				.38	.13	-.11	.08	.06	.14	.24	-.54	-.03
				-1.00	-.34	.29	-.21	-.16	-.37	-.63	1.42	.08

Table 4 (Contd.)

1	2	4	5	6	8	G	A	B	C	D	E	F
					1.00	-.80	.00	.08	.07	-.03	-.05	-.60
					-.26	.33	.39	-.02	.03	-.04	-.03	.00
					-.04	.07	-.05	.15	-.02	-.01	-.02	-.01
					-.08	.13	-.11	-.07	.24	.00	.02	-.02
					-.15	.14	-.10	-.08	-.18	.31	.05	.04
					-.04	.04	-.03	-.02	-.05	-.08	.18	.01
					.43	-.09	.10	.04	.11	.18	.15	-.58
					-1.00	.21	-.23	-.09	-.26	-.35	-.35	1.55

From the scale intercorrelation data of Table 2, the communalities or general factor loadings (h^2) and the residual loadings were calculated. The specific factor loadings were calculated from the formula $\sqrt{1-h^2}$. The orthogonal factor loadings for the a priori factors that were found are summarized in Table 3.

Table 4 shows the Doolittle solution for the beta coefficients. Next a back solution was used to determine the beta weights. The results are included in Table 5. By multiplying the original item-scale correlations for 159 items by the beta weights, the final orthogonal loadings were found (see Appendix, Section A).

Table 5
Beta Weights Obtained from the Doolittle Solution

	1	2	4	5	6	8
G	.13	.13	.27	.23	.22	.21
A	1.21	-.08	-.30	-.14	-.13	-.23
B	-.07	.93	-.13	-.14	-.13	-.09
C	-.34	-.34	1.55	-.30	-.28	-.26
D	-.10	-.12	-.33	1.50	-.51	-.35
E	-.13	-.06	-.33	-.56	1.54	-.35
F	-.19	-.11	-.25	-.31	-.38	1.35

The final orthogonal factors, or work values, basic to this group were named:

- G: General Factor
- A: Dominance-recognition value
- B: Economic value
- C: Mastery-achievement value
- D: Independence value
- E: Interesting activity - variety value
- F: Social value

After the completion of the factor analysis, a statistically refined version of the work value scale was created. This scale contained 84 work values broken up into 14 sets of six work values. Each set consisted of a work value item from each of the six specific factors. The sets were composed on the basis of four characteristics of each item: Preference Index, General and Specific factor loadings and content. Items not included in this improved scale are listed in Section B of the Appendix.

The P.I., or the calculated mean response of the item, played an important role in the composition of the scale. The six items in the sets were selected in such a way as to hold the social desirability levels of each set constant. The P.I.'s could not be matched as closely as might have been desired; the Dominance-recognition scale, as noted in the preliminary social desirability ratings, tended to receive lower ratings. For this reason the P.I.'s were lower for that scale than for the other five scales. The P.I.'s were matched so that the items in a set were within or close to a rating unit of each other.

A similar problem occurred when the items in each set were matched for their General Factor loadings. The items from the Economic scale had, in general, lower loadings on the General factor. This difference was to be expected since working for money indicates something other than working to fulfill personality needs such as the needs for variety or for social relations. Eight of the sets were matched within .25 units; for six of the sets the General factor loadings range for a set was under .37 units.

In an effort to include statistically independent items, items with high Specific factor loadings were used wherever possible. Occasionally some items with lower loadings, around .25, were used. These were included because their content was different and because they seemed to be of importance to the investigator. An attempt was made to include items which described all aspects of the scale. This means, for example, that the 14 items representing the Economic Scale included both luxury items and basic necessities.

Second Questionnaire: Sample I

The directions to this Ranked Work Value scale instructed each subject to rank herself on each set considering the way she thinks she will feel about working after graduation from college. In each set, a "1" was to be placed next to the reason which most applied to her; a "2" was to be placed next to the reason which second best described her. She was

instructed to continue, giving a different numerical rating to each reason in the set, a rating of "6" being given to the reason which least applied to her.

The completed scale of 84 work values plus a few background items was administered to Sample I. Of the 70 women who had replied to the first questionnaire, 58, or 83 per cent responded to this second questionnaire.

Third Questionnaire: Sample II

Somewhat later the subjects in Sample II were mailed a questionnaire which is reproduced in the Appendix, Section C. It contains the Five Point ratings and the Ranked scale for the ratings of 84 work value items. The women were asked to rate themselves on the way they have felt about working since graduation from college, giving some forethought to future years. The questionnaire also includes questions relating to the women's backgrounds, information identical to that requested of Sample I and described in the next paragraph.

Opinions and Personal Background Items

To complete the attempt to predict the employment of these college women, attitudinal and biographical information was collected. For it was found that statistical data dealing with the work behavior of college women indicated that the women's history, their reactions to themselves and to their environment were crucial in determining their employment. The items chosen for inclusion in the study were

selected to represent the myriad factors that were found by other investigators to be associated with the employment of women. Many of these have been described in Chapter One. Practical limitations relating to the length of the questionnaire forced the investigator to include only those background items that appeared to be most important to this particular study.

Criterion Rating: Conditions Under Which Women Work

Since the work life of women is discontinuous, it appeared highly relevant to discover when and how much the women would want to work. A rating scale described in the following pages was devised to measure Desire to Work. These ratings then became the criterion which was to be predicted from the work value scale, attitudinal items and personal background items. The criterion was only an estimation of the continuity and length of employment experience. A prediction by the subjects was all that could be obtained at the time since the women had not yet experienced many of the conditions under consideration. In years to come, a follow-up study needs to be made to test the validity of these estimations of work behavior.

The criterion rating was constructed after a consideration of the circumstances which draw women in and out of the labor market. The following characteristics have been found to be closely related to the work habits of women:

1. Marital status
2. Presence and age of children
3. Number of children
4. Adequacy of husband's salary

Marital status appeared to be a salient variable. Single women are far more likely to be employed than are married women. The presence of children is of still greater importance. The more children a college-educated mother has, the less likely she is to be employed. The ages of the children are also of utmost importance. It has been found that as the age of the children increases, the chances of their mother being employed also increases. For these reasons, the condition motherhood has been described in five ways in this scale according to the age of the children. A child between one month and two years requires the constant attention of a mother or a mother substitute. The ages between two and four deal with the nursery school period, four to six years with the kindergarten period, six to twelve years with elementary school, and thirteen to nineteen years with the high school and early college years.

Since this study has focused upon the first five years after college graduation, special attention has been given to the early years of child rearing. It is possible that this period does not warrant such fine differentiations. Perhaps there is little difference between the frequency of employment of mothers with children ages two to four years and those with children between four to six years in age.

Of the age periods considered, the period at which children are from 13 to 19 years might turn out to be the most important working period for mothers. It is then that women with children are most likely to consider working.

The adequacy of a husband's salary is another important variable. There is almost an inverse relationship between annual income of husbands and the frequency of employment of their wives. A woman is under more pressure to work when her husband's income is low and/or does not meet her needs.

These four basic variables, arranged into 17 conditions, constituted the criterion rating. Each subject in the two samples rated herself on each condition according to how much she wanted to work or "will want to work" under each condition. For the ratings a five point scale was used as follows:

1. I would (did) not want to work under this condition.
2. I would hardly want (hardly wanted) to work under this condition.
3. I would (did) somewhat want to work under this condition.
4. I would (did) want to work under this condition.
5. I would (did) very much want to work under this condition.

In addition, the women in the second (older) sample indicated whether or not they have worked under the conditions which have already applied to them.

In order to assess the desire a woman has to work, a global work-desire score had to be calculated. It was obvious that ratings could not be simply summated; working

when unmarried does not presuppose the same work motives or intensity of desire as does working when one has small children.

Instead of simple summation of the ratings, judges were chosen to assign weights to the conditions according to the magnitude of the "desire to work" a woman shows when she works under the condition. Thirteen judges made ratings to determine the criterion weights. They were given the following directions:

You are given 17 cards, each describing a condition under which some women work for pay. It will be evident that a woman must have a strong desire to work if she works under some of these conditions, e.g., those involving heavy obligations at home. Consider each card separately and rate the magnitude of the "desire to work" which a woman shows when she works under the described condition. Your ratings are to be indicated by sorting the 17 cards into five piles. The choice of the pile for each card should be based on the following criteria:

- Rating 1. Working under such a condition reveals little at all about a woman's "desire to work". Almost any woman would work under such a condition.
- Rating 2. When working under such a condition, a woman reveals that she has a slight "desire to work".
- Rating 3. When working under such a condition, a woman reveals that she has a moderate "desire to work".
- Rating 4. When working under such a condition, a woman reveals that she has a strong "desire to work".
- Rating 5. When working under such a condition, a woman reveals that she has a very strong "desire to work". Few women would want to work under such a condition.

The ratings were first individually administered to three married, working women psychologists who understood the problems of working mothers. Two had children of their own and the third had worked extensively with children. They showed considerable agreement in their ratings. On three conditions, there was complete agreement and two out of three agreed on eleven conditions.

The question arose: Would married non-working women give different weights to these conditions? To answer this query, 10 non-working women were asked to individually respond to these same ratings. The educational level of these women was lower than that of the working women judges. They all had a high school education and two had almost completed work for master's degrees. All had at one time been employed, seven of whom had done office work. These raters had had experience with their own children who were from six and one-half to fourteen years of age.

Table 6 summarizes the mean scores of the 17 conditions, calculated separately for the working and non-working women. The non-working women were not as much in agreement with one another in their ratings as were the professional women. There was only 40 per cent to 50 per cent agreement among the judges regarding 11 of the conditions. Probably because they were inexperienced in making ratings, they did not discriminate as closely as did the working raters. When they came to the

Table 6

Criterion Ratings of the Strength of the "Desire to Work"
Performed by Thirteen Judges

Conditions Under Which Women Work	Mean rating of working women (N=3)	Mean rating of non-work- ing women (N=10)	Composite mean rating (N=13)	Rounded-off criterion weights
1. Single	1.3	1.0	1.1	1
2. Married; no children; husband's salary adequate	3.3	2.7	3.1	3
3. Married; no children; husband's salary not adequate	1.7	1.7	1.7	2
4. Married; one child between 1 mo. & 2 yrs; husband's salary adequate	4.7	4.3	4.4	4
5. Married; 2 or more children between 1 mo. & 2 yrs; husband's salary adequate	5.0	4.4	4.5	5
6. Married; 1 child between 1 mo. & 2 yrs.; salary of husband not adequate	3.3	2.2	2.4	2
7. Married; 2 or more children between 1 mo. & 2 yrs.; salary of husband not adequate	3.3	2.0	2.3	2

Table 6 (Contd.)

Conditions Under Which Women Work	Mean rating of working women (N=3)	Mean rating of non-work- ing women (N=10)	Composite mean rating (N=13)	Rounded-off criterion weights
8. Married; 1 child between 2 yrs and 4 yrs.; salary of husband adequate	4.0	3.9	3.9	4
9. Married; 2 or more children between 2 & 4 yrs.; salary of husband adequate	4.3	4.4	4.4	4
10. Married; 1 child between 2 & 4 yrs.; salary of husband not adequate	3.0	2.0	2.3	2
11. Married; 2 or more children between 2 & 4 yrs.; salary of husband not adequate	3.0	1.9	2.1	2
12. Married; one child between 4 & 6 yrs.; salary of husband adequate	3.7	3.7	3.7	4
13. Married; 2 or more children between 4 & 6 yrs.; salary of husband adequate	4.0	3.9	3.9	4
14. Married; 1 child between 4 & 6 yrs.; salary of husband not adequate	2.7	2.0	2.2	2
15. Married; 2 or more children between 4 & 6 yrs.; salary of husband not adequate	3.0	2.2	2.4	2

Table 6 (Contd.)

Conditions Under Which Women Work	Mean rating of working women (N=3)	Mean rating of non-work- ing women (N=10)	Composite mean rating (N=13)	Rounded-off criterion weights
16. Married; child(ren) between age of 0 and 12 yrs.	2.7	3.3	3.1	3
17. Married; child(ren) between age of 13 and 19 years	2.7	2.8	2.7	3

conditions marked "husband's salary not adequate" they gave "1" ratings to every condition, disregarding the ages and number of children. This contributed to the lower mean ratings provided by the non-working groups.

Because the mean ratings of the working and non-working women were different, composite mean ratings were computed for each condition. The composite ratings were based on the averages between the mean ratings of both groups for each condition, with a correction made for the different number of raters in each group of judges. These composite scores, when rounded-off, became the criterion weights which were used to determine the Desire to Work criterion scores.

Desire to Work Scores

A Desire to Work score was computed for each respondent in both samples as follows: for each condition the respondent's rating along a five point scale was multiplied by the appropriate criterion weight. Products were added together, the sum thus obtained being the respondent's Desire to Work Score.

The Desire to Work scores for all members of a class sample were placed in rank order and the sample was divided in half according to Desire to Work. Thus for each sample, I and II, two sub-groups were created and named: Upper (Half) Desire to Work group and Lower (Half) Desire to Work group.

Analysis of Predictors

The assessment of the predictive value of each possible item was based upon differences between the response frequencies of that item in the Upper and Lower Desire to Work groups. For each item on the questionnaire and a few items from the class yearbook, distributions such as those in Section D of the Appendix were made.

Chi square tests of the differences between observed and expected frequencies of each of these distributions were performed. The chi square level of significance was found for the distribution, a distribution with a P of .10 or less being considered worthy of cross-validation.

For items that differentiated between Upper and Lower Desire to Work groups (P equals less than .10), Strong weights were calculated. Weights of 0, 1, or 2 were assigned to response categories by the method described in Stead and Shartle (1940). A weight of "2" signified that the particular response category to which it was assigned was associated with a high Desire to Work. A weight of "1" was assigned to a response category that was somewhat less associated with a high Desire to Work. A "0" weight either indicated that no differences existed or that the differences favored the Lower Desire to Work group.

Cross-validation

An attempt was made to assess the extent to which items

which significantly differentiated between Upper and Lower Desire to Work groups for one class sample also did so for the other class sample. Since the two samples of women were known to differ in age, marital status and job experience as well as in some background characteristics, cross-validation might appropriately be called validity generalization.

Mosier (1951) stated that validity generalization is a type of cross-validation in which weights that are known to work in one population are tried out on a population that differs systematically from the first in some characteristics. This is precisely the case here.

CHAPTER THREE

RESULTS

Sample

1. Nearly two-thirds of the members of each class responded to the study. The 1958 class sample includes 86 per cent of its class members, and the 1953 class sample consists of 61 per cent of the class members for whom addresses were available. In the 1953 sample, addresses of nine members (8%) were lost. These addresses were either declared lost by the Tufts Alumni Association or were returned labeled "address unknown."

2. For both samples, no significant differences were found in the types of majors the respondents and non-respondents had chosen in college (Tables 7 and 10). The 1958 sample includes 80 per cent of all the women from the entire 1958 class who had majored in science, 57 per cent of the humanities majors and 78 per cent of those who majored in social studies. The 1953 sample contains 74 per cent of the women who had majored in science, 65 per cent of those with a major in humanities and 58 per cent of the women who had concentrated in the field of social studies.

3. There were no significant differences between the marital status of the respondents and non-respondents in either class sample (Tables 8 and 11). The 1958 sample consists of 67 per cent of the women in the 1958 class who were single

and 50 per cent of those who were married at the time the investigation was conducted. The 1953 sample is made up of 64 per cent of the total number of women in the class of 1953 who were married and 54 per cent of those who were single at the time the questionnaire was mailed out.

5. The college residence of the members of the 1958 sample was not significantly different from that of the non-respondents (Table 9). This sample included 70 per cent of those who lived on-campus and 54 per cent of those who lived off-campus, probably with their parents.

6. The investigator was able to predict (at the .001 level of significance) which of her former classmates from the class of 1953 would respond to the questionnaire (Table 12).

Criterion

7. The means of the total weighted Desire to Work scores for the seniors and alumnae are not significantly different from one another (Table 13), with the mean score for the 1958 class being 109.8 and that for the 1953 class, 112.5.

8. The mean scores and standard deviations for each of the 17 given conditions under which women may work are given in Table 14. These scores are similar for the seniors and alumnae.

Table 7

Representativeness of College Major of Respondents
to the Questionnaire, 1958 Class

	College Major			Total
	Science	Humanities	Social Studies	
Respondents	18	16	36	70
Non-respondents	12	12	10	34
Total	30	28	46	104

Chi square = 4.56; df = 2; $P > .05$

Table 8

Representativeness of Marital Status of Respondents
to the Questionnaire, 1958 Class

	Marital Status		Total
	Single	Married	
Respondents	66	4	70
Non-respondents	32	4	36
Total	98	8	106

Using Yates's Correction, Chi square = .37; df=1; $P > .05$

Table 9
Representativeness of the College Residence of
Respondents to the Questionnaire, 1958 Class

	College Residence		Total
	On-Campus	Off-Campus	
Respondents	56	14	70
Non-respondents	24	12	36
Total	80	26	106

Chi square = 2.29; df = 1; $P > .05$

Table 10
Representativeness of College Major of Respondents to
the Questionnaire, 1953 Class

	College Major			Total
	Science	Humanities	Social Studies	
Respondents	14	17	28	59
Non-respondents	5	9	20	34
Total	19	26	48	93

Chi square = 1.46; df = 2; $P > .05$

Table 11

Representativeness of Marital Status of
Respondents to the Questionnaire, 1953 Class

	Marital Status		Total
	Single	Married	
Respondents	13	47	60
Non-respondents	11	27	38
Total	24	74	98
Chi square = .86; df = 1; P > .05			

Table 12

Prediction of Respondents and Non-respondents
to Questionnaire, Class of 1953

	Participation Predicted		Total
	Yes	No and Doubtful	
Respondents	44	16	60
Non-respondents	13	25	38
Total	57	41	98
Chi square = 14.83; df = 1; P = .001			

Table 13

Mean Scores, Standard Deviations and t Test for the Total
Weighted Desire to Work Scores, Classes 1958 and 1953

Total Weighted Desire to Work Scores	1958 (N = 70)	1953 (N = 60)
Mean	109.8	112.5
Standard Deviation	32.8	31.2
t Test	.47*	

* $P > .05$

Table 14

Mean Scores, & Standard Deviations of Unweighted Desire
to Work Scores for 17 Conditions Under which
Women Work, for 1958 and 1953 Classes

Desire to Work Conditions*	1958		1953	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
1	4.8	.7	4.9	.6
2	3.7	1.0	4.1	1.0
3	4.8	.5	4.8	.7
4	1.3	.6	1.4	.8
5	1.1	.4	1.2	.6
6	2.8	1.0	2.8	1.2
7	2.7	1.1	2.5	1.0
8	1.5	.9	1.5	.9
9	1.3	.9	1.3	.8
10	2.9	1.0	2.9	1.1
11	2.8	1.0	2.6	1.1
12	1.7	1.2	1.7	1.1
13	1.6	1.1	1.5	.9
14	3.2	.9	3.3	1.1
15	3.2	1.1	3.1	1.2
16	2.2	1.3	2.5	1.3
17	2.6	1.3	3.0	1.4

* Conditions were rated on a five point scale, with a
"5" rating denoting high Desire to Work

Evaluation of the Predictors

9. For the 1958 class sample, seven (13%) of the 55 possible variables significantly ($P \leq .05$) differentiated between the upper and lower halves of the sample, classified according to Desire to Work. Another six variables approached significance ($P < .10$) in differentiating between the halves (Table 15).

10. For the 1953 class sample, 15 (22%) of the 68 possible variables significantly ($P \leq .05$) differentiated between the upper and lower halves of the sample, classified according to Desire to Work. Another eight variables approached significance ($P < .10$) in differentiating between these halves (Table 15).

Chi square distributions for all variables found to differentiate between Desire to Work groups (where $P < .10$) may be found in Section D of the Appendix. Summaries of the chi square values are given in Tables 15 and 16.

11. Six of the variables deal with activities (items 102, 124, 140, 141 and two from yearbook). None were significant for the 1953 sample, but three were for the 1958 group. The 1958 Upper Desire to Work group members engaged in more dating while in college. They also took part in a greater number of different types of extracurricular activities. Moreover, they expressed the wish to spend more time in activities outside the home in future years than did those

Table 15

Chi Square Values for All Questionnaire Items for Classes 1958 and 1953^a

Item No.	Variables	1958		1953	
		X ² value	df	X ² value	df
102.	Amount of dating	6.03	2**	1.88	2
103.	Doting father	3.30	2	1.51	2
104.	Responsibility stressed	1.15	2	3.10	2
105.	Homemaker role	5.29	2*	4.34	1**
106.	Mother role	.51	1	.62	1
107.	Career role	3.58	2	6.16	2**
108.	Club role (woman)	2.15	2	1.40	2
109.	Volunteer worker role	.84	2	.36	2
110.	Mother's care for child	9.15	1***	15.42	1***
111.	Train children	.87	1	.00	1
112.	Enjoy children	1.47	1	.64	1
113.	Caretaker; home & child	5.76	2*	8.92	2**
114.	"Right" job	5.00	2*	2.42	1
115.	Approval of job	.21	2	5.77	1**
116.	Keep home attractive	.80	1	.02	1
117.	Spend income	.02	1	.00	2
118.	Select car	1.10	1	.81	1
119.	Marital status	1.05	2	1.60	2

^a Items are listed in the order in which they appeared on the July 1958 questionnaire.* Approaching significance; $P < .10$

** Significant at the .05 level of confidence

*** Significant at the .01 level of confidence

**** Significant at the .001 level of confidence

Table 15 (Contd.)

Item No.	Variables	1958		1953	
		X ² value	df	X ² value	df
120.	Worked thru college	.45	2	.36	1
121.	Scholarship	1.48	1	1.84	1
122.	Grade Point average	.09	1	.64	1
123.	Hours of study	.94	2	.08	1
124.	Hours extracurricular	2.00	1	.06	1
125.	Age of voc. decision	.40	1	.06	2
126.	Years mother worked	.80	2	5.06	2*
127.	Prestige: Father's occupation	.26	1	4.83	2*
128.	Prestige: Husband's occupation	Not Available		.48	1
129.	Job title	3.19	1*	3.32	3
130.	Education of mother	.22	1	5.42	2*
130.	Education of father	.62	1	3.14	2
130.	Education of husband	Not Available		.95	2
129.	Years worked	Not Available		.28	1
131.	Additional education	Not Available		3.32	1*
131.	Education expected	3.59	1*	.45	1
132.	Father's birthplace	.99	1	.06	1
132.	Mother's birthplace	.02	1	.86	1
133.	Size of town: lived	Not Available		2.65	3
133.	Size of town: desired	3.69	2	3.22	2
134.	Adequate salary	4.54	2	2.99	1*
135.	Minimum salary	6.77	2**	3.76	1**
136.	Years worked since graduation	Not Available		1.57	1
136.	Years desire to work after marriage	1.28	2	8.71	1***
137.	Years after marriage desire to have child	.25	2	3.02	1*
138.	Number of children wanted	.73	1	1.12	1
139.	Number of children	Not Available		1.30	2
140.	Number of hours of outside activity desired	4.57	1**	.04	1

Table 15(Contd.)

Item No.	Variables	1958		1953	
		X ² value	df	X ² value	df
141.	Number of hours wish to devote to hobbies	2.69	1	1.90	2
142.	Reasons for not wishing to work				
	Husband's objection	Not Available		1.41	1
	Don't like work	Not Available		.80	1
	Wife's place in the home	Not Available		7.06	1***
	Want to be excellent homemaker	Not Available		4.21	1**
	Health reasons	Not Available		.73	1
	Presence of children; only reason	Not Available		4.37	1**
	Number of reasons	Not Available		6.16	1**
Yearbook Information					
	College major	5.52	2*	2.91	3
	Number of different college activities	5.60	1**	3.92	2
	Number of college leadership positions	1.92	1	.74	2
Work Values					
	Five Point Dominance-recognition ratings	.33	3	1.06	1
	Five Point Economic ratings	.08	3	.82	1
	Five Point Independence ratings	2.26	3	.00	1
	Five Point Interesting ratings	1.26	3	7.47	1***
	Five Point Mastery ratings	8.14	3**	6.73	3*
	Five Point Social ratings	.72	3	.40	1
	Ranked Dominance-recognition	9.69	1***	2.27	2
	Ranked Economic	.49	3	.45	1
	Ranked Independence	.17	1	3.06	1*
	Ranked Interesting	3.11	2	8.78	3**

Table 15 (Contd.)

Item No.	Variables	1958		1953	
		X ² value	df	X ² value	df
	Ranked Mastery	1.52	3	9.55	2***
	Ranked Social	4.41	3	4.13	1**

women in the Lower Desire to Work group.

12. The variables included 11 items relating to the women's backgrounds or specifically to their parents' influence (items 119, 126, 127, 128, 130, 132, 133). None of the eight variables applicable to the 1958 sample were significant. Three of the 11, however, approached significance for the older sample. The mothers of the 1953 alumnae in the Upper Desire to Work group had worked longer after marriage and had less education than did the mothers of those in the Lower Desire to Work group. These same women had fathers whose occupational prestige received average ratings rather than extremely high or low ratings.

13. Three variables were pertinent to the educational backgrounds of these women (items 131 and one from yearbook). Two items appropriate to the younger group approached significance: more members of the Upper Desire to Work group had plans to receive additional formal education; more members had majored in Social Studies than had the women in the Lower group. In the older sample, those women who have already received an additional degree or its equivalent were more likely to be in the Upper Desire to Work group than in the Lower group ($P < .10$).

14. Of the five items that dealt with college factors (items 120-123, 125) none were significant for either sample.

15. Home and family attitudes were represented by 16

Table 16

Significant Chi Square Values for Biographical Data and
Work Values which Differentiate between High and Low
Desire to Work Groups*

	Class of '58 (N=70)	Class of '53 (N=60)
ACTIVITIES		
Amount of dating in college	.05	N.S.
Anticipated hours of outside activity	.05	N.S.
Number of different kinds of activities in college	.02	N.S.
PARENTS' INFLUENCE		
Length of time mother worked	N.S.	.08
Prestige of father's occupation	N.S.	.09
Education level of mother	N.S.	.07
EDUCATION		
Further education planned	.06	N.S.
Received additional degree or equivalent	Not Available	.08
College major field	.07	N.S.
HOMEMAKER-MOTHER ROLE		
Importance of homemaker role	.08	.05
Importance of staying home with children under 6 years of age	.01	.001
Importance of having someone to take care of home and/or family	.06	.02
Number of years after marriage, wish to have first child	N.S.	.09
ECONOMIC FACTORS		
Minimum income desired if only husband were working	.05	.05
Adequate income desired if only husband were working	N.S.	.09
JOB FACTORS		
Ease of obtaining the "right" job	.09	N.S.
Research job	.08	N.S.
Importance of the career woman role	N.S.	.05
Husband's or relatives' approval of holding job	N.S.	.02
Number of years wish to work after marriage	N.S.	.01

Table 16 (Contd.)

	Class of '58 (N=70)	Class of '53 (N=60)
REASONS FOR NOT WORKING		
Number of different reasons for not working	Not Available	.02.
Presence of young children only reason	Not Available	.05
Believe wife's place to be in the home	Not Available	.02
Desire to be excellent homemaker	Not Available	.05
WORK VALUES		
Five Point Interesting Rating Scale	N.S.	.01
Five Point Mastery Rating Scale	.05	.08
Ranked Dominance-Recognition Scale	.01	N.S.
Ranked Independence Scale	N.S.	.08
Ranked Interesting Scale	N.S.	.05
Ranked Mastery Scale	N.S.	.01
Ranked Social Scale	N.S.	.05

* For purposes of cross-validation, the significance level of $P < .10$ was adopted. N.S. indicates that $P > .10$

variables (items 103-106, 108-113, 116-118, 137-139). Of the 15 items that applied to the 1958 group, one variable significantly differentiated between the Desire to Work groups: the Upper group felt less strongly about the need for day-round maternal care for young children than did the Lower group. For this younger group, two variables approached significance: the Upper Desire to Work group considered the homemaker role to be of somewhat less importance and felt that their willingness to work was closely related to the availability of someone to take care of their home and children than did the Lower group. These three variables relating to the homemaker-mother role also differentiated between Desire to Work groups for the 1953 sample, with the Upper Desire to Work group responses in the same direction as for the 1958 group. One variable also approached significance in differentiating the Desire to Work groups in the 1953 sample: the members of the Upper group wished to have their children some years later after marriage than the the Lower group.

16. Two economic variables have been considered (items 134, 135). One was significant for the seniors: those in the Upper Desire to Work group were more likely to expect their minimum family income, with only the husband working, to be over \$5,500 or under \$4,500 than were the others in the sample. Both variables, one significant and the other

approaching significance, are of interest in studying the responses of the older women. The results for the 1953 sample are in the opposite direction from those of the younger sample. The Upper group expected the incomes of their husbands to be relatively lower than did the women in the Lower group. Relatively lower adequate salaries were also expected by the 1953 high work motivation group.

17. Six items touched upon job factor variables (items 107, 114, 115, 129, 136). Two out of five of the variables that are applicable to the 1958 sample approached significance. Finding the "right" job and selecting a job other than one in research work is associated with membership in the Upper Desire to Work group. Three are significant for the 1953 alumnae. Those in the 1953 Upper Desire to Work group value a career role slightly more than those women in the Lower group. They were more likely to have people around them approve of their holding a job after marriage. In addition, they expressed a desire to work a greater number of years after marriage than did the women in the Lower Desire to Work group.

18. Seven items represent possible reasons for not wishing to work. None of these items were administered to the seniors. Four out of the seven items were significant for the alumnae. Those in the 1953 Upper Desire to Work group stated fewer reasons for not wishing to work than did

those in the Lower group. Fewer women in the Upper work motivation classification felt that the wife's place is in the home, and fewer stated that they wanted to be excellent homemakers than did those in the Lower classification.

19. Of the twelve scale scores used to evaluate work values, six were based on five point ratings of appropriate items. One of these six was significant for the 1958 sample. The Upper Desire to Work half tended to receive lower scores on the Five Point Mastery Scale than did the Lower Desire to Work half. The results were in the opposite direction for the 1953 sample ($P < .10$): The Upper Desire to Work group tended to receive higher scores on the Five Point Mastery Scale than did the Lower Desire to Work group. The Upper Desire to Work half of the 1953 sample also received significantly higher scores on the Five Point Interesting Scale than did the Lower half.

20. Of central importance were the work value scales based on ranked scores. Only one of six scales was significant for the seniors. The 1958 Upper Desire to Work half showed greater preference for items that were part of the Ranked Dominance-recognition Scale than did the corresponding lower half. Three of the six scales were significant and one approached significance for the alumnae. Relatively greater worth was placed in the Ranked Interesting and Ranked Mastery Work Values by the 1953 high Work Desire group than

the lower group. These same girls assigned less importance to the Ranked Independence Work Value ($P < .10$) and the Ranked Social Work Value ($P < .05$) than did the Lower group.

21. Mean scores, standard deviations and t test scores for the six Ranked Work Value Scales are given in Table 17 for the 1958 and 1953 classes. The two samples gave significantly different ($P < .05$) to only one Ranked Work Value Scale, the one that dealt with the need for Independence. The seniors expressed a greater value for Independence, as it can be obtained through the work situation, than did the alumnae.

Table 17

Ranked Work Value Scores for 1958 and 1953 Classes

Work Value	1958 Class		1953 Class		t
	Mean*	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	
	(N=55)		(N=55)		
Dominance-recognition	59.3	13.0	57.6	11.3	.71
Economic	54.5	13.7	50.7	13.9	1.45
Independence	48.8	17.4	56.0	17.1	2.20**
Interesting-variety	49.8	10.8	47.4	14.7	.97
Mastery-achievement	37.9	10.8	38.5	11.6	.63
Social	43.6	11.5	45.8	10.7	1.03

* According to the scoring system used, high mean scores reflect low valuations of the particular work value.

** $P = .05$

Evaluation of Predictor Weights

22. The validity generalizations of weights developed on one sample and applied to the second sample are summarized in Table 19. The Strong weights (listed in Table 18) that were applied to the 13 variables differentiating between the Upper and Lower Desire to Work halves for the 1958 class were applied to the equivalent 13 variables in the older class sample. These 13 weights developed on the 1958 sample significantly ($P < .05$) predicted the Desire to Work group classification of the 1953 sample.

23. The Strong weights applied to the 23 variables that differentiated between the Upper and Lower Desire to Work classifications for the 1953 class were applied to the 23 equivalent variables in the younger class sample. It was found that the combined 23 weights developed on the 1953 sample significantly ($P < .01$) predicted the Desire to Work group classifications of the 1958 sample.

24. Each of three predictor weights developed on the 1958 class and applied to the 1953 sample significantly differentiated between the Upper and Lower Desire to Work halves of the 1953 sample. These three weights (items 105, 110, and 113) all were classified as variables relating to the homemaker-mother role which dealt with the importance of the homemaker role and of the need for the constant maternal care of young children. Included among these was a variable

Table 18

Assigned Strong Weights for Variables Significantly Differentiating
Between Upper and Lower Desire to Work Groups, Classes 1958 & 1953*

Item No.	Variable	1958 Class			1953 Class		
		Strong Weights			Strong Weights		
		(0)	(1)	(2)**	(0)	(1)	(2)
102.	Amount of dating	1,2,3	--	4,5			
105.	Homemaker role	5	4	1,2,3	5	--	1-4
107.	Career role				1	--	2-5
110.	Mother's care for child	5	--	1-4	5	--	1-4
113.	Caretaker: home & child	1	2-4	5	1,2	--	3-5
114.	"Right" job	1,2	4,5	3			
115.	Approval of job				1-3	--	4,5
126.	Years mother worked				5 or less	none	6 or more
127.	Prestige: father's occupation				45-70	78-93	71-77
129.	Job title	Research	--	Others			
130.	Education of mother				College	high school	R.N. degree
131.	Additional education				none	--	grad- uate degree
131.	Education expected	none	--	yes			
134.	Adequate salary				over \$6000	--	\$6000 or less
135.	Minimum salary	\$4500 to \$5500	--	Under \$4500 or over \$5500	over \$5000	--	\$5000 or less

Table 18 (Contd.)

Item No.	Variable	1958 Class		1953 Class	
		(0)	(1)	(0)	(1)
136.	Years desire to work after marriage			one or less	More than one
137.	Years after marriage desire to have child			2½ years or less	more than 2½
140.	Number of hours of outside activity desired	5 or less	--		
142.	Wife's place is in the home			yes	Not checked
142.	Want to be excellent homemaker			yes	Not checked
142.	Presence of children; only reason			no	yes
142.	Number of reasons			2 or more	0 or 1
	College major	science	humanities		
	Number of different college activities	3 or less	--		
	Five Point Interesting ratings			14-41	42-69
	Five Point Mastery ratings	40-46; 52-65	17-39	22-33; 46-51	34-45 52-69
	Ranked Dominance-recognition	62-80	--		
	Ranked Independence		29-61		57-83
	Ranked Interesting			16-56	19-44
	Ranked Mastery			45-78	15-44

Table 18 (Contd.)

Item No.	Variable	1958 Class			1953 Class		
		Strong Weights			Strong Weights		
		(0)	(1)	(2)**	(0)	(1)	(2)
	Ranked Social				26-45	--	46-70

* Items are arranged in the order in which they appeared on the July 1958 questionnaire.

** A weight of "2" is associated with high Desire to Work; "1" is somewhat less associated with Desire to Work; "0" is not associated with a high Desire to Work.

Table 19

Validity Generalization of Predictors Weighted according to
Strong's Method, Applied from One Class to Another
(Classes 1958 and 1953)

Items ^a	1958 weights applied to 1953 class		1953 weights applied to 1958 class	
	<u>X² value</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>X² value</u>	<u>df</u>
102. Amount of college dating	1.36	1	---	-
105. Homemaker role	6.62	2**	3.31	2*
110. Mother's care for children	15.42	1****	9.15	1***
113. Caretaker; home & children	8.90	2**	2.98	1*
114. "Right" job	2.63	2	---	-
115. Approval of job	---	-	.04	1
126. Years mother worked	---	-	.04	1
127. Prestige of father's occupation	---	-	.09	2
129. Job title	1.26	1	---	-
130. Education of mother	---	-	4.26	2
131. Additional education	3.22	1*	---	-
131. Education expected	.87	1	1.54	1
134. Adequate income	---	-	.35	1
135. Minimum income	.72	1	.02	1
136. Years desire to work after marriage	---	-	3.32	1*
137. Years after marriage desire to have child	---	-	1.07	1
140. Hours of outside activity desired	.04	1	---	-

Table 19 (Contd.)

Items ^a	1958 weights applied to 1953 class	df	X ² value	1953 weights applied to 1958 class	df	X ² value	df
College major	.91	2	---	---	-	-	-
Number of different college activities	2.20	1	---	---	-	-	-
Work Values							
Five point Interesting ratings	---	-	---	.95	1	---	1
Five point Mastery ratings	1.80	2	---	5.72	2*	---	2*
Ranked Dominance	.60	1	---	---	-	---	-
Ranked Independence	---	-	---	.32	1	---	1
Ranked Interesting	---	-	---	.73	1	---	1
Ranked Mastery	---	-	---	.06	1	---	1
Ranked Social	---	-	---	.78	1	---	1
Total Weighted scores	7.47	2**	---	12.72	2***	---	2***
4 best predictors	20.32	1***	---	11.14	1***	---	1***

^aItems are listed in the order in which they appear on the July 1958 questionnaire. Only items are included which discriminate between Desire to Work Groups for each class sample.

*** Significant at the .001 level of confidence

** Significant at the .01 level of confidence

* Significant at the .05 level of confidence

* Approaching significance -- $P < .10$

dealing with the need for a person to care for one's home and children. The fourth weight (item 131), which concerned additional education already received, approached significance in differentiating between the Desire to Work groups of the 1953 sample.

25. The four predictor weights just mentioned (items 105, 110, 113, 131) were combined and simultaneously applied to the 1953 class sample. The distribution of these four combined weights significantly ($P = .001$) differentiated between the work motivation groups. By using a cutting score of "4" for the Upper Desire to Work classification, 72 per cent of the Upper Desire to Work group would be correctly predicted and 14 per cent of the Lower group would be incorrectly placed in the high work motivation classification.

26. One predictor weight (item 110) developed on the 1953 class and applied to the 1958 sample differentiated significantly between the Upper and Lower Desire to Work halves of the 1958 sample. This variable was concerned with the need for constant maternal care of young children. Four weights approached significance in differentiating between the Upper and Lower Desire to Work halves of the 1958 sample (items 105, 110, 113, 136). These variables were concerned with the importance of the homemaker role, with the need for a caretaker for home and children, with the number of years the women wanted to work after marriage and with the Five

Point Mastery Ratings.

27. Four of the last five predictor weights just mentioned (items 105, 110, 113, and 136) were combined and simultaneously applied to the 1958 class sample. These significantly ($P = .001$) differentiated between the Upper and Lower Desire to Work groups. With a cutting score of "6" for the Upper Desire to Work group, 68 per cent of the high work motivation group could be correctly identified; 28 per cent of the members of the Lower group would be incorrectly placed in the high work motivation group. The weights developed for the Five Point Mastery Ratings were not included among these weights because the weights predicted results in opposite directions for the 1953 sample and for the 1958 class sample.

CHAPTER FOUR

DISCUSSION

Sample

Available statistical evidence indicates that both of the class samples are fairly representative of the classes from which they are drawn. There are not statistically significant differences between the respondents and non-respondents in the 1958 or 1953 sample with regard to their selection of college majors or in their marital status. For the 1958 class, still in residence at Jackson College at the time of the study, there were no significant differences between the respondents and non-respondents on the basis of whether they lived at home or lived on-campus.

One may, however, speculate about whether these are the most important variables on which to test the representativeness of the samples. The variables of college major, marital status, and college residence are important ones dealing with influential areas of behavior, yet one suspects that these do not cover all of the possibilities. The fact that the investigator was able to predict (at the .001 level of significance) which of her former classmates would be among the respondents to the 1953 class questionnaire indicates that some selective factors were present. Her ratings of the likelihood that class members would respond were based upon

feelings about the members' cooperativeness. The cooperative members were likely to be friends, former psychology majors or women who had been leaders while in college. However, while this selective factor holds for the older sample, it is not relevant to the respondents in the 1958 class. The author was not acquainted with the women who were in this sample and their participation stemmed more from the appeal of the study itself and from the urging of the house presidents.

In both samples there were women who failed to reply to the questionnaire and who, by the choice of their occupation or program of study, gave evidence that they might have a relatively high Desire to Work. Among the non-respondents of the 1958 class for example, there was a woman who had been accepted in medical school and another who had received a substantial fellowship to study for a doctorate in physics. In the 1953 class there were two women physicians who failed to return the questionnaires sent to them. These non-respondents who showed interest in the professions were undoubtedly counterbalanced by other non-respondents who lacked interest in either further education or employment or both.

Criterion: Desire to Work Scores

From the total weighted Desire to Work scores it is possible to assess the magnitude of the work motivation of the two samples of women. From the t test of the dif-

ference between the mean total Desire to Work scores, it appears that no over-all difference in work motivation exists. The younger and older women exhibit about the same degree of work motivation. This is not a completely unexpected finding since both samples, though different in age and experience, have been graduated from college in post-war times. During these years work patterns, though still undergoing change, have not changed radically. A comparison of alumnae from the classes of 1939 and 1953 would perhaps show greater differences in Desire to Work. Prior to World War II women were not as likely to be in the labor force in such large numbers as they have been in recent years.

The unweighted scores of the individual Desire to Work conditions rated by the class members were remarkably similar for both samples (Table 13). Both class samples on the average indicate a high Desire to Work when single or married but childless. The lowest Desire to Work scores were assigned to the conditions describing married women with infants and with husbands who earn an adequate income. Census data mentioned earlier paralleled these statistics. Women as a group are least likely to be employed when they have young children and husbands who are able to support them. Considerable societal pressure keeps women at home with their young children even if they wish to work.

The responses of both samples approximate the actual work

behavior of American women in relationship to salaries of husbands and number and age of children. Both samples gave on the average lower Desire to Work responses on the conditions in which their husbands were said to have adequate income than they did on those in which their husbands' incomes were described as inadequate. Moreover, the data show that the samples of women anticipate an equally high level of work motivation for two possible conditions of life: (1) when their children are young and their husbands' incomes are inadequate; (2) when their children are of high school and college age, a time when their household responsibilities have been lessened. Number of children also affects the Desire to Work scores. The addition of a second child to a family tends to decrease the women's Desire to Work somewhat in comparison to ratings for the one child conditions. This relationship holds for both adequate and inadequate financial conditions.

Apparently these samples of women are representative of American women in the way in which their Desire to Work is related to the number and age of the children they care for and the financial status of their husbands. Their Desire to Work scores parallel the statistical data of the Women's Bureau and appear to reflect culturally defined behavior. International or intercultural information might clarify this issue, either indicating that this is a culture-bound characteristic or that it relates to the fact that children are

dependent and require the attention of an adult for many years.

Predictors

There are proportionately more variables that predict the Desire to Work scores of the 1953 class sample than there are for the seniors. Of the predictors tested on the alumnae, 22 per cent significantly differentiated between the Upper and Lower Desire to Work groups ($P \leq .05$); whereas only 13 per cent differentiated between the Desire to Work groups for the younger sample. The Desire to Work scores of the older sample were more readily predicted from the variables used in the study when, for purpose of cross-validation, a significance level of $P < .10$ is assumed. Considering items approaching significance ($P = < .10$), 34 per cent of the variables differentiate the Desire to Work groups for the 1953 sample, while only 24 per cent of the variables do so for the 1958 sample.

It seems reasonable that the older sample's Desire to Work scores are more predictable than are those for the younger sample. The older sample, studied five years after college graduation, has had more of an opportunity to think about work motives and to test the reality of their aspirations. The alumnae are likely to know the nature of their work desires, at least for the next few years.

For example, all but a few of these women have had some work experience and 30 per cent have additional education at the

graduate school level. Of the older women, 80 per cent are married and therefore are well acquainted with the attitudes that their husbands hold toward working wives and working mothers. Furthermore, 81 per cent of the married alumnae already have children. Evidence pointing to the greater experience of the alumnae in activities relating to work motivation, leads one to believe that the Desire to Work scores of these women are more reliable and valid. The seniors, sheltered for four years by the artificialities of campus life, cannot be expected to have equivalent understanding of the effects of work experience, further education, marriage and motherhood upon work motivation. The answers of these younger women are more often based on guesses and incompletely developed plans.

An additional explanation of the greater predictability of the older women's Desire to Work stems from the possibility that the samples have responded differently to their backgrounds in developing their work motivation patterns. This hypothesis, to be evaluated in greater detail later in the chapter, states that the alumnae are more passive and have been more responsive to the many facets of their socioeconomic backgrounds; whereas the seniors, characterized by the Dean of Women as being high in leadership abilities, have associated their work motivation mainly with their activity involvement.

Activity Involvement

Activities were significantly related to Desire to Work for the seniors and not for the alumnae (Table 16). For the younger group, the activity variables relating to college dating, to involvement in different types of extracurricular activities and to hopes of spending many hours in activity outside the home, portray the seniors in the high Desire to Work classification as a lively, energetic group. Senior women in the Upper Desire to Work group had been active in college; they rated themselves as having dated more than their classmates. Objective yearbook data indicated that these women with high work motivation chose to participate in many more types of extracurricular activities than the women in the Lower group. In the future they wish to remain active by work and through many activities outside the home; furthermore their predominant Ranked Work Value was Dominance-recognition. Their high valuation Dominance Work Value Scale indicates that they wish to have control over the activities of others, to be recognized and to find themselves in leadership roles. Apparently these women feel that they are going to channel their energy into a variety of activities: work, club, church and community activities and power-leadership positions.

The backgrounds of the Jackson classes entering college in 1949 and 1953 were described in Chapter Two. Data from the Carnegie Study (Tufts University, 1958) showed that

entering classes are vastly different in their secondary school leadership participation. The 1953 entrants, who were freshmen at Jackson College one year before the women who were members of the 1958 class sample, had held more leadership level positions before they came to college than had the 1949 entrants (members of the 1953 class). Though exact evidence is not available for the 1958 class, it appears likely that the entrants to this class had also held more leadership level positions than the 1949 entrants, since recent entering Jackson classes have all surpassed earlier groups in these activities.

In addition, the Dean of Women¹ observed that the women in the 1958 class have always been outstanding in campus activities and have far out-ranked the members of the 1953 class on these characteristics. However, existing objective evidence does not bear out this point. Tables 20 and 22 summarize the chi square tests calculated, comparing the available leadership information for the two samples: hours spent in extra-curricular activities, number of types of college activities and number of leadership positions in college. The senior and alumnae samples are significantly different on only one of these variables: number of different types of college activities. Indeed, on this particular variable, the 1953 class was superior in that a larger proportion of

¹ Personal communication from the Late Dean Katharine Jeffers, March 10, 1959.

them listed participation in four or more different activities in the yearbook.

Table 20

Number of Hours Spent per Week in Extra-curricular
Activities during Senior Year in College
1958 and 1953 Classes

Class	Number of Hours			Total
	0 - 4	5 - 9	10	
1958	22	17	31	70
1953	15	15	24	54
Total	37	32	55	124
Chi square = .28; df = 2; $P > .10$				

Table 21

Number of Different Types of College Activities,
1958 and 1953 Classes

Class	Number of Activities		Total
	3 or less	4 or more	
1958	41	25	66
1953	19	40	59
Total	60	65	125
Chi square = 11.17; df = 1; $P = .001$			

Table 22

Number of Higher Level Leadership Positions in College,
1958 and 1953 Classes

Class	Number of Positions			Total
	None	One	Two or more	
1958	22	23	25	70
1953	14	19	26	59
Total	36	42	51	129

Chi square = 1.25; df = 2; $P > .10$

One might argue that chi square tests of the above activities have not touched upon the most meaningful aspects of leadership. It is entirely possible that the differences in leadership and extra-curricular performance are qualitative and can only be assessed by observing the campus morale and the accomplishments of the organizations.

Rather than attempting to explain these differences on the basis of leadership background alone, it might well be worth while to examine the other differences between the samples. One of the major differences between the groups is the length of time since college attendance. The seniors were attending school when queried; whereas the members of the second sample have been alumnae for five years. For the seniors, lacking in job experience and unmarried (89% single), there were few experiences on which they could draw to esti-

mate their Desire to Work. The recency and primacy of their activity involvement may have been exceedingly influential in determining their Desire to Work scores. However, for the alumnae, it is likely that college dating and extra-curricular involvement had little effect on estimates of work motivation. Perhaps, as will be pointed out later in this chapter, they were more influenced by their husbands' attitudes, their socio-economic status and their job experience.

Not all activity variables were significant, even for the 1958 sample. No differences between the Upper and Lower Desire to Work groups were found for the number of hours spent in extracurricular activities, number of leadership level positions in college and number of hours the women hope to devote to hobbies in the future. Types of hobbies and individual types of extracurricular memberships were analyzed for possible relationships to work motivations but were not actually included in the study, since the number of participants in each hobby or extracurricular activity was small.

Parents' Influence: Socio-economic Background

For the seniors there were no significant relationships between work motivation and background factors reflecting parental influence. However, three background variables approached significance for the alumnae (Table 16). For the

alumnae high work motivation was associated with: the length of time their mothers had worked after marriage; the lower formal education for their mothers; their fathers' occupational prestige, which was estimated to be average for the sample, rated according to North-Hatt Prestige Scale¹ ratings. All three of these variables can be associated with lower middle class membership. A relatively large number of mothers of the alumnae in the Upper Desire to Work group had worked six or more years after marriage. They acted as models of "working mothers" at a time when it perhaps was not permissible for mothers to work for reasons other than financial ones. These mothers also had a lower level of formal education; fewer had college degrees and more had professional degrees such as the R.N. training beyond high school. Their fathers' occupations were in the middle prestige category, representing sales, insurance, business and lower supervisory positions. It is interesting that many of the alumnae in the Lower Desire to Work groups had fathers with relatively low occupational prestige. Perhaps among the families of these women it is common for wives to engage solely in homemaker-mother roles. Women whose fathers are in professional and semi-professional occupations were equally represented in the work motivation classifications. Though these

¹ Prestige scores were assigned to each occupation according to the scores listed in Shartle (1952). Others were obtained from interpolations made by members of the Ohio State University Sociology Department and by three male raters: two psychology professors and a college placement director.

differences between the Upper and Lower Desire to Work groups are small for the alumnae it seems plausible that the alumnae have been more responsive to their socioeconomic backgrounds than have the seniors, for whom differences such as these were non-existent.

A number of background variables failed to differentiate Desire to Work for either sample. Marital status does not affect work motivation as it was measured in this investigation. Possibly girls with a strong Desire to Work select mates who are in agreement with their wishes; hence it would not make much difference whether they were married or single at the time of this study. The prestige of the older women's husbands' occupations, restricted in range to North-Hatt Scale ratings mainly from 68 to 93, was not related to the women's work motivation. Education of the women's fathers was unrelated to work motivation, but fathers' occupations, more closely associated with socioeconomic level, did differentiate Desire to Work groups for the alumnae. The foreign origin of parents, contrary to observations of other investigators (National Manpower Council, 1957), was not associated with work motivation. The size of the town or city in which the alumnae had lived in the last five years and the size of the town in which both samples of women would prefer to live was also not related to their Desire to Work. Again, this is contrary to the findings of other investigators (National

Manpower Council, 1957). It appears that residence in towns or cities does not affect the Desire to Work so much as it relates to whether or not women actually find appropriate jobs.

Educational Backgrounds

Expression of a desire for education beyond the bachelor's degree and college major were related to a positive interest in employment (Table 16). The younger women who had plans of studying for a graduate degree tended to belong to the Upper Desire to Work group ($P < .10$). Of the members in the 1958 sample, 63 per cent expressed some hope of working for an additional degree, a proportion very similar to that found in a national survey of women who graduated from college in 1956, (Women's Bureau, 1958a) and among Barnard College alumnae (Poverman, 1957). Women in the 1953 sample who professed a desire for future study toward a degree (27% of total sample) did not clearly fall into the Upper Desire to Work group. Many had intentions of obtaining a master's degree in education, a desire which is often more closely related to desire for increments in salary, rather than to career interests. Some women, still single, were possibly preparing themselves for a career to be pursued in the event that they remain unmarried. Those in the alumnae sample who had actually realized their plans to study and to receive an advanced degree (17% of sample) were likely to be in the Upper Desire

to Work group $P < .10$). A total of 43 per cent of the older women have received a graduate degree or have hopes of obtaining one, a proportion lower than that found in other studies.

Choice of college major appeared to be significantly ($P < .10$) related to work desire for the younger sample only. Women with a major in social studies tended to be members of the Upper Desire to Work group and those with a major in science were, on the whole, members of the Lower Desire to Work group. These findings, especially for science majors, are the reverse of those found by other investigators (Havemann & West, 1952; Pines & Weinberger, 1958; Radcliffe College, 1956). Generally it has been found that science majors work more years than women who have majored in other areas. Social science majors, classified among the Social Studies majors, showed a high Desire to Work. This is in line with the findings of other investigators.

College Factors

Variables related to college work proved to be non-significant in differentiating Desire to Work groups. These findings were unlike those of Havemann and West (1952) which indicated that women who worked their way through college were likely to work. Employment while in college was unrelated to future Desire to Work for the two samples under consideration. Neither women who had held college scholarships nor women with high grades were more likely to want to

work than others. High Desire to Work group members did not study more during their senior year in college; neither did the ages at the time they made their vocational decisions differ from the ages at which such decisions were made by those in the Lower group.

Home and Family Attitudes

Of the 16 home-family variables, three consistently differentiated between Upper and Lower Desire to Work groups for both the 1958 and the 1953 samples. These items deal with compromises that must be made if women are to work while their children are small. The American culture clearly defines a mother's job while her children are under six years of age: she must personally care for her children the entire day. The women in both samples who scored high on the Desire to Work scale felt just a little less strongly about devoting themselves entirely to the care of their children than did the other women in the particular sample. Their assessment of the importance of the homemaker role was in essence the same: for both samples, women in the Upper Desire to Work group assigned a somewhat lesser degree of importance to homemaking but still saw its merits. An obvious finding for both samples is that women who show a high Desire to Work feel the need to have someone care for their home and children. Alumnae in the Upper Desire to Work group tended to wish to have their first child 2½ or

more years after marriage ($P < .10$).

Though the above three variables had predictive value for both samples, a large number of home-family attitudinal variables did not significantly differentiate between work motivation groups for either sample. Among the non-significant variables were those that describe the importance of the following roles that women play: mother role, club woman role and volunteer role. The importance of the mother role, culturally clearly defined, was so great that ratings of this role were no different for the Desire to Work groups. It is not surprising that the club woman and volunteer roles had little predictive value since it would appear that women do not make long range plans to adopt such roles, but rather assume them more or less by chance when they have unused leisure time. These findings are in agreement with those of Johnson (1955) who found college women's preference for clubs and volunteer work was unrelated to their "Instrumental" or "Expressive" orientations.

Four variables in this study were similar to those which Johnson tested on a population of college women (items 103, 104, 111 and 112). She found a statistically significant relationship between the women's Instrumental-Expressive orientations and their relationships with their parents. "Expressive" women were found to have had "loving fathers who assumed a protective 'doting' attitude toward them and fostered dependency." "Instrumental" women, on the other

hand had fathers who were "distant" and mothers who stressed the importance of responsible independence. These same parental attitudes were also assessed in the present study, but the investigator was unable to assess them as elaborately as was Johnson because of necessary restrictions placed on the length of the questionnaire. Single multiple choice descriptions were used to study these attitudes. As a result, the variability of responses in the both class samples was restricted. No significant differences were obtained.

In addition to studying the effects of parental relationships, Johnson (1955) investigated the women's attitudes towards their children. Expressively oriented women expected to "enjoy their children in and for themselves"; whereas women with an Instrumental orientation expected "gratification from training them for adulthood." These attitudes were tested in the present investigation by again using multiple choice items. Perhaps the inadequacy of these entirely too direct questions explains the absence of any relationship between responses to the questionnaire items and the women's Desire to Work.

For neither class sample was there an association between the number of children the women want or have and the women's membership in either Desire to Work group. This is especially unusual since the women wish large families, with an average of 3.6 children desired by the women in the 1956 sample and

an average of 3.5 children desired by those in the 1953 class sample. As has been earlier pointed out, mothers who actually work outside the home generally are mothers with fewer children than those who choose to be full-time homemakers. Either the women in these samples are preparing themselves for a heavy load of duties in and outside of the home, or they are making incompatible plans for themselves, which are likely to change as they more nearly approach some of their goals.

Three additional items from the home-family classification of variables proved to be non-significant for both samples. Items 116-118 were selected for inclusion in the study because an analysis of Williams (1956) data showed them to be related to women's presence or absence in the labor force. In his study of women's roles, 521 women from Elmira, New York, were interviewed about the extent to which husbands and wives should participate in making decisions concerning both family members. It was found that significantly more working women, in contrast to homemakers, felt that the job of keeping the home attractive and comfortable should not belong solely to the wife, but to both husband and wife. Working women, as compared with homemakers, assigned the major responsibility of selecting the family car significantly less often to the husband only. These items appeared to demonstrate that working women, at least in some areas of activity, feel that activities traditionally assigned to men

or women are more appropriately performed jointly by both sexes.

Though the items appeared promising, they, in addition to an item about income spending that merely approached significance for Williams' sample of women, did not prove to be significant for the two Jackson College samples. Perhaps the absence of association between family participation in decisions and Desire to Work can be related to the use of the questionnaire method. The questions relating to these variables were phrased in multiple choice form, and it was quite convenient for the respondents to give stereotyped answers without much thought. Williams utilized an interview method which might have elicited more thoughtful answers from the women involved.

Of perhaps greater influence in determining the differences found in these two studies is the fact that Williams' sample was far more heterogeneous in background than were the women from the Jackson College samples. The Elmira sample included women who had not received high school diplomas as well as women who had education beyond the bachelor's degree. In Jackson samples, educational level was constant for the class members, except for those who had attended graduate or professional schools. It seems to the investigator that the less educated women in Williams' sample might have endorsed the traditional women's roles

sufficiently to increase the range of the responses and, by doing so, increased the relevance of the variables to women's work motivation.

Economic Factors

The close relationship between husbands' income and the presence of wives in the labor force has already been discussed. It is for money, though not always primarily so, that women work. For most of the Women's Bureau studies, the husbands' annual income has been used in the analyses. However, this measure of income has not been used in the present study. The women were not asked to record their family income; instead they were asked to estimate what they would consider to be minimum and adequate salaries if only their husbands were working. These questions eliminated any possible embarrassment over their financial status and also covered a greater range of contingencies than would a statement of actual income. Minimum salary estimates clearly differentiated work motivation for both samples. The salary estimates for the samples, however, were not comparable. The Upper Desire to Work group members, of the 1958 sample, for example, expected their husbands' minimum income for the first five years after marriage to be relatively low (under \$4,500) or relatively high (over \$5,500). On the other hand, the older women in the high work motivation group, estimated their husbands' minimum income to be relatively low (under

\$5,000). The investigator is inclined to accept the relatively low rather than the high minimal estimate as valid for the younger sample; possibly the younger women who estimated their husbands' minimum income to be high wanted additional luxuries that even their husbands' salaries could not afford. In any case, it can be said that the women who expected their husbands' minimum income to be less than average for their sample are likely to be in the Upper Desire to Work group.

This same relationship holds for the adequate salary estimates of the high work motivation group of the 1953 sample: women who estimate their husbands' adequate salary to be relatively lower (\$6,000 or less) tended to be in the Upper Desire to Work group. It is possible that these women with high work motivation do not expect their husbands to earn a relatively large salary since they anticipate earning a second income.

The item relating to husbands' adequate incomes did not prove to be significant for the 1958 sample. Since most of these women were not married and had not managed budgets, they were probably not fully aware of the expenses incurred by family living; therefore estimates might not have been realistic.

Job Factors

For the seniors, most of whom have not been employed

full time, job-related variables were not significantly associated with Desire to Work. Finding the "right" job was somewhat related to their willingness to work. This is a sign that the women are in a way selective and would not work on just "any job." Women who were to work as research workers after graduation were not likely to wish to continue working very long. This is an atypical finding similar to the unusual negative relationship between work motivation and a college major in science subjects. Perhaps these science majors picture their jobs as low level jobs without a future. Since they do not plan to attend graduate school as preparation for better jobs, it is possible that they are considering their jobs as stop-gap employment until they marry.

Job-related variables contribute more to the understanding of the work motivation of the older sample than to the younger one. For the older women in the Upper Desire to Work classification, a job is not merely a job, but more a career. This career motivation, not noted in the student group, is very likely a consequence of the greater job experience of the alumnae. After working in a field for some time, one might develop a greater identification with one's occupation; hence career orientation could take the place of mere job orientation. Moreover, further education and greater maturity have undoubtedly contributed to these feelings about the importance of a career.

Consistent with the career interests of the 1953 Upper

Desire to Work group is their wish to work more years after marriage than the women with Lower Desire to Work scores. More of them also have the approval of their husbands or of the people around them than do the women with a lower Desire to Work.

In contrast to the relationship between activity involvement and Desire to Work for the seniors, relatively important job factors were associated with the work motivation of the alumnae.

Reasons for Not Working

From the seniors' replies to the first questionnaire it became rather evident that some of the respondents has strong feelings in opposition to work after marriage; so in the second questionnaire passed out to these respondents, the following question was presented: State the reasons that you in particular have for not working after marriage? The answers the seniors gave to this question were used to form a check list of reasons for not working. This check list was part of the third questionnaire administered to the alumnae. Hence comparable data for the two samples is not available, and meaningful data are present only for the older sample.

The relationships between the reasons given by the older women and their Desire to Work scores are clear-cut and plausible. The Upper Desire to Work group members gave relatively few reasons for not wishing to work, frequently

stating that young children were their only reasons for remaining unemployed. These women wished to remain full-time homemakers only so long as their children required day-round maternal care. They somewhat de-valued the traditional homemaker role, placing less emphasis on being excellent homemakers and giving less importance to remaining at home.

Work Values

Work values were measured in two ways: (1) by simple five point ratings of each item; (2) by ranking sets of six items, equated for Preference Index and for the general factor loadings and chosen for high loadings on the specific factor. Since the same items were used for both scales, an analysis was made of the unrefined five point ratings mainly for methodological reasons.

An examination of the data in Table 16 shows that the Five Point Work Value Rating Scales did not predict Desire to Work as well as did the Ranked Work Value Scales. Three of the possible 12 Five Point Rating Scales predicted the work motivation groups for either the seniors or the alumnae. For the older sample, high scores on the Five Point Interesting Scale were related to high work motivation as were the scores on the Ranked Interesting Scale. However, the results for the two samples on the Five Point Mastery Rating Scale are contradictory. Whereas the alumnae who received the highest

scores on the Mastery Scale were generally in the Upper Desire to Work half, the seniors with these same scores were mostly in the Lower Desire to Work half. The more refined Ranked Mastery Scale administered to the younger sample showed no relationship to work motivation. This latter finding appears to indicate that the former inconsistent trends as measured by the Five Point Mastery Work Value Rating Scale are meaningless. It is safe to say that the Five Point Ratings are more subject to the whims of the respondent than the Ranked Scales. As a consequence, they are not as valuable as the Ranked Scales which control for social desirability of the items and for the general factor or high over-all ratings.

The Ranked Work Value Scales showed some interesting relationships to work motivation. The scores on the Ranked Dominance Work Value Scale, the only scale significant for the older sample, were previously discussed in relation to the activity involvement of the seniors. It was found that the Desire to Work Scores of the seniors were predominately influenced by their earlier leadership participation and estimates of future activity involvement. It is noteworthy that none of the other Ranked Work Value Scales were significantly related to the work motivation scores of the members of the 1968 sample. Since they lacked work experience it is likely that they were unable to properly rate their work

values. The Dominance Value, closely related to leadership functions, may have been easy for the women to rate since in part the values were related to extracurricular leadership behavior.

More promising results were found in studying the work values of the older sample. Women in the Upper Desire to Work group scored high on the Ranked Interesting and Ranked Mastery Scales. Women who wanted to work were seeking variety, interesting activities and relief from monotony and boredom. They stated a need to use their abilities and education and to continue learning and advancing themselves. These older women were not merely exhibiting a need to be active and to be leaders; they also showed a more masculine, purposeful pattern of work values, stressing the need for variety and achievement. In this respect the Upper Desire to Work group women were similar to the "Instrumentally" or cognitively oriented college women described by Johnson (1955). Margaret Mead (1949) would also label them relatively masculine, for they reject monotonous activities and favor actions that relate to achievement.

The women of the 1953 Lower Desire to Work group gave less cognitive values as descriptive of themselves. In general they scored higher on the Ranked Social and Ranked Independence Work Values. The Social Work Values they exhibited were closely related to traditional feminine behav-

ior; they desired to mix with people and to be of help to people. Here again these women hold much in common with the "Expressively" oriented women in Johnson's (1955) study: they chose to socialize rather than to become involved in varied activities that might lead to personal achievement. Personal Independence as it may be achieved through employment is something that also appeals to women with a Low Desire to Work. Since women in the low work classification have endorsed the traditional homemaker-mother role, they have, as Kluckhohn (Women's Bureau, 1955) has pointed out, substituted their individual autonomy for family or group goals. Were these women with low motivation to work, they would wish to regain the personal Independence often lost when the homemaker role is assumed.

Work values relating to daily financial necessities and to luxuries have failed to differentiate between Desire to Work classifications for either sample. While financial needs are known to bring women into the labor force, they are not, at least as described in the Economic Work Value Scale, among the variables that differentiate the work motivation groups. The women's ratings gave no indication that economic needs were the major determinants of Desire to Work. It is true that they gave, on the average, high ratings to Desire to Work conditions that described inadequate financial situations; but their conceptions of the homemaker-mother roles they should play and their needs for variety, achieve-

ment, and activity were probably more important in determining the general level of their Desire to Work. Economic needs were equally important for the work motivation classifications of each sample. Possibly the women in the Lower Desire to Work groups felt that if they were to work it would be for financial reasons, hence giving on the average, moderately high Economic Value ratings. Women in the Upper Desire to Work groups might have stressed Economic Values as one of many reasons for working, therefore giving them only moderately high ratings. The scale, after all, is based upon relative scores, i.e., when certain scores are given relatively high ratings, others must receive lower ratings as a consequence.

When the differences between the means of the Ranked Work Values for all members of both samples were calculated, the mean score of the Ranked Independence Work Value was significantly lower ($P = .05$), or according to the scoring technique actually higher, in value for the 1958 sample than for the 1953 sample. This means that the younger women more than the alumnae hoped to obtain personal Independence through work. Most of these young women have been supported for their entire lives by their parents. After regularly receiving salaries from their first post-graduate jobs, they probably will have felt truly self-sufficient for the first time in their lives. In addition to the self-sufficiency that comes from employment after college, the high valuation of Inde-

pendence might reflect the immaturity of their choices of work values. The desire for Independence obtained through work does not indicate any real interest in a job, but instead a wish to be free from the domination and financial support of others. In a way, these women are over-estimating the importance of Independence, just as were the feminists in the early quarter of the twentieth century. The younger women were protesting against dependency and had not realized the more permanent Work Values that later supplant this somewhat immature one.

Validity Generalization of Predictor Weights

By combining predictor weights, developed from the significant variables from one sample and applied to the remaining class sample, significant ($P < .05$) predictions could be made about membership in the Desire to Work groups of the samples. Validity generalization does exist for combined weights developed on the 1958 class sample and applied to the 1953 class sample and vice versa. But individual items tested for validity generalization showed a high proportion of shrinkage from sample to sample. The three items that consistently withstood the test of cross-validation dealt with the homemaker-mother role; the importance of the homemaker role, the need for constant maternal care of young children and the need for a mother surrogate when the mother is working. Apparently these characteristics are well-defined by

the culture and are well understood without the experience that comes from being a working wife or mother.

In addition to these three variables, a fourth one dealing with additional education already received was used in combination to predict the Desire to Work scores of the 1953 class from the 1958 class weights. By using only four predictor weights instead of all 13 weights from the 1958 class, the predictive value of the weight was raised so that it was possible to predict membership in the Upper Desire to Work group at the .001 level of significance. By establishing a cutting score of "4", a large proportion (72%) of the Upper Desire to Work half could be identified, with a small proportion (14%) of the Lower half incorrectly classified.

By following the same procedure for the 1958 class, the three homemaker-mother role variables were included along with an estimation of the number of years the women wished to work after marriage. When the four weights developed on the 1953 sample and applied to the 1958 sample were tested for validity generalization, they significantly predicted Desire to Work group membership at the .001 level of significance. As for the validity generalization test of the items from the older sample applied to the younger one, the predictive value of the weights increased when only four of the 23 weights were used. By establishing a cutting score

of "6" for the Upper Desire to Work group, the majority (68%) of the Upper Desire to Work half could be identified, with a small proportion (28%) of the Lower Desire to Work half incorrectly identified.

It can be concluded that the work motivation of members of these samples can be fairly well dichotomized into Desire to Work groups on the basis of their responses to four items, administered as they were for research purposes. But were these items used as part of a selection battery for purposes of job selection or admission to graduate or professional school, they would unfortunately be easily subject to falsification. Since none of these items are well disguised, it would be easy for applicants to give socially desirable answers appropriate to the situation.

In conclusion, it ought to be pointed out that all of the variables in this study were tested against estimations of Desire to Work in future years. Additional follow-up studies are needed to ascertain which variables actually predict employment during different periods of life. The validity generalization of the variables included in this study and other variables as yet untested need to be tested on populations differing in age, education and occupational interests from these samples.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY

Purpose

This study has been an attempt to assess the relationships between work values, attitudinal items, background factors and women's work motivation. Predictors of Desire to Work have been developed for two Jackson College classes: (1) the 1958 class, seniors at the time of the study; (2) the 1953 class, alumnae of five years.

Methodology

A factor analysis of work value items using an extension of the Wherry-Winer method produced a general factor and six specific factors identified as the following work values: Dominance-recognition; Economic; Independence; Interesting activities-variety; Mastery-achievement; Social. From these, two forms of a work value scale were developed: a five point rating scale and a ranked scale.

A criterion measure of Desire to Work was based upon weighted self-estimations of work motivation under 17 postulated conditions relating to marital status, family size and income. On the basis of the criterion scores, each group was separated in upper and lower halves according to their Desire to Work. The response categories of each of the predictor variables studied were related to these criterion

groups, and the difference tested by means of chi square.

Results

Approximately two-thirds of each class, 70 of the seniors and 60 of the alumnae, replied to a questionnaire. The two classes of women were remarkably similar in estimating their work motivation. Their over-all work motivation was not significantly different. Moreover, the seniors and alumnae reported work motivation patterns relating to marital status, financial status and to number and age of children that approximated statistical data found for American women in general.

Proportionately more variables predicted the work motivation of the alumnae than of the seniors. The alumnae were more certain of the extent of their work motivation and presumably gave a more valid estimate of their Desire to Work because of their greater work experience, their additional education and their greater understanding of the dual homemaker-career role.

Activity involvement was closely associated with work motivation for the seniors, but not related for the alumnae. It is doubtful that this striking difference is merely a reflection of greater activity and leadership potential. Instead, it is felt that these senior women, young and less experienced in activities relating to work motivation, somehow associated activity involvement in college with a busy

schedule of work and outside activities after graduation.

Lower middle class membership was associated with a high Desire to Work among the alumnae, but was unrelated to work motivation among the seniors. Father's occupation, mother's education and her work experience are the socio-economic variables that expressed aspects of parental influence upon the alumnae.

A desire for additional education at the graduate school level was associated with high work motivation for the seniors; whereas the actual attainment of the graduate degree was associated with high Desire to Work for the alumnae.

Three variables relating to the homemaker-mother role met the standards of validity generalization and differentiate work motivation classification for both the seniors and the alumnae. These variables concerned the compromises in a woman's traditional homemaker role that must be made if the woman is to be employed outside the home. In addition, the alumnae with high work motivation expressed a desire to have their children somewhat later after marriage than the other class members.

Considerations of minimum and adequate income of husband were related to work motivation. Alumnae with high work motivation clearly chose relatively lower salaries as minimum and adequate for their husbands. Alumnae and some seniors with high work motivation did not expect their husbands' salaries to

be extremely high. They were perhaps expecting to supplement their husband's moderate income with earnings of their own.

Relatively more important job-related variables were associated with the work motivation of the alumnae than with the seniors. Some relationship exists between the seniors' work motivation and their selection of the "right" job and also their choice of work unrelated to research. But for the alumnae, high work motivation was related to career interests, to the desire to work a greater number of years after marriage, and to the way husbands or others felt about their working.

In stating their reasons for not working, the alumnae with high work motivation de-emphasized the traditional homemaker role, gave relatively few reasons for not working and often stated that the presence of young children was their only reason for remaining unemployed.

For the seniors, the Ranked Dominance-recognition Work Value was related to high work motivation. Since the seniors had had little experience in the world of work, it is understandable that only one Work Value Scale showed a relationship to work motivation. This particular scale dealt with a value that described leadership-power relationships not too unlike those present in college leadership positions.

The work values of the alumnae, more likely to be based upon actual job experience, clearly differentiated the work motivation classifications. The women with high work motiva-

tion had assigned themselves rather "masculine" work values described in the Ranked Interesting-variety and Ranked Mastery-achievement Work Value Scales. The alumnae belonging to the high work motivation classification stressed the need for variety in their activities and the need for a sense of achievement in their work outside the home. The alumnae with a relatively low level of work motivation chose "feminine" values as descriptive of their work values which were elaborated in the Ranked Independence and Ranked Social Work Value Scales. Were these women with low work motivation to work, they would hope to gain personal Independence through their employment. Their wish for Independence reflects a desire to regain autonomy often lost to the homemaker who is generally dependent upon her husband. The alumnae with low work motivation also emphasized that work outside the home could provide them with opportunities to meet people and be of help to them.

The seniors placed even greater weight upon the Independence Work Value than did the alumnae. These younger women, for the most part still dependent upon their parents at the time of the study, saw the job situation as one which brought with it personal Independence. Perhaps the wish for Independence as it is available through work is a relatively immature value that will become less important as the women grow older and as they become more cognizant of other work

values.

By developing and combining predictor weights from one class and applying them to another, it was possible to predict significantly the membership in the work motivation classifications. However, by using only the four best predictors from each class and applying them to the other class, the level of prediction was further increased.

APPENDIX

SECTION A

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Table 23

Final Rotated Orthogonal Factor Loadings

Item	Preference Index	Standard Deviation	Factor Loadings							
			G	A	B	C	D	E	F	
<u>SET A</u>										
1. Want to use my education	3.85	1.1	.44	-.05	.11	.16	-.23	.48	-.11	
2. Want to avoid depending upon others	3.41	1.3	.58	-.09	.11	.56	.03	-.08	-.06	
3. Want to help people make decisions	2.80	1.2	.53	.42	-.15	.03	-.06	.05	.19	
4. Want to talk about something other than house- work and child care	3.11	1.4	.46	-.06	-.10	.07	.57	-.05	-.14	
5. Want money to buy basic things	3.53	1.2	.35	-.17	.46	.17	-.16	.02	.00	
6. Want to be help- ful to others	3.79	1.2	.39	-.09	-.23	-.06	-.03	.18	.45	
<u>SET B</u>										
7. Want to be on my own	3.33	1.3	.64	-.18	.15	.56	-.04	-.05	.05	
8. Want money for vacations away from home	2.89	1.4	.56	.01	.37	.08	-.09	.06	.07	
9. Want opportunity to meet people	3.29	1.1	.64	.02	-.13	-.04	.14	.05	.43	
10. Want my life full of diffe- rent events	3.33	1.1	.66	.14	-.18	-.07	.45	.09	.05	
11. Want to use my training	3.62	1.2	.46	-.19	.05	.09	-.10	.36	.10	

cont'd SET B	P.I.	S.D.	G	A	B	C	D	E	F
12. Want to be re- cognized for the work I do	2.68	1.2	.63	.41	.09	.14	-.03	.09	-.09

SET C

13. Want to mingle with people	3.14	1.1	.60	-.04	-.04	-.12	.12	.08	.44
14. Want to feel that life is not dull	3.24	1.4	.56	-.24	.02	.00	.45	.05	.06
15. Want to get better all the time	3.39	1.2	.66	-.11	-.07	.01	.02	.41	.18
16. Want money to spend on self	2.59	1.1	.41	.01	.56	.22	.03	-.22	-.18
17. Want to influ- ence groups	2.24	1.1	.42	.58	-.07	-.05	-.05	.04	.01
18. Want to be in- dependent	3.14	1.3	.66	-.13	.21	.61	-.07	-.05	-.03

SET D

19. Want "pin mo- ney"	2.58	1.4	.39	-.09	.58	.06	.03	-.14	-.07
20. Want to super- vise activities	2.35	1.2	.41	.65	-.04	-.06	.00	-.07	-.02
21. Want to avoid being told what to do	2.45	1.3	.47	.28	.02	.55	-.10	-.11	-.18
22. Want to be a- round the public	2.98	1.2	.39	.19	-.04	-.11	-.03	-.03	.28
23. Want to be ad- vancing all the time	2.97	1.3	.70	-.03	.03	.01	.10	.37	.04
24. Want to avoid boredom	2.86	1.3	.43	-.19	-.02	.15	.34	-.13	.14

<u>SET E</u>	P.I.	S.D.	G	A	B	C	D	E	164 F
25. Want to be recognized	2.23	1.1	.60	.33	-.05	-.01	-.01	.19	.06
26. Want to be get- ting somewhere	3.00	1.2	.68	.00	-.11	.05	.04	.35	.17
27. Want to be in- troduced to dif- ferent people	3.17	1.1	.60	-.10	.03	.11	.19	-.09	.29
28. Want to have nice things	3.03	1.1	.46	.07	.56	-.01	-.02	-.09	-.06
29. Want to avoid sitting around the house do- ing nothing much	3.30	1.4	.52	-.13	.09	.14	.31	-.03	-.01
30. Want to depend upon myself	3.15	1.3	.60	-.15	.19	.67	-.13	-.05	-.02

SET F

31. Want to work because it keeps me younger	2.05	1.1	.40	-.03	.00	-.09	.22	.14	.05
32. Want to be free from the direc- tion of others	2.30	1.3	.42	.18	.03	.62	-.09	-.11	-.23
33. Want to work be- cause I enjoy getting up in the morning and get- ting out	1.86	1.0	.33	.00	-.11	-.01	.12	.24	-.01
34. Want to direct activities of others	2.03	1.0	.47	.72	-.05	.00	-.03	-.11	.01
35. Want money for "shopping spree"	2.50	1.3	.41	.07	.55	-.02	-.01	-.11	-.09
36. Want to avoid being lonely	2.32	1.3	.36	-.04	-.02	-.08	.17	-.18	.40

<u>SET G</u>	P.I.	S.D.	G	A	B	C	D	E	F
37. Want to contribute to the community	3.18	1.0	.25	-.01	-.06	-.11	-.07	-.05	.46
38. Want to get outside the home	2.71	1.1	.52	-.07	.07	.13	.41	-.12	-.05
39. Want to keep up with changes in my occupation	3.00	1.2	.46	-.06	-.19	.12	-.03	.29	.17
40. Want to make money	3.21	1.2	.26	.13	.57	-.05	-.01	-.14	-.18
41. Want to show leadership qualities	2.38	1.1	.44	.63	-.05	-.10	.00	-.04	.05
42. Want to determine what I do	2.89	1.3	.62	-.05	.01	.49	-.07	.10	.00

SET H

43. Want money for attractive clothes	2.76	1.1	.49	.14	.53	.08	.00	-.26	.01
44. Want my efforts to be seen	2.58	1.1	.58	.37	.06	.17	-.09	.03	.00
45. Want to avoid being controlled by others	2.64	1.3	.47	.31	.07	.52	-.08	-.12	-.23
46. Want to know people to do things with	2.80	1.2	.59	-.06	.08	.05	.01	-.09	.44
47. Want to master something	3.02	1.2	.56	.04	-.08	.04	-.04	.39	.07
48. Want to listen to more adult conversations	2.65	1.3	.55	.01	.02	-.11	.29	.15	.04

<u>SET I</u>	P.I.	S.D.	G	A	B	C	D	E	¹⁶⁶ F
49. Want contact with the outside world	3.42	1.0	.60	.02	-.09	-.04	.35	.18	.01
50. Want to use my abilities	3.76	1.0	.63	-.05	.06	.15	-.11	.42	.01
51. Want money to buy essentials in life	3.39	1.2	.35	-.21	.47	.32	-.16	-.09	-.02
52. Want to make friends	3.12	1.1	.66	-.11	-.04	-.03	.15	.03	.44
53. Want people to accept me	2.65	1.2	.57	.26	.10	.13	-.11	.00	.15
54. Want to make my own decisions	3.45	1.3	.70	-.19	.05	.41	.03	.10	.10

SET J

55. Want to stand on my own two feet	3.30	1.3	.61	.08	.02	.59	-.10	.04	-.11
56. Want money for daily expenses	3.26	1.4	.31	-.21	.48	.30	-.15	-.07	-.05
57. Want to keep busy	3.30	1.1	.45	-.23	-.14	-.13	.39	.16	.17
58. Want to feel needed	2.97	1.2	.39	.28	-.08	.14	-.12	-.01	.15
59. Want to make good use of my time	3.80	1.1	.48	-.11	-.28	.00	.19	.32	.15
60. Want opportunity to be of help to people	3.44	1.3	.32	-.01	-.20	-.13	-.18	.29	.51

SET K

61. Want to coordinate activities	2.26	1.2	.49	.41	-.05	-.12	-.05	.20	.06
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cont'd SET K	P.I.	S.D.	G	A	B	C	D	E	F
62. Want to get ahead	2.79	1.2	.55	.04	.15	.17	-.12	.28	-.06
63. Want to contribute to the neighbors	2.33	1.2	.44	.09	-.06	-.12	-.01	.07	.37
64. Want to save money for a "rainy day"	3.06	1.2	.31	-.11	.48	-.01	-.15	.03	.05
65. Want to remain as slim as I should	2.52	1.6	.43	.10	.05	-.12	.25	-.08	.13
66. Want to direct my own life	2.89	1.3	.66	-.01	.04	.60	-.01	-.06	-.02

SET L

67. Want to create something new	2.88	1.2	.43	.15	-.29	.07	.10	.41	-.13
68. Want to avoid loneliness	2.68	1.3	.48	-.15	.06	.07	.07	-.16	.33
69. Want to be a leader	2.73	1.2	.42	.60	-.01	-.01	-.09	.06	-.07
70. Want to do more than housework	3.18	1.4	.36	.05	-.10	-.14	.51	.09	-.17
71. Want to make my own life	2.89	1.4	.57	-.01	.08	.57	-.02	-.07	-.07
72. Want money to live in a better community	2.67	1.4	.35	-.24	.48	.09	.02	-.01	-.07

SET M

73. Want to feel unrestricted	2.92	1.3	.65	.12	.13	.51	-.06	-.01	-.16
74. Want money to buy a home	2.97	1.4	.31	.03	.42	-.27	.04	.08	-.01

cont'd SET M	P.I.	S.D.	G	A	B	C	D	E	F
75. Want to be with people in my occupation	3.00	1.2	.54	-.13	-.05	.02	.10	.16	.25
76. Want to avoid dull housework	2.48	1.4	.51	.12	-.10	-.02	.50	.00	-.11
77. Want to develop my skills	3.30	1.2	.50	-.01	-.11	-.23	.11	.43	.14
78. Want to feel important	2.29	1.1	.51	.38	.08	.13	.01	-.04	-.06

SET N

79. Want money for independent income	2.90	1.4	.56	-.11	.36	.29	-.08	.09	-.09
80. Want to run my own life	3.08	1.3	.70	-.11	.19	.56	-.10	.02	.01
81. Want to make decisions	2.66	1.2	.65	.40	-.04	.25	-.06	.09	-.03
82. Want to keep mentally active	3.76	1.1	.56	-.05	-.11	-.04	.16	.38	.06
83. Want opportunity to work with people	3.42	1.1	.58	.00	-.13	-.06	-.06	.14	.51
84. Want to vary my experiences	3.39	1.2	.60	.08	.01	.10	.35	-.06	-.12

List of Work Value Items Used in the Scale on Which the Factor Analysis was Based, But Not Included in the Final Work Value Scale

Want to guide others	Want to build up a big bank account
Want to get something done	Want people to know my name
Want money for a second car	Want to lead a full life
Want my talents recognized	Want to avoid getting into a rut
Want to know more than others about something	Want more information
Want to learn something well	Want to continue learning
Want a chance to be myself	Want to show my talents
Want to help society	Want approval
Want money for "extras" in life	Want to avoid being a burden to others
Want to take pride in my work	Want to be the head of a group
Want a chance to express myself	Want something new to talk about
Want people to know what I do	Want to come across interesting things
Want to be identified as an individual	Want people to get to know me
Want to make friends	Want new experiences
Want to be around people; am at my best when I'm around them	Want to be as attractive as possible
Want my conversations to be interesting	Want people to see my abilities
Want to show my abilities	Want to be supervisor over others
Want to dress nicely	Want money to invest in stocks and bonds
Want my work to be appreciated	Want to preside over people
	Want money to pay for food and rent

Want to express my inner self	Want to do something which catches my interest
Want to avoid restricting my family's activities, interests	Want to avoid being limited in what I do
Want to improve myself	Want different types of acquaintances
Want to lead others	Want a new viewpoint on life
Want to lead the way	Want my work to be appreciated
Want to carry on for other people	Want people to respect me
Want to be self-reliant	Want to be influential
Want to conduct matters	Want to be head of things
Want to help husband through school	Want to do something in my lifetime
Want to vary my activities	Want people to look up to me
Want to be master of the situation	Want to live up to my expectations of myself
Want to get at the "bottom of things"	Want to be among well-known people
Want to be with associates in occupation	Want to regulate groups
Want to find out more about things	Want to manage things
Want recognition; family does not recognize me	Want something to say about my life
Want social contacts	Want a reputation
Want to be a successful person	Want to be different from other people
Want to occupy myself with something	

SECTION C

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Reproduced Copy of the Third Questionnaire,
Sent to the Jackson College Class of 1953

16 Lancaster St.
Cambridge, Mass.
July 1958

Dear Classmate,

I wonder if you've looked at your Tufts Jumbo Yearbook lately? I have done so in preparation for the research you may have read about in the May issue of the Tufts Alumni Review. I am doing a questionnaire study which is concerned with the attitudes of Jackson girls (classes '53 and '58) toward future employment. I am sure that this research for my Ph.D. in psychology at the Ohio State University will provide much valuable information about Jackson girls as a group. The material is, of course, confidential and no information will be used individually. A summary of the results will be published in the Tufts Alumni Review.

There is considerable need for the kind of information this study can offer. The problem of whether or not to work at different stages of life faces every woman. Maybe the results of this investigation can be of assistance to women making these decisions.

There are four parts to the questionnaire. Part I describes conditions under which women work. Part II deals with reasons for working and is to be completed in two different ways (for directions see Part II a and Part II b). Parts III and IV are concerned with your opinions and personal background.

The value of this study depends to a great extent upon how many of the 104 alumnae answer the questionnaire. The meaningfulness of the study increases as the proportion of the replies increases. The class of '58 has already been very enthusiastic and cooperative in responding to this study. Will you as a member of the class of '53 please fill out the questionnaire right away and return it to me in the enclosed self-addressed envelope?

Sincerely yours,

(Mrs.) Lorraine Dittrich Eyde, Jackson '53

Below are some conditions under which women work. Rate yourself on the 17 conditions considering the way you have felt about working since your graduation from college, with some forethought to future years. If you have not been employed, speculate as to how you might have felt about holding a job.

1. After each condition which has applied to you, encircle yes or no according to whether or not you worked under this condition.
2. Then consider how much you wanted to work or will want to work under each condition. (Be sure to rate yourself on all 17 conditions.)
3. Using the separate answer sheet, make these ratings in the same way you would answer a set of multiple choice items.

1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
I	.. I	 I	 I	 I
I	.. I	 I	 I	 I
I	.. I	 I	 I	 I

I would (did) not want to work under this condition	I would <u>hard-</u> <u>ly</u> want (hard- <u>ly</u> wanted) to work under this condition	I would(did) somewhat want to work under this condition	I would(did) want to work under this condition	I would (did) <u>very much</u> want to work under this condition
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1. Single(have worked: yes no)	6. Married; one child between 1 month & 2 years; salary of husband not adequate (have worked: yes no)
2. Married; no children; husband's salary adequate(have worked: yes no)	7. Married; 2 or more children between 1 month & 2 years; salary of husband not adequate (have worked: yes no)
3. Married; no children; husband's salary not adequate (have worked: yes no)	8. Married; one child between 2 & 4 years; husband's salary adequate (have worked: yes no)
4. Married; one child between 1 month & 2 years; husband's salary adequate (have worked: yes no)	9. Married; 2 or more children between 2 & 4 years; husband's salary adequate (have worked: yes no)
5. Married; 2 or more children between 1 month & 2 years; husband's salary adequate(have worked: yes no)	

10. Married; one child between 2 & 4 years; salary of husband not adequate (have worked: yes no)
11. Married; 2 or more children between 2 & 4 years; salary of husband not adequate (have worked: yes no)
12. Married; one child between 4 & 6 years; salary of husband adequate (have worked: yes no)
13. Married; 2 or more children between 4 & 6 years; salary of husband adequate (have worked: yes no)
14. Married; one child between 4 & 6 years; salary of husband not adequate (have worked: yes no)
15. Married; 2 or more children between 4 & 6 years; salary of husband not adequate (have worked: yes no)
16. Married; child(ren) between age of 6 & 12
17. Married; child(ren) between age of 13 & 19

Part II : REASONS FOR WORKING

Part II a DIRECTIONS

Below are some reasons for which women work for pay. Rate yourself on the following reasons for working, considering the way you have felt about work since your graduation from college, with some forethought to future years. If you have not been employed, speculate as to how you might have felt about holding a job. Consider how much each reason has applied or will apply to you. Using the separate answer sheet, answer them as you would multiple choice items.

1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
1	1	1	1	1
2	2	2	2	2
3	3	3	3	3
4	4	4	4	4
5	5	5	5	5

This reason
does not
apply to me
at all

This reason
applies to me
slightly

This reason
applies to me
to a moderate
degree

This reason
applies to me
to a high
degree

This reason
applies to me
almost perfectly

SET A

18. ____ Want to use my education
19. ____ Want to avoid depending upon others
20. ____ Want to help people make decisions
21. ____ Want to talk about something other than housework and child care
22. ____ Want money to buy basic things
23. ____ Want to be helpful to others

SET C

30. ____ Want to mingle with people
31. ____ Want to feel that life is not dull
32. ____ Want to get better all the time
33. ____ Want money to spend on self
34. ____ Want to influence groups
35. ____ Want to be independent

SET E

42. ____ Want to be recognized
43. ____ Want to be getting somewhere
44. ____ Want to be introduced to different people
45. ____ Want to have nice things
46. ____ Want to avoid sitting around the house doing nothing much
47. ____ Want to depend upon myself

SET B

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24. ____ Want to be on my own
25. ____ Want money for vacations away from home
26. ____ Want opportunity to meet people
27. ____ Want my life full of different events
28. ____ Want to use my training
29. ____ Want to be recognized for the work I do

SET D

36. ____ Want "pin money"
37. ____ Want to supervise activities
38. ____ Want to avoid being told what to do
39. ____ Want to be around the public
40. ____ Want to be advancing all the time
41. ____ Want to avoid boredom

SET F

48. ____ Want to work because it keeps me younger
49. ____ Want to be free from the direction of others
50. ____ Want to work because I enjoy getting up in the morning and getting out
51. ____ Want to direct activities of others
52. ____ Want money for "shopping sprees"
53. ____ Want to avoid being lonely

SET G

54. ___ Want to contribute to the community
55. ___ Want to get outside the home
56. ___ Want to keep up with changes in my occupation
57. ___ Want to make money
58. ___ Want to show leadership qualities
59. ___ Want to determine what I do

SET I

66. ___ Want contact with the outside world
67. ___ Want to use my abilities
68. ___ Want money to buy essentials in life
69. ___ Want to make friends
70. ___ Want people to accept me
71. ___ Want to make my own decisions

SET K

78. ___ Want to coordinate activities
79. ___ Want to get ahead
80. ___ Want to contribute to the neighbors
81. ___ Want to save for a "rainy day"
82. ___ Want to remain as slim as I should
83. ___ Want to direct my own life

SET H

60. ___ Want money for attractive clothes
61. ___ Want my efforts to be seen
62. ___ Want to avoid being controlled by others
63. ___ Want to know people to do things with
64. ___ Want to master something
65. ___ Want to listen to more adult conversation

SET J

72. ___ Want to stand on my own two feet
73. ___ Want money for daily expenses
74. ___ Want to keep busy
75. ___ Want to feel needed
76. ___ Want to make good use of my time
77. ___ Want opportunity to be of help to people

SET L

84. ___ Want to create something new
85. ___ Want to avoid loneliness
86. ___ Want to be a leader
87. ___ Want to do more than housework
88. ___ Want to make my own life
89. ___ Want to live in a better community

SET M	SET N	176
90. _____ Want to feel unrestricted	96. _____ Want money for independent income	
91. _____ Want money to buy a home	97. _____ Want to run my own life	
92. _____ Want to be with people in my occupation	98. _____ Want to make decisions	
93. _____ Want to avoid dull house-work	99. _____ Want to keep mentally active	
94. _____ Want to develop my skills	100. _____ Want opportunity to work with people	
95. _____ Want to feel important	101. _____ Want to vary my experiences	

Part II b DIRECTIONS

Next consider these same items as 14 sets of statements each stating six reasons why some women work for pay. Please rank yourself on each set considering the way you have felt about working since your graduation from college, with some forethought to future years. In each set, place a "1" next to the reason which most applies to you. Then place a "2" next to the reason which second best describes you. Continue giving a different numerical rating to each reason in the set, giving a rating of "6" to the reason which least applies to you.

For example, if in the following set of reasons for working the first reason applies to you least of all and the second reason applies to you most of all, your ratings might look like this:

- 6 Want to be around people
- 1 Want to be supervisor over others
- 3 Want to come across interesting things
- 4 Want to get something done
- 2 Want to avoid being a burden to others
- 5 Want money for "extras" in life

DIRECTIONS

The next items also are to be rated in a multiple choice manner. The alternatives differ and are stated with each item. Use the separate answer sheet.

102. Compare yourself with the Jackson '53 class on the basis of how much you "dated" during your years in college.
(1)much less; (2)less; (3)average; (4)more; (5)much more
103. Rate yourself on how protective and "doting" your father was toward you.
(1)not at all; (2)to a slight degree; (3)to a moderate degree; (4)to a high degree; (5)almost completely
104. Rate yourself on the degree to which your mother stressed the importance of being responsible and independent.
(1)not at all; (2)to a slight degree; (3)to a moderate degree; (4)to a high degree; (5)almost completely
105. Rate yourself as to how important the "homemaker role" is to you.
(1)not at all; (2)to a slight degree; (3)to a moderate degree; (4)to a high degree; (5)to the highest degree
106. Rate yourself as to how important the "mother role" is to you.
(1)not at all; (2)to a slight degree; (3)to a moderate degree; (4)to a high degree; (5)to the highest degree
107. Rate yourself as to how important the "career woman" role" is to you.
(1)not at all; (2)to a slight degree; (3)to a moderate degree; (4)to a high degree; (5)to the highest degree
108. Rate yourself as to how important the "clubwoman role" is to you.
(1)not at all; (2)to a slight degree; (3)to a moderate degree; (4)to a high degree; (5)to the highest degree
109. Rate yourself as to how important the "community and volunteer worker role" is to you.
(1)not at all; (2)to a slight degree; (3)to a moderate degree; (4)to a high degree; (5)to the highest degree
110. How strongly do you feel that a mother with children between the age of one month and 6 years should make every effort to personally care for her young children throughout the entire day?
(1)not strongly at all; (2)not very strongly; (3)moderately strongly; (4)strongly; (5)very strongly

111. If you have or plan to have children, how much do (will) you enjoy training them for adulthood?
(1)not at all; (2)to a slight degree; (3)to a moderate degree; (4)to a high degree; (5)to the highest degree
112. If you have or plan to have children, how much do (will) you "enjoy" them as children in and for themselves?
(1)not at all; (2)to a slight degree; (3)to a moderate degree; (4)to a high degree; (5)to the highest degree
113. How much does (would) your willingness to work relate to whether you can get someone to take care of your home and/or your children?
(1)not at all; (2)to a slight degree; (3)to a moderate degree; (4)to a high degree; (5)to the highest degree
114. How much does (would) your willingness to work relate to how easy it is for you to find the "right" job?
(1)not at all; (2)to a slight degree; (3)to a moderate degree; (4)to a high degree; (5)to the highest degree
115. How much do the people around you (your husband if you are married) approve of the fact that you might want to hold a job after marriage?
(1)not at all; (2)to a slight degree; (3)to a moderate degree; (4)to a high degree; (5)to the highest degree
116. In your home, whose job is it or will it mainly be to see to it that the home is attractive & a comfortable place to live in?
(1)wife; (2)husband; (3)both husband & wife
117. In your home, whose job is it or will it mainly be to decide how the family income should be spent in any given week?
(1)wife; (2)husband; (3)both husband and wife
118. In your home, whose job is it or will it mainly be to select the car the family is going to buy?
(1)wife; (2)husband; (3)both husband and wife

PART IV

Please complete the following items.

119. Single____; engaged____; married(state no. of years)____;
divorced____; widowed____;
120. If you worked your way through college, what percent of your expenses did you earn?
less than 25%____; 25% to 50%____; 50% to 75%____; 75%____;

121. If you had a scholarship in college, how much money did you receive throughout your 4 years in college? \$ _____
122. Cumulative college grade average (be specific 3.2 or 2.5)

123. How many hours did you spend in study on the average, each week during your senior year in college? _____ hours
124. Indicate the average number of hours you spent each week in extracurricular activities during your senior year in college
_____ hours
125. How old were you when you decided to go into the field of work for which you were trained in college? _____ years
126. How many years, if any, did your mother work for pay after she was married? _____ years
127. Father's occupation (be specific, such as operator of a retail store or a bookkeeper in an automobile plant; if retired or deceased, give former occupation) _____
128. Husband's occupation (also be specific and indicate future occupation if he is a student at present) _____
129. List the last three job titles of positions you have held since June '53 including the present one. Be specific with job titles such as elementary school teacher or secretary to a chemist.
Job titles	Duration		Full or part-time
	From	To	
_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____
130. How much education have your parents and husband had? Check the highest level.

	<u>mother</u>	<u>father</u>	<u>husband</u>
elementary school	_____	_____	_____
high school	_____	_____	_____
college	_____	_____	_____
graduate school (state years)	_____	_____ years	_____ years
professional school (years)	_____	_____ years	_____ years

131. Place a check after the degrees or training you have received since your bachelor's degree. Then place an X after degrees you hope to receive.
master's degree____; doctorate____; professional degree (state kind)____; other training (state kind)_____;

132. Birthplace (country) of parents
father_____
mother_____

133. Check the size of the town in which you have lived during the past five years. Then place an X after the size of the town in which you would like to live.
under 1,000____; 1,000-10,000____; 10,000-50,000____; 50,000-100,000____; 100,000 and more_____;

134. If only your husband were working, how much of an income (yearly) would or have you considered to be adequate for the first five years of marriage? \$_____thousand

135. If only your husband were working, how much of an income (yearly) would or have you considered to be minimum for the first five years after marriage? \$_____thousand

136. For a period of how many years would you like to work after marriage? _____years; Number of years you worked after marriage_____years

137. How long after marriage would you like to have your first child? _____years; First child was born after _____ years of marriage

138. How many children would you like to have?_____

139. List the children you now have:

<u>Name</u>	<u>Sex</u>	<u>Age</u>
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____

140. How many hours each week would you like to spend on activities outside the home? These include such activities as clubs, church groups, civic and community activities, etc.
_____hours per week

141. List your favorite hobbies. How many hours per week would you like to spend on each?

1. _____hours per week
2. _____hours per week

142. Check your reasons for not working or wanting to work after marriage: husband's objection____; presence of young children____; health reasons____; don't like work____; feel wife's place is in the home____; want to be an excellent homemaker____;

Thank you for completing this questionnaire!

SECTION D

182

Chi Square Tables for Distributions of All Variables Significantly
($P \leq .10$) Differentiating Between Desire to Work Groups

Table 24
Relative Amount of College Dating, Classified
According to Desire to Work Scores, 1958 Class

Desire to Work Scores	Dating			Total
	Less	Average	More	
Upper Half	5	6	23	34
Lower Half	12	10	14	36
Total	17	16	37	70

Chi square=6.03; df=2; $P=.05$

Table 25
Importance of Homemaker Role, Classified
According to Desire to Work Scores, 1958 Class

Desire to Work Scores	Homemaker Role			Total
	Moderate Degree or Less	High Degree	Highest Degree	
Upper Half	13	16	5	34
Lower Half	7	16	13	36
Total	20	32	18	70

Chi square=5.29; df=2; $P=.08$

Table 26

183

Degree of Importance Attached to Day-Round
Care of Young Children by Mother, Classified
According to Desire to Work Scores, 1958 Class

Desire to Work Scores	Importance of Maternal Care		Total
	Strongly & Less Strongly	Very Strongly	
Upper Half	16	18	34
Lower Half	5	31	36
Total	21	49	70
Chi square=9.15; df=1; P=.01			

Table 27

Degree of Willingness to Work in Relationship
to Availability of Caretaker of Home and Children,
Classified According to Desire to Work Scores, 1958 Class

Desire to Work Scores	Degree of Relationship			Total
	Not at All	Slight to High Degree	Highest Degree	
Upper Half	7	15	12	34
Lower Half	15	16	5	36
Total	22	31	17	70
Chi square=8.76; df=2; P=.06				

Table 28
Degree of Willingness to Work in Relationship to
Finding the "Right" Job, Classified According to
Desire to Work Scores, 1958 Class

184

Desire to Work Scores	Degree of Relationship			Total
	Not at all & Slight Degree	Moderate Degree	High Degree	
Upper Half	5	11	18	34
Lower Half	13	6	17	36
Total	18	17	35	70

Chi square=5.00; df=2; P=.09

Table 29
Job Title after Graduation, Classified According to
Desire to Work Scores, 1958 Class

Desire to Work Scores	Job Title		Total
	Research	Others	
Upper Half	1	19	20
Lower Half	7	15	22
Total	8	34	42

Using Yates's Correction, Chi square=3.80; df=1; P=.07

Table 30
Additional Formal Education Expected, Classified
According to Desire to Work Scores, 1958 Class

185

Desire to Work Scores	Education Expected		Total
	Some plans	No plans	
Upper Half	25	9	34
Lower Half	18	17	35
Total	43	26	69

Chi square=3.59; df=1; P=.06

Table 31
Minimum Family Income, with Only Husband Working,
Classified According to Desire to Work Scores, 1958 Class

Desire to Work Scores	Minimum Family Income			Total
	Under \$4,500	\$4,500 to \$5,500	Over \$5,500	
Upper Half	8	11	12	31
Lower Half	6	24	6	36
Total	14	35	18	67

Chi square=6.77; df=2; P=.06

186

Table 32
Number of Hours of Outside Activity Desired,
Classified According to Desire to Work Scores, 1958 Class

Desire to Work Scores	Hours Per Week		Total
	5 & Under	6 to 15	
Upper Half	14	18	32
Lower Half	25	11	36
Total	39	29	68

Chi square=4.57; df=1; P=.05

Table 33
College Major, Classified According
to Desire to Work Scores, 1958 Class

Desire to Work Scores	Major			Total
	Social Studies	Humanities	Science	
Upper Half	22	7	5	34
Lower Half	14	9	13	36
Total	36	16	18	70

Chi square=5.52; df=2; P=.07

Table 34
Number of Different Types of College Activities,
Classified According to Desire to Work Scores, 1958 Class

187

Desire to Work Scores	Number of Activities		Total
	3 or less	4 or more	
Upper Half	14	16	30
Lower Half	27	9	36
Total	41	25	66

Chi square=5.60; df=1; P=.02

Table 35
Five Point Mastery Ratings, Classified
According to Desire to Work Scores, 1958 Class

Desire to Work Scores	Mastery Rating Scores				Total
	Low (17-39)	Medium (40-46)	High (47-51)	(52-65)	
Upper Half	8	5	13	8	34
Lower Half	8	11	4	13	36
Total	16	16	17	21	70

Chi square=8.14; df=3; P=.05

Table 36
Ranked Dominance Scale Scores, Classified
According to Desire to Work Scores, 1958 Class

188

Desire to Work Scores	Ranked Dominance Scores		Total
	High (29-61)	Low (62-80)	
Upper Half	19	7	26
Lower Half	9	20	29
Total	28	27	55
Chi square=9.69; df=1; P=.01			

Table 37
Importance of Homemaker Role, Classified
According to Desire to Work Scores, 1953 Class

Desire to Work Scores	Homemaker Role		Total
	High Degree or Less	Highest Degree	
Upper Half	26	4	30
Lower Half	19	11	30
Total	45	15	60
Chi square=4.34; df=1; P=.05			

Table 38
Importance of Career Role, Classified
According to Desire to Work Scores, 1953 Class

189

Desire to Work Scores	Career Role			Total
	Not at All	Slight Degree	Moderate or Greater Degree	
Upper Half	6	10	14	30
Lower Half	15	5	10	30
Total	21	15	24	60

Chi square=8.16; df=2; P=.05

Table 39
Degree of Importance Attached to Day-Round
Care of Young Children by Mother, Classified
According to Desire to Work Scores, 1953 Class

Desire to Work Scores	Importance of Maternal Care		Total
	Strongly & Less Strongly	Very Strongly	
Upper Half	20	10	30
Lower Half	5	25	30
Total	25	35	60

Chi square=15.42; df=1; P=.001

Table 40

190

Degree of Willingness to Work in Relationship
To Availability of Caretaker of Home and Children,
Classified According to Desire to Work Scores, 1953 Class

Desire to Work Scores	Degree of Relationship			Total
	Not at All & Slight Degree	Moderate & High Degree	Highest Degree	
Upper Half	5	12	13	30
Lower Half	15	9	5	29
Total	20	21	18	59

Chi square=8.92; df=2; P=.02

Table 41

Approval of Holding Job after Marriage
Classified According to Desire to Work Scores, 1953 Class

Desire to Work Scores	Degree of Approval		Total
	Moderate Degree or Less	High & High- est Degree	
Upper Half	12	18	30
Lower Half	20	8	28
Total	32	26	58

Chi square=5.77; df=1; P=.02

Table 42
Years Mother Worked after Marriage, Classified
According to Desire to Work Scores, 1953 Class

191

Desire to Work Scores	Years Mother Worked			Total
	None	Five or Less	Six or More	
Upper Half	15	4	10	29
Lower Half	13	11	5	29
Total	28	15	15	58

Chi square=5.08; df=2; P=.08

Table 43
North-Hatt Prestige Scale Ratings of Fathers' Occupations,
Classified According to Desire to Work Scores, 1953 Class

Desire to Work Scores	Prestige of Occupation			Total
	Low (45-70)	Medium (71-77)	High (78-93)	
Upper Half	5	10	14	29
Lower Half	11	4	15	30
Total	16	14	29	59

Chi square=4.83; df=2; P=.09

Table 44
Education of Mother, Classified
According to Desire to Work Scores, 1953 Class

192

Desire to Work Scores	Education of Mother			Total
	High School or Less	College	Professional* Training	
Upper Half	17	7	6	30
Lower Half	16	13	1	30
Total	.33	20	7	60

Chi square=5.42; df=2; P=.07

*Professional training includes mainly those with R.N. degrees (Cell frequency small)

Table 45
Degree Received Beyond Bachelor's, Classified
According to Desire to Work Scores, 1953 Class

Desire to Work Scores	Additional Education		Total
	Degree	None	
Upper Half	8	21	29
Lower Half	2	28	30
Total	10	49	59

Using Yates's Correction, Chi square=3.22; df=1; P=.08

Table 46
Adequate Family Income with Only Husband Working,
Classified According to Desire to Work Scores, 1953 Class

193

Desire to Work Scores	Adequate Family Income		Total
	\$8,000 or Less	Over \$8,000	
Upper Half	18	10	28
Lower Half	12	17	29
Total	30	27	57

Chi square=2.99; df=1; P=.09

Table 47
Minimum Family Income with Only Husband Working,
Classified According to Desire to Work Scores, 1953 Class

Desire to Work Scores	Minimum Family Income		Total
	\$5,000 or Less	Over \$5,000	
Upper Half	23	5	28
Lower Half	17	12	29
Total	40	17	57

Chi square=3.78; df=1; P=.05

Table 48
Years Desire to Work after Marriage, Classified
According to Desire to Work Scores, 1953 Class

194

Desire to Work Scores	<u>Years Work After Marriage</u>		Total
	<u>One Year or Less</u>	<u>More Than One Year</u>	
Upper Half	4	20	24
Lower Half	15	9	24
Total	19	29	48

Using Yates's Correction, Chi square=8.71; df=1; P=.01

Table 49
Years after Marriage Desire to have Child,
Classified According to Desire to Work Scores, 1953 Class

Desire to Work Scores	<u>Years Have Children After Marriage</u>		Total
	<u>2½ Years or Less</u>	<u>More than 2½ Years</u>	
Upper Half	15	8	23
Lower Half	25	3	28
Total	40	11	51

Using Yates's Correction, Chi square=3.02; df=1; P=.09

195

Table 50
Reason for Not Wishing to Work: Wife's Place is in the Home,
Classified According to Desire to Work Scores, 1953 Class

Desire to Work Scores	Wife's Place in the Home		Total
	Yes	No*	
Upper Half	5	24	29
Lower Half	15	15	30
Total	20	39	59

Chi square=7.06; df=1; P=.01

*Reason not checked by respondents.

Table 51
Reason for Not Wishing to Work: Want to be
Excellent Homemaker, Classified According to
Desire to Work Scores, 1953 Class

Desire to Work Scores	Want to be Excellent Homemaker		Total
	Yes	No*	
Upper Half	7	22	29
Lower Half	15	15	30
Total	22	37	59

Chi square=4.21; df=1; P=.05

*Reason not checked by respondents.

196

Table 52
Only Reason for Not Wishing to Work: Presence of Children,
Classified According to Desire to Work Scores, 1953 Class

Desire to Work Scores	Children Only Reason		Total
	Yes	No*	
Upper Half	12	17	29
Lower Half	5	25	30
Total	17	42	59

Chi square=4.37; df=1; P=.05

*Reason not checked by respondents.

Table 53
Number of Reasons for Not Wishing to Work,
Classified According to Desire to Work Scores, 1953 Class

Desire to Work Scores	Number of Reasons		Total
	One or None	Two or More	
Upper Half	17	12	29
Lower Half	8	22	30
Total	25	34	59

Chi square=6.16; df=1; P=.02

Table 54
Five Point Interesting Work Value Ratings,
Classified According to Desire to Work Scores, 1953 Class

197

Desire to Work Scores	Five Point Interesting		Total
	Low (14-41)	High (42-69)	
Upper Half	10	20	30
Lower Half	20	9	29
Total	30	29	59

Chi square=7.47; df=1; P=.01

Table 55
Five Point Mastery Work Value Ratings,
Classified According to Desire to Work Scores, 1953 Class

Desire to Work Scores	Five Point Mastery				Total
	Low (22-33)	Medium (34-45)	High (46-51)	High (52-69)	
Upper Half	4	8	7	11	30
Lower Half	9	8	9	3	29
Total	13	16	16	14	59

Chi square=6.73; df=3; P=.08

Table 56
Ranked Independence Work Value Scale, Classified
According to Desire to Work Scores, 1953 Class

198

Desire to Work Scores	Ranked Independence		Total
	High (16-57)	Low (58-83)	
Upper Half	10	16	26
Lower Half	18	11	29
Total	28	27	55

Chi square=5.06; df=1; P=.08

Table 57
Ranked Interesting Work Values, Classified
According to Desire to Work Scores, 1953 Class

Desire to Work Scores	Ranked Interesting				Total
	High (19-35)	Medium (36-44)	Medium (47-62)	Low (63-78)	
Upper Half	6	11	7	2	26
Lower Half	8	4	7	10	29
Total	14	15	14	12	55

Chi square=8.78; df=3; P=.05

Table 58
Ranked Mastery Work Values, Classified
According to Desire to Work Scores, 1953 Class

199

Desire to Work Scores	Ranked Mastery			Total
	High (15-34)	Medium (35-44)	Low (45-62)	
Upper Half	16	8	2	26
Lower Half	11	5	13	29
Total	27	13	15	55

Chi square=9.55; df=2; P=.01

Table 59
Ranked Social Work Values, Classified
According to Desire to Work Scores, 1953 Class

Desire to Work Scores	Ranked Social		Total
	High (26-45)	Low (46-70)	
Upper Half	9	17	26
Lower Half	18	11	29
Total	27	28	55

Chi square=4.13; df=1; P=.05

200

Table 60
Total Weighted Scores Developed on 1958 Class and
Applied to 1953 Class, Classified According to Desire to Work

Desire to Work Scores	Total Weighted Scores			Total
	Low (4-12)	Medium (13-15)	High (16-21)	
Upper Half	5	15	9	29
Lower Half	14	8	5	27
Total	19	23	14	56

Chi square=7.47; df=2; P=.05

Table 61
Four Best Predictors Developed on 1958
Class and Applied to 1953 Class(items 105,
110,113,131), Classified According to Desire to Work

Desire to Work Scores	Four Best Predictors		Total
	Low (0-3)	High (4-8)	
Upper Half	8	21	29
Lower Half	25	4	29
Total	33	25	58

Chi square=20.32; df=1; P=.001

Table 62
Importance of Homemaker Role Weight.
Developed on 1958 Class and Applied to 1953
Class, Classified According to Desire to Work

Desire to Work Scores	Homemaker Role			Total
	Low (0)	Medium (1)	High (2)	
Upper Half	3	20	7	30
Lower Half	11	16	3	30
Total	14	36	10	60

Chi square=6.82; df=2; P=.05

Table 63
Degree of Importance Attached to Day-Round Care of
Young Children by Mother. Weight Developed on 1958 Class and
Applied to 1953 Class, Classified According to Desire to Work

Desire to Work Scores	Importance of Maternal Care		Total
	High (0)	Low (1)	
Upper Half	10	20	30
Lower Half	25	5	30
Total	35	25	60

Chi square=15.42; df=1; P=.001

Table 64

202

Degree of Willingness to Work in Relationship to Availability of Caretaker of Home and Children. Weight Developed on 1958 Class and Applied to 1953 Class, Classified According to Desire to Work

Desire to Work Scores	Degree of Relationship			Total
	Low (0)	Medium (1)	High (2)	
Upper Half	2	15	13	30
Lower Half	10	14	5	29
Total	12	29	18	59

Chi square=8.90; df=2; P=.02

Table 65

Additional College Degree Received. Weight Developed on 1958 Class and Applied to 1953 Class, Classified According to Desire to Work

Desire to Work Scores	Education Received		Total
	Low (0)	High (2)	
Upper Half	21	.8	29
Lower Half	28	2	30
Total	49	10	59

Using Yates's Correction, Chi square=3.22; df=1; P=.08

Table 66

203

Total Weighted Scores Developed on 1953 Class and
Applied to 1958 Class, Classified According to Desire to Work

Desire to Work Scores	Total Weighted Scores			Total
	Low (7-17)	Medium (18-22)	High (23-29)	
Upper Half	3	11	11	25
Lower Half	17	7	5	29
Total	20	18	16	54

Chi square=12.72; df=2; P=.01

Table 67

Four Best Predictors Developed on 1953
Class and Applied to 1958 Class(items 105,
110,113,136), Classified According to Desire to Work

Desire to Work Scores	Four Best Predictors		Total
	Low (0-4)	High (6-8)	
Upper Half	11	23	34
Lower Half	26	10	36
Total	37	33	70

Chi square=11.14; df=1; P=.001

Table 68
Importance of Homemaker Role. Weight
Developed on 1953 Class and Applied to 1958
Class, Classified According to Desire to Work

Desire to Work Scores	<u>Homemaker Role</u>		Total
	<u>High</u> (0)	<u>Low</u> (2)	
Upper Half	5	29	34
Lower Half	12	24	36
Total	17	53	70

Chi square=3.31; df=1; P=.07

Table 69
Degree of Importance Attached to Day-Round Care of
Young Children by Mother. Weight Developed on 1953 Class and
Applied to 1958 Class, Classified According to Desire to Work

Desire to Work Scores	<u>Importance of Maternal Care</u>		Total
	<u>High</u> (0)	<u>Low</u> (2)	
Upper Half	18	16	34
Lower Half	31	5	36
Total	49	21	70

Chi square=9.15; df=1; P=.01

Table 70

205

Degree of Willingness to Work in Relationship to Availability of
Caretaker of Home and Children. Weight Developed on 1953 Class
and Applied to 1958 Class, Classified According to Desire to Work

Desire to Work Scores	Degree of Relationship		Total
	Low (0)	High (2)	
Upper Half	11	23	34
Lower Half	19	17	36
Total	30	40	70

Chi square=2.98; df=1; P=.09

Table 71

Years Desire to Work after Marriage.
Weight Developed on 1953 Class and Applied
to 1958 Class, Classified According to Desire to Work

Desire to Work Scores	Years Work After Marriage		Total
	Low (0)	High (2)	
Upper Half	5	28	33
Lower Half	12	23	35
Total	17	51	68

Chi square=3.32; df=1; P=.07

Table 72

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Five Point Mastery Ratings Weight. Developed on 1953 Class
and Applied to 1958 Class, Classified According to Desire to Work

Desire to Work Scores	Five Point Mastery Ratings			Total
	Low (0)	Medium (1)	High (2)	
Upper Half	19	7	8	34
Lower Half	10	13	13	36
Total	29	20	21	70

Chi square=5.72; df=2; P=.06

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I, Lorraine Dittrich Eyde, was born in New York City, New York, February 20, 1932. I obtained my secondary school education in the public schools of New York City and in 1953 received a Bachelor of Science degree from Tufts University. The Ohio State University granted me a Master of Arts degree in 1954. While studying for this degree I was a Graduate Resident at one of the university's residence halls for women.

During the academic year of 1954-55 I held a fellowship granted through the Institute for International Education for study at the University of Heidelberg in Germany.

During the period of 1955-57 I was a Teaching Assistant at the Ohio State University. Since January 1958 I have held a position as Research Assistant and Instructor at Tufts University.