The Effects of Sex-Role Attitudes on Women's Self-Actualization and Life Satisfaction

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THE EFFECTS OF SEX-ROLE ATTITUDES ON WOMEN'S SELF-ACTUALIZATION AND LIFE SATISFACTION

by

Mary Ann Vigilanti

A Dissertation
Submitted to the
Faculty of The Graduate College
in partial fulfillment
of the
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Western Michigan University
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The elements which combine to finish dissertations are rooted not only in the labors of the task, but as I came to know for myself, more meaningfully in the motives to pursue such an undertaking in the first place. This pilgrimage has ended with the purpose for which it began—to uncover the woman within the tradition, to come closer to a deeper, more unique sense of self. I hope in some ways this study has contributed toward that end for other women as well.

I offer this dissertation to my first and most significant of teachers, the woman from whom I came and from whom the laboring of my re-birth has been so long—my mother. I thank her for teaching me those qualities "that build character" and which provided me with the foundation to finish this journey.

Along the way there have been many other teachers: in memory of Dr. Ken Engle, my deepest gratitude and appreciation for the kindness and interest which was shown to me in my beginning doctoral years and to Drs. Thelma Urbick, Chris Koronakos and Uldis Smidchens for being a part of the process of endings. I would also like to thank Brian Mitchell, Bob Endias and Drs. Subash Sonnad and Robert Waite for their assistance throughout various phases of this dissertation. For a very special person, Dr. Gene Ballard, a very special place is reserved. It was from his patient and gentle ways that I was able to look further into myself and from his expertise, that I grew as a professional.

To the women who surrounded my life with meaning and with
whom I came to better understand what it means to be a woman: Merry and Chooch, together we touched so many parts of ourselves; Nancy, my loving, gentle and consistent friend; Monica, in whose lust for knowledge, I was able to partake and enjoy; Linda, whose humor rang with such incisiveness so as to reveal the heart of the matter in an instance, and Darlene, whose vitality and power as a woman knows no bounds. The changes we have gone through together will be felt for a long time to come, for these were important times.

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And lastly, to Anne, my long-time and long-distance friend who gave me many moments of life's lighter side in addition to loving supportiveness throughout the final months. I thank you all.

Mary Ann Vigilanti
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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

Introduction

The decade of the 1970's has been identified as a time of rapid social and individual change for women. Changes in sex-role attitudes, expectations, and behaviors were reflected in national polls, in the work force, and in the amount of research and literature devoted to the study of women's issues. There has been a steadily rising egalitarian attitude which is occurring equally among higher and lower socioeconomic levels in the female population (Brown, 1976). Investigators have focused on the rights and roles of women in such areas as vocational, educational, and intellectual activities; family and marital relationships, sexual behaviors and feelings of self-esteem and identity.

Midway through the decade, in 1975, the National Commission on the Observance of International Women's Year undertook a national survey in which women's attitudes, opinions, life patterns, current activities, and views about their futures were assessed. It became apparent after interviewing 1,522 adult women in the United States, that although there has been a sharp rise in changing attitudes and role expectations among women, women as a whole still differed greatly in what they think they should be doing with their lives. These differences were categorized as follows: One-third of the
women surveyed fell into the Traditional Outlook category, their scores showing that they want women's roles to remain unchanged and home centered. Another one-third feel within the middle-range; they want some things to change and others to remain as they are, these women were called Balancing Outlook women. And the final one-third, the Expanding Outlook women, who want every kind of option available including career, children, and marriage. They favor all that is happening to improve women's status (National Commission on the Observance of International Women's Year, 1977). These findings confirm the fact that real differences exist in the attitudes women hold toward their purpose, meaning, and identity and that these attitudes affect the types of choices women are making in regard to the life roles they assume.

Although the survey which was done by the National Commission gave a profile of what American women were doing, thinking and feeling and what they thought they should be doing, thinking and feeling, it did not look to the developmental aspects of a woman's early socialization, nor to the influence of personality attributes, environmental antecedents or parental attitudes and identification. Such variables are crucial to the understanding of the opinions and attitudes which play a part in the roles women occupy, and think they should occupy. Nor did the survey look at the effects which occupying certain roles may have on a woman's ability to actualize herself, or on occupational aspirations, satisfaction with life and educational attainment. Just knowing what a woman's opinions are about the role she should play out in life, contributes little to
the understanding of how some women came to certain conclusions while others came to different ones.

Background of the Problem

It is important to examine the types of influences which shape a woman's attitude toward her roles in society, because in doing so we not only come to understand her behavior, but also the consequences of the behavior. Recent research conducted by Levine (1975) of women in four professional schools found that when asked about roles for adult women, the group with better-educated mothers were more likely to say that their families thought women should pursue careers, occupy positions of leadership, and enter the professions rather than focusing on careers thought to be traditionally for women. Conversely, those women with less-educated mothers stated that they simply were not taught about a variety of career options. The perceptions of familial attitudes toward proper adult roles for women and the choice of a career were both related to the level of the mother's education. Without findings such as Levine's, we remain limited in our understanding of attitude formation.

In a doctoral dissertation done by Agnes O'Connell (1974), it was found that the more non-traditional life styles are related to liberal influences of parents, husbands, peers, employed mothers, high educational levels, college viewed as career training, non-traditionally feminine college majors and occupations positive employment experiences, intrinsic motivation and liberal attitudes and concepts of women's role. Of all the variables which she
examined relating to a woman's choice of life style the one which made the most impact was the daughter's perception of her parents' life style. The role which parental and family influences play in the development of a woman's sense of identity cannot be stressed enough. Consistent findings have been found surrounding the mother's educational attainment and professional occupational levels, as it affects her daughter's role behavior with the more nontraditional women having mothers who were college educated and occupying professional positions (Cherniss, 1972; Crawford, 1976; Dempewolff, 1974).

In a contrasting study by Oliver (1975) which compared career-oriented and homemaking-oriented college women to the relationship of parental attitudes and parent identification, Oliver found that a girl's father is more important than her mother in determining the degree of her career commitment as a collegiate undergraduate. The career-oriented woman perceives her father as less accepting (i.e., less nurturant) than the homemaking-oriented woman. Oliver concludes that if the father is perceived by his daughter as less accepting, she may tend to identify more closely with him. Thus, the less father acceptance and greater father identification of the career-oriented groups were viewed as being influential in developing the relatively higher level of achievement motivation associated with stronger career commitment. Conversely, greater mother identification and greater father acceptance were seen to be related to the development of a relatively higher need for affiliation in the homemaking-oriented areas. Oliver, however, does not discuss whether
the subject's mothers were college educated and career committed themselves. Nonetheless, the importance of the study lies in its support of the proposition that certain familial variables lead to differential motivational patterns which affect women's occupational choices.

In studying personality concomitants and environmental antecedents in sex-role and socialization patterns, Block, Von Der Lippe and Block (1973) cite parental influence as the vehicle through which internalization of norms, values, and self-concept, in short, the socialization of the child occurs. Sex-role typing is one aspect of this socialization process. These researchers found that high-feminine/high-socialized women typified the culturally prescribed feminine sex-role. They were found to be conservative, controlling of impulse, dependable, feminine but not sensuous, docile and conventional; however, they were also found to be indecisive and personally dissatisfied. Their childhood experience suggests a home-and-family-centered environment, where the mother was the more salient parent and a close, warm, sharing mother-daughter relationship existed. These sex-appropriate, socialized individuals seem to derive from family contexts where there is clear and conventional role differentiation between the parents. Block et al. (1973) conclude that socialization for women becomes associated with control of impulse and expression and the renunciation of achievement and autonomy. Further, it fosters the nurturant, submissive, conservative aspects of the female role, inhibiting individuation,
discouraging achievement, and restricting autonomy. For women, sex-role typing seems to restrict the alternatives of action and expression that are available.

Another important influence which shapes a woman's attitude toward her roles is found in the development of her self-concept. In general, it has been found that girls have a more negative self-image than boys (Putnam & Hansen, 1972) and girls from lower socio-economic backgrounds are even less certain about their self-worth than girls from middle-class backgrounds (Tiedt, 1972). O'Leary (1974) states that women in this society have traditionally been taught to want to fill the role in which society casts them. Bem and Bem (1970) label this phenomena as a "nonconscious ideology," that is, a set of beliefs and attitudes which a person accepts implicitly but which remains outside awareness because alternative conceptions of the world remain unimagined. As an example, a fish is aware that its environment is wet. After all, what else could it be? According to Bardwick (1971) the origins of ego identity, that is, the extent to which an individual develops a sense of self, who one is, and where one is going in life, a sense of continuity of the self and a clarity with regard to life goals, lie in an empathetic, intuitive, person-oriented style of perception and in the central role that the motive to affiliate plays in the development of self-esteem among women.

Korman (1970) hypothesized that all other things being equal, individuals will engage in and find satisfying those behavioral roles which will maximize their sense of cognitive consistency. According
to Korman's formulation, one of the most important factors determining task performance of a given individual is relevant to socially influenced self-esteem. As O'Leary (1974) points out, the extent to which a woman's self-esteem incorporates traditionally feminine stereotypic notions, it is possible to anticipate that she will be hesitant to engage in behaviors requiring characteristics societally typified as male sex role appropriate such as achievement, competency, and aggressiveness. Hollander (1972) found a negative relationship between the demonstration of academic achievement and social self-esteem scores for females but not for males. Females with A averages in high school, had significantly lower self-esteem scores than females with C averages; the opposite was true for males. Hollander's interpretation of these findings suggests the existence of a positive relationship between self-esteem and exhibition of sex-role appropriate behavior. Bardwick (1971) suggests that the value one places on the self determines the level of self-esteem and the lower a person's self-esteem, the greater the anxiety and the greater the tendency to assume a societally prescribed role. O'Leary (1974) elaborates by suggesting it is plausible that women whose self-esteem is lower than their male counterparts, may be hesitant to engage in behaviors requiring the assumption of highly valued male sex role appropriate traits, thereby affecting the achievement-directed behavior of women. It has also been found by Connell and Johnson (1970) that for girls, adjustment and self-esteem are negatively related to being feminine and to identification with the mother, and that the higher a girl's
score on a standard test of femininity, the lower her self-esteem. It has been noted by Birnbaum (1971) that self-esteem problems become acute for family-oriented women as their children become less dependent on them. In a comparative study of a group of these women in their mid-thirties to a group of career-committed women it was found that the domestically oriented group felt less attractive as well as less competent, had lower self-esteem, and were less satisfied with their lives.

Another area in which traditional femininity may be accompanied by difficulties is that of cognitive development. In 1962 data from a longitudinal study done at the Fels Institute by Kagan and Moss (1962) found that children of both sexes least likely to gain in intelligence as they got older were those highest in the trait of femininity, as measured by psychological tests. Those most likely to gain were high in emotional independence. Baruch (1974) interprets these findings in the context of learned behavior, with boys being taught emotional independence, and the same trait discouraged in girls. Instead Baruch notes that girls are taught to seek affection from others.

A more recent pattern has emerged in a longitudinal study done by Kangas and Bradway (1971) in which subjects first tested as pre-schoolers in 1931, have been given repeated intelligence test for almost 40 years. The findings reveal that the brighter the males were as youngsters, the more they have gained in intelligence with age. Conversely, the brighter the females were as youngsters, the
less intelligence they have gained. The researchers suggest, as one explanation of their findings, that bright women are not encouraged to fulfill their intellectual potential. A recent study of college seniors by Baird (1973) for the Educational Testing Service, found that fewer women than men planned to pursue graduate studies, although the women had better grades. It was found that an important factor in this difference, was that women received much less encouragement from relatives and friends.

Bem and Bem (1970) offer disturbing interpretations of these and other findings. Namely, that our society manages to consign a large segment of its population to the more stereotypic role of homemaker in a primary and exclusive way. The problem with this, Bem and Bem note, is that this consignment is made solely on the basis of sex, just as in the past individuals with black skin were consigned to the roles of janitor and domestic. The Bems state that it is not the role which is at issue, but rather that in spite of individual differences, the majority of American women end up in the same role. Paradoxically, the successful socialization of the American woman usually results in retarded cognitive development, inhibition of achievement and autonomy, docility, conventionalism, and lowered self-esteem. Such findings would appear to have damaging consequential effects in a variety of important areas for women. It is the purpose of this study to examine the effects of this successful socialization in two of these areas.
Statement of the Problem

The past decade witnessed an increased emphasis on personal growth. Phrases such as the "me generation" and the "age of narcissism" gave birth to an explosion of therapeutic cure-alls and cults which lead to the awareness that societal values were shifting in the direction of individuality and self-fulfillment; in everyone's right to become self-actualized and as satisfied with their lives as they could be. Each person was encouraged to "do their own thing," to pursue those desirable human characteristics of sensitivity, emotionality and warmth; to become independent, assertive and to have at least one serious intellectual commitment. The thrust was in the direction of individual fulfillment of one's own unique potential and identity, untouched by society's presumptions. An increased value was placed on relationships which stressed openness, honesty, and equality; in a word, the name of the game was to become as humanistic as possible. In unison with this new wave of expression, the decade has also been called the decade of women. More changes in the area of women's rights occurred in the seventies than in any other decade. Many women began challenging their long held beliefs about their roles and destinies. Shifts in sex-role attitudes opened the doors of choice, experimentation, and change, and while some women walked through the door, others remained unmoved. The research of the seventies, as previously cited, was beginning to show the toll taken in terms of a woman's appraisal of her own self-worth, and occupational and intellectual achievements--the price paid for
successful socialization. It appears timely, then, to proceed with the question under study.

It is the purpose of this study to explore the effects of a woman's sex-role attitudes, that is, her learned likes and dislikes toward sex-typed behaviors, on her ability to develop her own unique potentialities, that is, to become self-actualized. In addition to this, this study will investigate the effects that holding these attitudes will have on her overall life satisfaction and her satisfaction with occupational preferences.

The delineation of the meaning of sex-role has seldom been clearly defined. Part of the problem has been brought about because a variety of factors have been included under the heading of sex-role, with the disciplines of anthropology, sociology, and psychology tending to stress different components. For the purpose of this study, the definition as offered by Spence and Helmreich (1972) will be used. Clearly stated, sex-role refers to a variety of stereotypes which exist about behavioral differences between the sexes. It includes all types of behavioral differences between the sexes or beliefs about such differences. Attitude, as defined by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975), is a "learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favorable or unfavorable manner with respect to a given object" (p. 3). Therefore, sex-role attitudes constitute all those appropriate rights, privileges, and behaviors women and men ought to have or be permitted to have. Such differences derive from normative expectations that members of a given culture hold about the position men and women should occupy (Angrist, 1969).
Relationships among Variables

Attitudinal Studies

Mason, Czajka, and Arber (1976) in their study on changes in women's sex-role attitudes during 1964-1974, found that women's attitudes about their rights in the labor market were becoming more strongly related to their attitudes about their roles in the home and showed that educational attainment and employment are among the most important individual-level predictors of attitudes at a given point in time. The researchers selected 13 personal characteristics which they believed would influence attitudes: education, employment, husband's education, husband's income, husband-wife age differences, age at marriage, marriage duration, children, age, religion, region of the country, amount of religiosity, and the year. Of all these variables, only education and employment tend to have strong and consistent relationships to sex-role attitudes.

The significance of these findings, the authors note, indicates that well-educated women, especially those who have completed college, are considerably less supportive of traditional norms and beliefs than are other women. Those women with the most recent employment experience are less traditional in outlook as well. These "catalytic converters," of attitudinal change, education and employment, are imperative to a woman's life experience if traditional sex-role learning is to be challenged. Ironically, it is these same two variables which women are taught to devalue for themselves, which reinforces a sex-role ideology that is unidirectional.
The authors find that sex-role attitude change has occurred at approximately the same rate in all educational and socioeconomic strata. Thus, while their data do not represent all American women, they do suggest that many women have experienced change in their outlook toward women's and men's roles since the mid-1960's. Therefore, the sex-role attitude changes that have been observed appear to be "ideological" in nature and not simply a product of women's personal circumstances and positions within society.

In addition to the findings by Mason et al. (1976), researchers Baruch and Barnett (1978) studied women's perceptions of their husband's attitudes toward their role patterns. The findings reveal that a husband's attitudes toward the roles his wife assumes, has a profound influence upon the actual roles a woman undertakes. It was also found that husbands' actual and perceived attitudes toward wives' employment are related to wives' actual employment status. What are the implications of such findings in terms of personal growth and satisfaction? As Kagan (1964) and Kohlberg (1966) found, the highly sex-typed individual is motivated to keep her behavior consistent with an internalized sex-role standard thereby suppressing any behavior that might be considered undesirable or inappropriate for her. If sex-role standardization is reinforced, influenced, and maintained by parents, teachers, husbands, and society, it would appear that a significant relationship would emerge between a woman's sex-role orientation and her ability to develop her own unique self.
Self-Actualization

This term, first coined by Kurt Goldstein (1939) and later developed into a theory of motivation and personality by Maslow (1954), is defined as a desire for self-fulfillment; namely, a tendency for an individual to become actualized in what he or she is potentially. It is a need to become more and more what one idiosyncratically is, to become everything that one is capable of becoming (Maslow, 1954). In a broader sense, it is the motive toward growth and away from stagnation; the freedom to express oneself, to explore alternatives, to investigate and seek for information; it is the pursuit of justice, fairness, honesty, and individualization; it involves flexibility, integrity and self-acceptance. Individuals who are either moving toward self-actualization or who have achieved self-actualization have been found to have many positive characteristics (Cangemi, 1976). Among some of these positive traits is the ability to have superior judgment and wisdom, to be problem-centered instead of ego-centered, to be in control of their destinies and sure of themselves, to have the ability to develop intimate relationships with others, unencumbered by expectations and obligations, to have the ability to be spontaneous, natural, and free; there is also a high degree of independence and a deep commitment to important jobs and tasks. Another important distinguishing feature of self-actualizing individuals is that they are governed by their own inner directions, their own nature and their own needs, rather than the dictates of society. It has been found that such persons are more
fully functioning and psychologically autonomous. In a word, they are healthy individuals.

Recent research in the area of sex-role stereotypes and self-actualization have explored the impact of sex-role socialization on a woman's ability to develop her capacities to the fullest. In 1975, James Doyle studied the relationship between self-actualization and attitudes toward women. What he found indicated that self-actualizing beliefs and attitudes correlated significantly with pro-feminist attitudes among a group of college women. Corbett (1974) found that liberated women are more likely than are traditional women to be directed by internalized principles and motivations characteristic of the self-actualizer. In a doctoral dissertation, Darpli (1974) explored the relationship of involvement in the women's liberation movement and measured self-actualization among undergraduates enrolled in women's studies courses at the University of Pittsburgh. His results show that for those who became more affectively involved in the movement, there was also higher measured levels of self-actualization than for those who did not become affectively involved. These pieces of research substantiated Maslow's hypothesis that self-actualizing persons have the ability to synthesize the various human potentials which become categorized by masculine and feminine labels.

In the late 1930's, Maslow did some significant though seldom cited research on women in which he compared those high in self-esteem and feelings of dominance with more conventionally feminine women who did not display these characteristics in great degree.
Through the use of a specifically-designed questionnaire and intensive interviewing techniques, Maslow found high dominance women to be more psychologically autonomous as well as more capable of sexual expression and fulfillment. Such findings were in marked contrast to the theories of female development and adjustment prevalent in that day. Maslow defined high dominance or ego level women as self-confident, self-assured, having high self-evaluations, general feelings of capability or superiority and lack of shyness, timidity, self-consciousness or embarrassment (Maslow, 1939). Such findings lend support that self-actualizers view each other not from the strictures of socially prescribed sex-roles, but rather as unique, independent people suggesting that strongly sex-typed individuals might be seriously limited in the range of behaviors and experiences available to themselves.

As an adjunctive area of exploration, this study will also investigate a woman's achieved occupational level as it reflects her degree of educational attainment. It will be postulated that those women who acquire jobs that are commensurate with their educations, will be more actualized than those women who do not develop their vocational potential in accordance with their educational achievements. A distinguishing feature of the self-actualizing individual is the ability to commit oneself to tasks that are problem-centered, that afford a feeling of challenge, responsibility and accomplishment. Self-actualizers view work as exciting and pleasant and find it rewarding when developed in harmony with their personality and needs (Cangemi, 1976).
It has been shown that there is a direct relationship between educational attainment of women and their labor force participation; the more education a woman has received, the greater the likelihood she will be engaged in paid employment (Women's Bureau, 1969). It has also been found, that education is strongly positively related to career motivation and significantly positively to ego development (Manning, 1973). The question arises whether mere participation in the labor force contributes to a woman's feeling of self-fulfillment by providing opportunities and experiences that she would otherwise not have or if in fact, a woman must match her occupational tasks with her educational training in order to become more full functioning and actualized.

Satisfaction with Life

Studies by Campbell, Converse and Rodgers (1976), have found that overall life satisfaction is very closely related to differing life cycle stages such as age, marital status, number of children, race, educational level, occupation and income levels. Reports on happiness by Bradburn and Caplovitz (1965), have also found these same variables to play a part in the social and psychological correlates of well-being. Although, as these studies demonstrated, satisfaction is dependent upon where one is at in their life cycle at a given point in time, they do not take into account the effect of sex-role socialization, or a woman's choice of primary occupational commitment on her overall life satisfaction. Investigation of these variables proves to be important especially since the
National Commission survey found that women holding traditional attitudes rated themselves as more satisfied with the quality of their lives than their liberal counterparts. Such findings would appear to contradict research findings which show a direct relationship between actualizing tendencies and liberal sex-role attitudes. The question then arises, will women who rate themselves as satisfied with their overall life, also be self-actualized?

In reviewing studies on satisfaction with life as it pertains to women, it is clear that certain clear-cut relationships exist among variables. For example, in a study done by Elina Haavio-Mannila (1971) on satisfaction with family, work, leisure, and life among men and women it was found that:

1. For working wives, general family satisfaction was more important to overall life satisfaction than the relationship to the husband; whereas for home-staying wives a satisfactory husband-wife relationship was as important as family life in general.

2. Family satisfaction had the highest correlation with overall life satisfaction.

3. Wives who stay at home were dependent upon their husbands for both their general life satisfaction and for finding the source of central life satisfaction.

Therefore, it could be assumed that traditional women are more satisfied with their lives because they define themselves through another person thereby eliminating many complex issues, questions, and challenges that are necessary for individualization.
Other research indicates that for women at home, having a non-traditional sex-role ideology was negatively related to role-pattern satisfaction (Baruch & Barnett, 1978). It was found that a discrepancy between ideology and actual role-patterns clearly can contribute to dissatisfaction with one's life. For employed women the centrality of work to their lives and satisfaction with their current job had a powerful positive impact upon their psychological well-being. In addition to this, commitment to work was shown to correlate highly with role-pattern satisfaction among the same women sampled.

In order to establish predictors of a woman's overall life satisfaction and correlations to overall life satisfaction, this study selected 21 variables which are a combination of indicators gathered from quality of life studies (Flanagan, 1978), studies on the well-being of adult women (Baruch & Barnett, 1978), and various measures of self-reported well-being (Andrews & McKennell, 1979). In addition to investigating predictors and correlations of overall life satisfaction for women, this study will also explore the impact of a woman's sex-role attitudes, occupational preference, and levels of self-actualization on her self-reported overall life satisfaction. Satisfaction is defined as a concept that requires some kind of comparison--either explicit or implicit--between a level of achievement and some standard (e.g., what one expects or aspires to). It includes both affective components such as favorable and unfavorable feelings, likes and dislikes, and emotional reactions in addition to cognitive components. The cognitive components consist of some
kind of judgmental thinking and knowledge, values, beliefs, characteristics and relationships (Andrews & McKennell, 1979).

Purpose of the Study

The specific purpose of this study is to determine if in fact, one's sex-role orientation can affect a woman's capacity to fully realize her potentialities and the impact one's attitudes have on overall life satisfaction. The investigation is, therefore, concerned with the following questions: Do women who reflect liberal attitudes also score higher on measured levels of self-actualization? Do they rate themselves as more satisfied with their overall lives? Does satisfaction with overall life also mean higher levels of self-actualization? Are certain occupational choices more satisfying than others? Namely, does a woman's involvement in paid employment increase her chances of overall life satisfaction more than the choice of homemaker would allow? Is a woman's self-actualization enhanced when her employment matches her educational training?

Hypotheses

The first hypothesis dealt with the effect a woman's sex-role attitudes, that is, the learned socialized role-taking behavioral differences of the sexes, including division of labor and societal tasks (Spence & Hemreich, 1972) would have on her achieved levels of self-actualization. For the purpose of this study, sex-role attitudes are dichotomized into conservative and liberal orientations as measured by the Attitudes Toward Women Scale.
(Spence & Helmreich, 1972). Self-actualization, while developed through openly normative and personal accounts, has evolved to a descriptive and objective personality pattern that can be measured through the use of a standardized test. For the purpose of this study, self-actualization will be measured by twelve distinct scales of the Personal Orientation Inventory (Shostrom, 1964).

Sex-role attitudes reflect the degree to which stereotypes exist about appropriate behaviors for the two sexes, that is, behaviors that are positively sanctioned for one sex, and ignored or negatively sanctioned for the other. Bem (1970) states that attitudes are often found to rest upon basic values, and that values are ends, not means whose desirability is nonconsciously taken for granted. Such conditioning is acted-out in various ways. Individuals yield to situational demands to avoid external penalties, use appropriate role behaviors to achieve some desired outcome or respond according to their value systems about proper sex-role behaviors. It is assumed that such prescripts limit the diversity and range of behaviors available to both women and men. Maslow (1970) cites such cultural habits as standing up when a woman enters a room, allowing her to go first through the door, and helping her with her coat as implying a historical opinion that women are weak and incapable of taking care of themselves. He goes on to say that women who respect themselves strongly tend to be wary of these gestures and that men who are self-actualizing tend to be less locked-into these controlling behaviors. It is assumed that women who challenge the validity of learned sex-role attitudes and move
away from the more traditionally held notions toward a more liberal view of human behavior, will also be in the best possible position to explore and actualize their individual differences. Based on this assumption, the following hypothesis is logically derived:

H₁: Women who obtain scores on the Attitudes Toward the Roles of Women Scale which reflect liberal orientations, will score higher on all twelve scales of the Personal Orientation Inventory, than women who obtain scores on the Attitudes Toward the Roles of Women Scale which reflect conservative orientations.

Bem (1970) states that our society operates on the basis of a nonconscious ideology which takes the process of role taking for women for granted. This nonconscious ideology is made up of all the beliefs, values and opinions that cultural dictates have defined as normal behavior. As Bem (1970) observes, "parents begin to raise their children in accord with popular stereotypes from the very beginning, teaching a woman to know her place" (p. 91). So accepted are these notions, that both men and women are not aware that societal prescripts have already controlled their motivations to select certain roles. For women, the role which is taught to offer the most self-fulfillment and satisfaction is that of homemaker (Bem, 1970). The choice of employment as a primary occupational commitment is viewed as a socially deviant one (Safilios-Rothschild, 1971). However, recent research (Ferree, 1976) shows that in fact fulltime housewives are more dissatisfied and feel themselves to be worse off than women with jobs. It was found that housework does not lead to a sense of competence, social connectedness, or self-determination equal to that produced by paid employment.
It is the purpose of the second hypothesis to investigate a woman's self-reported primary occupational commitment to paid employment as compared to the homemaker role and to determine whether the choice of paid employment would significantly affect a woman's self-perception of her overall life satisfaction. This hypothesis challenges the notion that women who identify exclusively with the homemaker role as a primary occupation, will have a greater sense of life satisfaction than women who do not. Therefore, hypothesis two reads as follows:

\[ H_2: \quad \text{Women in paid employment will rate themselves as more satisfied with their overall life, than women whose primary occupation is that of homemaker.} \]

Recent research shows that working females have more education and come from higher status families than nonworking housewives (McClendon, 1976). It has also been shown that education is the most important determinant of occupational status (Duncan, Featherman, & Duncan, 1972). Based on findings such as these, it is logical to conclude that women who hold positions for which they were educated would also become more self-actualized because they could commit their energies to tasks they found rewarding. However, it was also found that marital status might affect the status attainments of women for several reasons. Marital status tends to constrain free and full participation in the labor market because married women often find their occupational endeavors to be secondary to their husbands and possibly secondary in importance to their role of homemaking. Such constraints lower the level of status attainment and the relationship between education and status, because women are forced to
accept positions for which the status is not commensurate with their education (McClendon, 1976). On the other hand, women not currently married would not be faced with these constraints and, thus, might show greater attainment. It is proposed that women who succeed in obtaining employment equal to their educational abilities will also have the greatest opportunity to maximize their educational abilities and will also have the greatest opportunity to maximize their capabilities. Those women who opt for employment because it provides a way to fulfill social needs, explore interesting activities or supplement incomes regardless of whether the employment matches their educational training will be limited in the extent to which they can reach their potentialities. Therefore, hypothesis three reads as follows:

$$H_3:$$ Women in paid employment for which their education/ training prepared them, will obtain higher scores on self-actualization as measured by all twelve scales of the Personal Orientation Inventory, than women who do not hold jobs for which their education/ training prepared them.

It is argued by researchers such as Baruch and Barnett (1978) that the gratifications provided by multiple role involvements for women usually outweigh any conflict and stress such involvement may entail. Such a view counters the idea that the most satisfying role a woman can pursue is that of wife and mother. Instead, it explores the viability of other role paths such as employment, in the overall life satisfaction of women. Such a view has been substantiated by a recent follow-up study, of Terman's gifted children. When the women in the group, who are now 60 years old, were asked to describe their life pattern and their satisfaction with it, the women who reported
the highest level of satisfaction were income-producers (Sears & Barbee, 1977).

In a recent study done by Wish (1976) it was hypothesized that elderly men and women with integrated or androgynous sex roles would report significantly greater life satisfaction than peers who were strongly sex-typed. The findings reveal this to be true for the females but not for the males, suggesting that those women who challenge stereotypic notions are more apt to be satisfied with their lives as a whole.

In much of the research conducted on happiness, positive correlations have been found in the areas of: higher income vs. lower income; better health; more education; employment (as compared with unemployment); involvement in social and leisure-time activities and a number of other factors such as self-esteem, a sense of competency and having a valued impact on one's environment (Stewart, 1976). This would suggest that those women who pursued educational and employment opportunities, the two most significant predictors of attitude change toward liberal orientations, would also report greater degrees of satisfaction with their lives. To test the assumption that those women who are not bound by rigid sex-role attitudes, are freer to express themselves in a variety of ways and, therefore, are more apt to view their lives as more satisfying than other women, the following hypothesis was investigated:

\[ H_4: \] Women who obtain scores on the Attitudes Toward the Roles of Women Scale which reflect liberal attitudes, will rate themselves as more satisfied with their overall lives than women who obtain conservative scores on the Attitudes Toward the Roles of Women Scale.

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The final hypothesis concerns itself with the ability to realize one's full capacities and a greater sense of overall life satisfaction. Maslow (1970), in his studies of self-actualizing individuals, found that healthy people find it possible to accept themselves and their own natures, with all its shortcomings, very easily. He states, "if we were to take an actual count of the number of times that the self-actualizing person behaved in an unconventional manner the tally would not be high" (p. 157). That is because this person's unconventionality is not superficial but essential or internal. Self-actualizing persons infrequently allow convention to hamper them or inhibit them from doing anything considered important or basic. Such growth motivation allows for spontaneity, maturation, and character expression. It is postulated that those women who allow themselves their natural expression and evolution toward self-realization will also experience their lives as very satisfying. Therefore, the fifth hypothesis states:

H₅: Women who rate themselves as more satisfied with their overall lives will obtain higher scores on the Personal Orientation Inventory than women who rate themselves as less satisfied with their overall lives.

Organization of Content

Chapter II will contain a presentation of selected, related literature in the following four areas: Studies on sex-role attitudes; studies on life satisfaction; studies on occupational and vocational choices, development and significance in a woman's life and studies
on self-actualization. Chapter III will detail the method including subjects, instrumentation, procedures and design. Chapter IV will report the statistical results of the study and Chapter V will present the summary, discussion, and recommendations.
CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF SELECTED LITERATURE

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present an extensive review of related research studies spanning the last 10 to 15 years as they pertain to the hypotheses under study in this research project. The chapter will begin with a review of sex-role attitudinal studies as they apply to a variety of influencing factors. This will be followed by a review of those studies examining the relationship between self-actualization and sex-role attitudes in addition to defining the elements which determine the quality of self-actualization. The third section of this chapter will present an overview of those studies differentiating the characteristics of women who enter the labor force as compared to those women who choose homemaking as a primary vocational orientation, in addition to developmental influences, and the significance such choices play in a woman's life. The final area will cover a general review of life satisfaction studies followed by a narrowing of the focus to include related variables which impact on a woman's sense of life satisfaction.

Sex-Role Attitudes

Prior to the major thrust of the Woman's Liberation movement,
Porter (1967), in her doctoral dissertation, assessed sex-role attitudes and their relationship to psychological well-being among women. The intent of her study was twofold: to determine whether women accepted or rejected traditional sex-role concepts and to examine the extent to which psychological well-being accompanied the traditional or liberal viewpoints. Her subjects were 162 women attending the University of Rochester and represented 92% of the female senior class. The Fand (1955) Sex-Role Inventory was used in which a variety of dimensions upon which women's attitudes about sex-roles were determined. One dimension which Fand used to assess this was that of a self or other-orientation. Women who were other-oriented were conceived by Fand as traditional in outlook while the self-oriented woman would seek fulfillment through maximization of her own potentials. Porter factor analyzed the inventory into eight categories which included: Identity derived through traditional roles; woman's role as submissive; need for individualistic achievement and satisfactions; home oriented, duty to children stressed; traditional role as implying some relinquishing of needs for personal fulfillment; sense of autonomy and heightened independence and family inadequate to completely fulfill needs.

In her sample, Porter found that about half the women agreed that work apart from the roles as wife and mother was necessary for personal fulfillment; approximately 25% of the sample was uncertain and 25% disagreed. Seventy-six percent of the sample rejected the notion that traditional roles implies relinquishing of some personal
fulfillment. Most (59%) of the sample rejected the idea that the "good mother" remained home to care for her children. Factor 1, identity derived through traditional roles, was endorsed by no more subjects than rejected it. For a substantial group of Porter's sample, identity was evidently to be derived through their own efforts, rather than through the other-orientation of marriage and children. On the whole other-oriented factors were more often rejected than accepted, while self-oriented factors were more frequently endorsed than rejected. Responses to individual factors suggest that subjects were more accepting of a liberal than a traditional sex-role definition.

However, the results with respect to psychological well-being were not as clear-cut. On factor V (traditional role implies some relinquishing of needs for personal fulfillment) it was found to be negatively related to happiness scores. Porter noted that a woman who feels there is some inherent contradiction in fulfilling herself as an individual and fulfilling herself as a wife and mother, who is not "sure that the joys of motherhood make up for the sacrifices" is in a conflictful position. For some of these women, to feel that one must give up traditional roles in order to attain realization as an individual, was an uncomfortable and conflictual position to be in and has implications for the fourth hypothesis of this study which predicts that the liberally oriented women will rate themselves as more satisfied with their overall lives.

However, it was also found that adoption of some aspects of the self-orientation, in conjunction with a desire for marriage and
children, was characteristic of women who were strong and purposive, as defined by level of ego strength. In Porter's study, women with the highest ego strength scores were feminine with respect to their desire to marry and establish families. What is questionable is whether it is possible to possess high ego strength in the context of a narrowly defined traditional role orientation. It was clear from Porter's findings that high ego strength individuals were able to establish a separate identity, but only within the traditional feminine model. Porter suggests that purposiveness, resourcefulness and self-direction may be inconsistent with adoption of a role limited to traditional, other-oriented goals and satisfactions. Therefore, while Porter's sample, as a whole, were more liberal than traditional in their sex-role attitudes; their feelings of happiness or well-being (satisfaction) were conflictual, if the woman held that self-development and fulfilling the role of wife and mother were in opposition to each other. It can be speculated from these findings that a woman's sense of satisfaction, may depend on the extent to which she can integrate the self versus other orientation.

Since Porter's study of 1967, there has been a fair amount of research generated in the area of sex-role attitudes and the dual role women occupy. Walker and Friedman (1977) undertook a study to examine the structure of professional women's attitudes toward the dual roles encompassed in motherhood and occupational career. They constructed a dual-role scale of 19 items and administered it to female faculty members at the University of Texas with at least one child at home.
Factor analytical techniques produced a three-dimensional attitudinal model: the career as enriching family life, role equality, and primary role priority. While these dimensions of the dual role were in some cases interrelated and in some cases independent, the attitudinal structures that emerged suggested a rather complex network of attitudinal components along which values varied. Within their sample, positive attitudes toward role equality and the career as enriching family life are highly correlated with liberal attitudes toward women's roles in general. Liberalism toward women's roles appears to have as a concomitant both positive attitudes about role equality in family life and positive attitudes toward the impact of a woman's career upon family life. However, liberalism does not appear to underlie attitudes toward role priority, as the correlation proved to be quite low. This, however, could in part be explained by the fact that the sample consisted of nurses who have been shown to value having children more than women in more masculine-identified professions (Rosen, 1974). The authors note that if attitudes about women's roles are changing, it is conceivable that women's life situations may in fact be unrelated with the attitudes they express. The findings of Cleland, Bass, McHugh, and Montano (1976) partially support this view. Of seven factors they explored as predictors of nurses' employment, conducive home situation (including age of youngest child, house-hold-task sharing, and help available) was not a primary predictor of employment. However, career desirability (including attitudes toward conjugal support, the housewife's role,
and home attraction) did predict employment. Thus, one must assess the significance of attitudes in terms of a woman's situational variables to better understand the complexities surrounding dual role choices and attitudes.

Volgy (1976) studied sex-role orientations and measures of psychological well-being among feminists, housewives and working women in the Tucson, Arizona area. Her findings revealed that respondents with a liberal sex-role orientation as measured by the Attitudes Toward the Role of Women Scale, were significantly more assertive and more masculine in orientation than those with traditional sex-role attitudes. Housewives scored least assertive, most traditional and feminine sex-typed, while feminists scored least traditional, most assertive and masculine sex-typed. Working women scored between the other two groups. It was found that professional workers scored in a more positive direction in expressed acceptance of self than the other groups. The finding that working women scored between the other groups lends support to Porter's interpretation of conflictual elements in sex-role adaptation and also in the importance of situational determinants as it affects sex-role attitudes.

The second hypothesis addresses the effect that a woman's employment status will have on her overall sense of life satisfaction predicting that women whose primary occupational commitment is to paid employment will have a greater sense of life satisfaction. However, based on the above research intervening variables such as psychological conflict and situational determinants might be greater influencers than employment status per se.
A study conducted by Schmidt (1974) in which sex-role attitudes and differing life-styles of professional married women were explored focused on the personal and psychological characteristics relevant to sex-role choices. Schmidt developed a survey form, the Sex-Role Inventory which consisted of six sections designed to obtain biographical and early childhood information as well as sex-role attitude scores which defined participants as either traditional or liberationist, in addition to information on sex-role preference and cognitive dissonance. Questionnaires were administered to 290 professionally-trained married women chosen at random from a population of 1500 of which 180 women returned the questionnaire. Biographical data indicated that respondents were largely Protestant and upper middle class. Twenty-five percent were homemakers, while 70.9% were employed outside the home on either a full or part-time basis. Fifty-seven percent of the total group worked as full-time professionals. Of those who were working only 11.9% reported that they worked purely for personal enjoyment, while the rest were employed for financial reasons plus enjoyment.

Data analysis showed that distinctly different value and personality profiles and life-style patterns emerged between traditional and liberationist groups. Schmidt found that in regard to biographical information, traditionalists were significantly more likely to have been married longer, to be older, to have more pre-school children, to have fewer degrees, and to show less approval for public day-care facilities. They were also more likely to have
husbands who disapproved of wives working outside of the home. Traditionalists were more frequently seen to have come from homes where the father had made all the major decisions related to family life, and where the mother had never worked outside the home. When cognitive dissonance was added in the data analysis, traditionalists presented a rather stereotypic pattern. They more frequently looked after home tasks than did their liberal counterparts. Liberationists, on the other hand, often looked after these tasks, but preferred that they be shared with husbands or outside help. Therefore, as Schmidt notes, liberationists showed a greater tendency to experience cognitive dissonance between the actual situation and the preferred situation.

In value orientations, traditionalists were significantly more religious and economical, while liberationists were more theoretical and political. In personality, traditionalists were deferent, orderly and abasing whereas liberationists were autonomous, achieving and aggressive. With regard to security-insecurity, liberationists who worked outside the home more often showed that high dissonance was associated with high insecurity. Among nonworking women, high dissonance was associated with high scores on Order and Abasement.

Powell and Reznikoff (1976) in a study on role conflict and symptoms of psychological distress in college-educated women noted that married women find their roles more difficult and are more likely to develop symptoms of mental illness as a result of the conflict between personal needs and cultural role expectations. This is supported by the U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare
study of 1970 in which it was found that housewives have higher symptom rates than employed women and professionally employed women had lower symptom rates than those in other occupational categories. Powell and Reznikoff hypothesized that women who were not employed outside the home but were high in need for achievement or had contemporary sex-role orientations would have higher symptom scores than unemployed women low in need for achievement or having traditional sex role orientations. The authors surmised that achievement-oriented women who adapt their behaviors to conform to traditional patterns, do not necessarily reduce their aspirations to achieve. The ultimate consequences of such a conflict would be the development of symptoms of psychological distress. Conversely, they also predicted that employed women with low-need-for-achievement or traditional sex-role attitudes would have higher symptom scores than employed women with contemporary sex-role attitudes. Their findings reveal that significantly higher symptom scores were exhibited by full-time employed women with earned doctorates, compared to other full-time employed women in the same age category. The authors suggest that this may reflect the stresses involved in establishing oneself at a high professional level while at the same time dealing with home and childbearing responsibilities. The authors also found that a significant difference emerged in that women with a Self-orientation exhibited significantly higher symptom scores than those women with an Other orientation. The authors substantiate Porter's (1967) premise that stress caused by conflicts between personal needs and
cultural role expectations is a factor in the high rate of mental illness found in married women thereby affecting a woman's sense of psychological well-being, and validating the observation that no matter how desirable the changes that are presently occurring in role expectations may be, the process of change itself is a painful and stressful experience.

Based on both the nature of self-actualization and on its relation to sex-role attitudes among women, the first hypothesis was developed predicting that the more liberal the sex-role orientation, the more women could define themselves through their own unique self rather than a prescribed societal standard, thereby evidencing greater tendencies toward self-actualization.

In a landmark study by Broverman, Vogel, Broverman, Clarkson, and Rosenkrantz (1972) on an appraisal of sex-role stereotypes, it was found that masculine characteristics such as competence and achievement are more positively valued than the feminine traits of warmth and expressiveness. A strong consensus exists about the differing characteristics of men and women as it pertains to appropriate sex-role behavior. It was further found that these sex-role concepts are incorporated into the self-concepts of both men and women and that these differences are approved of and even idealized by large segments of society. The authors noted that the tendency to align oneself with the socially desirable traits corresponding to masculine and feminine behaviors, results in women incorporating both the negative aspects of femininity such as passivity, irrationality and dependency and the positive aspects such as warmth and expressiveness. The consequence
of this results in women having a tendency to have more negative self-concepts than do men because more feminine traits are negatively valued than are masculine traits. College students portray the ideal woman as less competent than the ideal man, and mental health professionals tend to view mature healthy women as more submissive and less independent thereby corresponding to the powerful social pressures of conforming to sex-role standardization.

Bedeian and Zarra (1977) investigated the effect of sex-role orientation on self-esteem, need achievement and internality in 98 college females. The authors postulated that college females possessing a nontraditional sex-role orientation would score higher in need achievement than those possessing a traditional sex-role orientation, that no statistical differences would exist in the self-esteem scores of the two groups and that the strength of the relationship between self-esteem and internality would vary for nontraditional and traditional females. All three hypotheses received support. Such results, the authors note, suggest that although the sex-role orientations of college females with traditional and nontraditional standards of femininity are dissimilar, both orientations allow for the expression of a similar degree of self-esteem. However, the nontraditional college females are more likely to attribute their success to their own efforts rather than to external forces. It is plausible to anticipate that the extent to which a woman's self-esteem incorporates traditional versus nontraditional stereotypic notions is influenced by the degree to which such views promote cognitive balance and consistency and allow the individual to pursue
those roles which reflect an integration of their social expectations. On the other hand, for the nontraditional student, it can be said that high self-esteem people value themselves highly and see themselves as dealing competently with their environment. Consequently, this is the reason for no significant differences in the self-esteem scores of the two groups.

Using the Personal Attributes Questionnaire in addition to the Attitudes Toward Women Scale and a measure of social self-esteem, Spence, Helmreich, and Stapp (1975) found that those holding more traditional attitudes concerning sex-appropriate roles also perceived larger differences between the sexes on the attributes measured by the scale. It was also found that males who are high in masculinity on the male-valued scale tend to be more conservative in their attitudes toward the equality of the sexes. Similarly, women who are more feminine, on the female-valued scale and who are less masculine on the sex-specific scale also tend to advocate conservative views about sex-roles. As for the self-esteem scale, no significant differences were found between the measure used and stereotype ratings, suggesting that sex role expectations do not distort self-concepts.

However, in a study done by Frankel (1974) on sex role attitudes and the development of achievement need in women, it was concluded that self-concept and attitudes toward femininity are related and interact in inhibiting achievement need. The author reasons that if femininity is seen as requiring passive and dependent behavior, than there is a likelihood that the self-concept will be
negative and that goals and behavior will be "other" directed and nonachievement oriented. Her findings support this notion. Non-goal-oriented undergraduates appeared to feel less positive about themselves than did goal-oriented undergraduates and goal-oriented alumni. In each case, the goal-oriented woman was also more positive in self-concept than the non goal-oriented woman. In addition, goal-oriented women indicated stronger feelings of self-worth than did nongoal-oriented women. It was clear from Frankel's findings that goal-orientedness was significantly related to positive and energetic self-concepts, and that nongoal-orientedness appears to be a factor involved with a negative self-image. Sex-role attitudes are found to form a basic structure that influences the type and direction (achievement-oriented or traditional) of behavior assumed.

In a doctoral dissertation by Shortsleeves (1977) on differences in sex-role concepts and orientation toward achievement in feminists and nonfeminists as measured both by consistency between sex-role standard and sex-role concept and by the inclusion of socially desirable characteristics in the self-description, it was found that feminists perceived themselves as less stereotypic in relation to the female sex-role than nonfeminists. Feminists were also found to have more positive self-concepts than nonfeminists. Concerning achievement, it was found that while women who are feminists value both intellectual and social/emotional values equally highly, women professionals who were not feminists valued intellectual achievement highly, but described emotional values as significantly less important.
Minnigerode (1976) in a study on attitudes toward women, sex-role stereotyping and locus of control among 61 undergraduate women and 43 men found that profeminist attitudes were associated with greater internal locus of control for the women, but not for the men. Using the Attitudes Toward Women Scale, Rotter's Internal-External Locus of Control scale and Bem's Sex-role Inventory he found that profeminist females were more internal and scored higher on masculinity than nonfeminist females. He also found that sex-role stereotyped individuals, both male and female, were more external than those who were not identified as sex-role stereotyped. Results suggest that those who adhere to conventional sex-role concepts generally have greater expectancy of external, rather than internal locus of control over reinforcement.

In a study on life-style choices, O'Connell (1979) delineated between traditional, neotraditional and nontraditional patterns among women. She tested the influence of personality, role concepts, attitudes, and influences among 87 middle-class, college graduates who were also wives and mothers. Her findings reveal that women choosing different life-style patterns, view the female role in significantly dissimilar ways. The nontraditional and neotraditional women perceive their roles as women to involve diversity and flexibility in individual choice. Whereas the traditional woman focuses exclusively on home centered tasks within the marital relationship. In addition to this, the neo and nontraditional women are much more likely to have husbands whose attitudes about sex-role appropriate...
behaviors reflect egalitarian views in which the roles are not polarized as was found with the husbands of the traditional women. The nontraditional woman strives to integrate the different aspects of life choice such as marriage, childbearing, career commitments and education into her life style. The traditional woman is found to be more restrictive in this regard.

In other findings, O'Connell found the nontraditional woman to be more self-confident, achievement-oriented, dominant and self-actualizing than traditional women, as measured by the California Personality Inventory (Gough, 1956). She also found that the influence of the life style which the woman's parents had pursued, was the single most important variable to the choice of life style which the daughter had made. If the daughter viewed the parents' life style as rewarding, then she would pursue the same choices for herself. If, on the other hand, the daughter perceived her parents choices as negative ones, her choice would be a reaction away from such a life style.

Recently, the Survey Research Center at Ann Arbor, completed a 15 year longitudinal study on changes in women's sex-role attitudes. Their findings reveal that the women most likely to have adopted egalitarian sex role attitudes were those who were younger in age, more educated, had better educated husbands and those who had been working when the study began in 1962. The findings in the area of sex-role attitudes appears to be consistent with regard to individual characteristics. The nontraditional woman is seen as adopting a variety of role involvements leading to a more integrated life style.
than her traditional counterpart. Similarities are held in the areas of need for achievement, career goals and flexibility of choice. However, as the research cited in this paper indicates, there is also more psychological conflict, stress and strain in making nontraditional choices. Such stress appears to affect a woman's sense of well-being. The findings in the area of self-esteem are more contradictory with some studies reporting no relationship between sex role attitudes and self-esteem and others showing that sex role attitudes can both positively and negatively affect a woman's self-concept. An examination of the impact of sex role socialization on a woman's self-actualization will now be reviewed.

Self-Actualization

The term self-actualization has been operationalized through the use of a standardized test, the Personal Orientation Inventory. Self-actualization is seen to consist of five discrete categories within which 12 scales are included. First, there is the Valuing Component which includes the scales of self-actualizing values and the existentiaity scale defined as flexibility in the application of one's values. Second, is the Feeling category which includes the scales of feeling reactivity which is being sensitive to one's own needs and feelings and spontaneity defined as freely expressing feelings in a behavioral manner. Thirdly, there is the Self-Perception Component which includes self-regard, that is, having high self worth and self-acceptance which is defined as accepting of self in spite of weaknesses. Fourth, is the category of Synergistic
Awareness. This includes the scales of viewing man as essentially good and constructive and the synergy scale which views opposites of life as meaningfully related. The final component is in the area of Interpersonal Sensitivity. Here the scales of acceptance of aggression, defined as accepting one's feelings of anger and aggression and capacity for intimate contact are contained. There are also two additional scales which measure a sense of time competence, that is, living in the present as compared to living in the past or future and inner-directedness which measures a sense of independent self-supportiveness as compared to dependent, external supports from others. Each one of these dimensions can be said to make up the quality of self-actualization.

Based on both the nature of self-actualization and on its relation to sex-role attitudes among women, the first hypothesis was developed predicting that the more liberal the sex-role orientation, the more women could define themselves through their own unique self rather than a prescribed societal standard, thereby evidencing greater tendencies toward self-actualization.

Abraham Maslow, who developed the theory of self-actualization, was one of the first male theorists to explore the potential of women in terms of feelings of dominance, self-esteem and sexuality, and to challenge the notion of appropriate sex-role behaviors for women. In two of his earliest papers, Maslow studied the social behavior of women from a biological as well as a cultural point of view. In his paper on Self-Esteem (Dominance-Feeling) and Sexuality in Women,
Maslow (1942) found high dominance women to be more unconventional, autonomous, self-assured and more masculine than women who were low in dominance feeling. In a 1939 study, Maslow found that many of the qualities which the culture considers to be manly are seen in high self-esteem women. These characteristics include such traits as leadership abilities, strength of character, a strong sense of social purpose and responsibility, lack of fear and shyness and a desire to combine marriage with a career. Such findings have a remarkable similarity to the studies done over the past decade on sex-roles and life style choices. An increasing tendency was found that as one went down in the dominance scale, one also had lower self-evaluations. This low self-evaluation, Maslow notes, is related to the increased social suggestibility of some low dominance women. One can interpret such findings as reflective of a link between traditionally held sex-role behaviors and the tendency to "buy into" whatever the culture prescribes as appropriate role behavior. Maslow believed that biological influences on personality development were greatly overrated and instead it was necessary to turn to the study of culture in order to understand the etiology and aims of social behavior such as dominance feeling. He saw the cultural norms set down as the major influences in shaping behaviors. As Maslow observed, femininity in our culture is equated with a pattern of subordination and passivity. Maslow encouraged the idea that women would only come to know their potential in terms of genuine sexual fulfillment and peak experiences of love if they cultivated their capacities to grow in the direction of greater inner security and dominance-feelings. Maslow held that all human
beings possessed an inherent need to grow and that a person's capacities have to be used in order to be developed.

In a paper by Podeschi and Podeschi (1973), some principal perspectives in the area of human potential as developed by Maslow were explored in relation to women. The authors state that women who choose to grow must be willing to give up traditional notions of safety and security. Assuming a nonthreatening position of security at the price of growth and self-esteem only reinforces the notion that to be feminine is also to be weak and dependent. Such behavior is viewed as deficiency-motivated instead of growth-motivated with consequent ramifications for healthy development. The authors state that women cannot fulfill their own idiosyncratic tendencies by the exclusive need to nurture and take care of others. Growth requires differentiation, leaving what is safe and familiar and exploring what is more demanding and difficult. It requires one to cross over into areas usually reserved for some stereotyped existence and unify existing resources instead of dichotomizing them into dualisms of masculinity and femininity. Maslow believed that the extent to which a person could own their psychological bisexuality, to the extent that differences can fuse and not be antagonistic to each other, to this extent, one will develop into a more integrated person.

Based on these considerations, it was predicted through hypothesis five that those people who are more satisfied with their overall lives are also more developed in their self-actualizing tendencies because they are living lives which are uniquely their own.
A number of studies have been generated to test Maslow's theory and relate it to sex role socialization among women. In one such study by Hjelle and Butterfield (1974) differences in levels of self-actualization were explored in relation to sex-role attitudes about women's rights and roles in society. The authors studied college females who were grouped according to their scores on the Attitudes Toward the Roles of Women Scale into 20 liberal and 20 conservative sections. To measure self-actualization, the authors used the Personal Orientation Inventory. The authors believed that the concept of self-actualization was important for investigation because it occupies a central role in a woman's struggle for personal development. The hypothesis predicted that women exposing liberal attitudes would show more significant differences in their levels of self-actualization than women endorsing more conservative attitudes. The findings support this hypothesis. Six of the 10 scales on the POI were significant at the .01 level. These scales included: inner-directedness, time competence, feeling reactivity, spontaneity, self-regard and acceptance of aggression. Four of the scales were significant at the .05 level. These included: self-actualizing value, existentiality, self-acceptance and capacity for intimate contact. No differences were found in the category labeled synergistic awareness which includes the concept of man as essentially good and constructive and the ability to see opposities of life as meaningfully related. No comment was made on this finding. However, on the significant findings the authors conclude that the liberal or profeminist subjects rely more upon their own internal selves, and approve of their self-
concept and worth as persons, in their own right.

A number of doctoral dissertations have been undertaken to investigate the relationships among self-actualization, sex-role attitudes, locus of control, differential regard for the sexes, androgyny and personality variables. Heidemann (1976) studied the effects of the traditional versus the nontraditional sex role orientation on personality, androgyny and self-actualization. His results indicated that there existed significant positive correlations among these components. He noted that such results suggest that a non-traditional sex-role orientation leads to a more sex-undifferentiated and balanced personality. Harris (1977) hypothesized that androgynous women, that is, having both masculine and feminine traits, would show greater levels of self-actualization than women who were stereotyped into feminine roles. She also predicted that androgynous women would have an internal locus of control as compared with an external orientation and that such women would show an equal regard for both sexes, while the stereotyped woman would devalue other women. Although results failed to support the first two hypotheses, Harris did find consistent differences between androgynous women and women low in masculinity. The third hypotheses was supported in that the feminine identified woman tends to value a male expert opinion more so than a female expert opinion even when the testimony was identical in nature. Baker (1972) studied comparisons between women involved in feminist groups and more traditional groups such as a child-centered organization. Members from the National Organization of Women represented the "rejector" group in that they advocated a redefinition of the feminine role; whereas the "acceptors" of the traditional role were represented by
members of a Mother's Club. Personality trait scales were used to assess attributes such as dogmatism, rigidity and alienation and the need for autonomy as measured by hostility and locus of control. Results show that no differences in dogmatism were apparent between the two groups although the "acceptor" group scored higher on rigidity of thought process. This was thought to be consistent with a higher degree of conservatism. However, greater feelings of alienation were expressed by the "rejector" group thereby supporting the psychological distress studies and the conflictual nature of the process of individualization in a culture which advocates role boundedness. Concern with a need for autonomy showed strong significant differences between the two groups, with the "rejectors" scoring higher on expressed hostility and externality. Differences in sex-role stereotypes regarding the perception of males as more powerful, achieved significance at the .01 level.

In a study among public school teachers on the relationship of sex-role perceptions to measured levels of self-actualization, Wise (1976) found that high self-actualizing teachers tended not to perceive their students on the basis of sex-differentiating traits, while those teachers low in self-actualization did. Hands (1974) evaluated a course for women which was directed toward the development of self-actualizing life styles. The objectives of the course were focused toward encouraging movement away from traditional sex-roles in the direction of independence and nontraditional life style choices. Differences between the control group and the "explore" group were found to be significant. The explore women tended to be more sensitive to their own feelings and had a lessened need to self-criticize. They
also showed a stronger sense of individual identity, more assertiveness and self-expression and a deepened capacity for self-direction. On follow up they were also more satisfied with themselves than the control group and report that their needs for personal fulfillment and rewarding interpersonal relationships are being met. They reported that their marriages had become more egalitarian with increased amounts of self-disclosure thereby enriching the marital relationship.

Recent presentations of studies on relationships among sex-role attitudes, psychological well-being and self-actualization have been addressed at the 1979 American Psychological Association Convention. Allgeier and Prsybyla (1979) in their study of the relationship of androgyny to psychological functioning found, as had Maslow in 1939, that sex-typed females were significantly less dominant than androgynous females. Androgynous persons appear to respond in situationally appropriate manners, whereas the responses of sex-typed individuals are predictably gender-stereotypic. Using the Personal Orientation Inventory and the California Personality Inventory with 80 undergraduate psychology students, Allgeier and Prsybyla found the androgynous persons to be more flexible, dominant, and to have higher levels of social presence than their sex-typed peers. Androgynous persons also scored higher on the self-actualizing value, self-regard and synergy subscales of the Personal Orientation Inventory. Differences in self-regard scores appears to reflect a higher level of self-esteem in the androgynous individuals. The authors take note that a greater number of significant differences
appear on the measurement of self-actualization than on the measure-
ment of psychological adjustment, once again reflecting the inherent
conflicts surrounding life style choices that are counter to tradi-
tional modes of relating.

Dolnick's (1979) research involving female college students
enrolled in introductory psychology classes at the University of
Cincinnati hypothesized the following relationships: (1) that a
positive relationship between nontraditional attitudes and levels
of self-actualization would exist, (2) that the more nontraditional
women would demonstrate lower mood levels, and (3) that nontraditional
women show higher levels of mood variability on a day-to-day basis.
All three hypotheses were supported. Findings revealed significant
differences on eight of the twelve self-actualization scales, with
the nontraditional women being much more actualized in their capacity
for intimate contact than the traditional women. Nontraditional
women also experienced lower mood levels as measured by the Personal
Feelings Scales (Wessman & Ricks, 1966). These women had a greater
degree of within-day and day-to-day mood variation than the tradi-
tional women. Dolnick discussed the implications of her results in
terms of conflict and distress which is experienced at a time of
redefinition when society is resistant to such change.

However, another study done recently by Bennett (1979) found
that androgynous and masculine subjects were better adjusted in
the areas of psychological health, freedom from adjustment pathology,
and heterosexual development. These subjects were also found to have
higher levels of self-esteem and to be more extroverted in terms of
less socially-inhibiting behaviors, than either feminine and sex-undifferentiated subjects. In addition to this Bennett did not find support for the hypotheses that androgynous individuals would be more self-actualized than either masculine or feminine persons. Androgynous and masculine subjects did not differ on measures of self-actualization. There is a definite adjustment advantage for the masculine-oriented subjects, according to Bennett's study. Such a finding appears contradictory to the psychological distress hypotheses proposed by a number of researchers, as it pertains to women with androgynous or masculine-orientations. For men, however, there was a disadvantage in androgynous orientation with respect to freedom from adjustment pathology with androgynous men being more vulnerable to symptoms of emotional disturbance than masculine men. Bennett concludes that traditional masculine orientations are necessary to healthy psychological adjustment for both sexes. She goes on to state that those individuals who achieved an androgynous state appeared to do so, not so much because of the feminine balance in their personalities, but rather in spite of it, because traditional feminine characteristics were found to be irrelevant and damaging to healthy functioning.

Ginn (1975) studied the relationship of psychological androgyny to self-actualization among 75 female undergraduate students at Ohio University. He used both the Bem Sex Role Inventory which classifies individuals into three groupings, masculine, feminine, and androgynous and the Personal Orientation Inventory. He, like Bennett, found androgynous subjects to score no differently on self-actualization than masculine or feminine individuals. However, he did find that the masculine Acceptance of Aggression score on the POI was significantly
different for the masculine-oriented subjects than for either the androgynous or the feminine subjects. This greater tendency to accept anger and aggression within oneself seems to be a privilege reserved for the masculine trait characteristics.

Doyle (1975) studied 75 male and 75 female students to ascertain if in fact a relationship between sex-role attitudes and self-actualization did exist. Using the Personal Orientation Inventory and the Kirkpatrick Feminist-antifeminist Belief-Pattern Scale, Doyle found small, but significant positive correlations on six of the twelve subscales of the POI. These scales included: inner-directedness, self-actualizing values, existentiality, feeling reactivity, spontaneity and capacity for intimate contact. On a composite basis, these six scales can be said to be descriptive of an individual who has developed an internal self-direction and is less likely to be influenced by external societal expectations to conform. In addition to this, such persons are more flexible in the application of their values; more sensitive to their own needs and emotions and have matured to the point of being able to develop, nurture and sustain deep caring interpersonal relationships with others. Only the male sample in Doyle's study showed a small, but again significant positive relationship between the self-acceptance subscale and profeminist attitudes. Doyle hypothesized that men who view women as equals are more likely to have a self-perception that is more complete than men who see women as less than equal. He interprets this finding as reflecting the observation that high self-accepting males are more willing to be open and vulnerable as people and are more likely to view woman as having many
common characteristics that they themselves might have. The traditional male sex-role belief is that any expression of feelings of weakness, cooperativeness instead of competitiveness, or emotionality instead of rationality is indicative of something less than a man. Doyle, however, asserts that males will be able to more deeply relate to others, when they can first accept themselves as individuals.

In studying the nature of the types of values and value judgments made by traditional and nontraditional men and women, Mahoney (1975), found many significant differences in value rankings between the two groups. These differences were attributed to a nontraditional emphasis on self-actualization as compared to an emphasis on belongingness and love among the traditional group. These latter two needs are subordinate to the self-actualization needs as set forth in Maslow's hierarchy of needs. The nontraditional woman does not become more masculine in orientation in that she assumes values of the traditional male role, but instead, transcends role boundaries in the pursuit of self-actualization. Mahoney found that both males and females showed significant growth as measured by the Sex-Role Standards Measure and the Rokeach Value Survey when they advocated proliberationist ideologies. However, for nontraditional women incorporating a liberationist point of view usually means access to goal attainments. Whereas, for liberationist men, it means a fundamental change in social goals and structure. Such a finding could be interpreted as demonstrating that for women in this culture, a change in role behaviors is a means to develop personal aspirations, whereas
for men, who have always had access to achievement goals, the meaning is much more general in nature. However, both men and women who view themselves as proliberationist advocate a transcendence in role-specific behaviors.

Kilmann, Follingstad, Price, Rowland, and Robinson (1976) conducted a 16-hour marathon group with 28 female undergraduate volunteers which was designed to increase self-understanding and awareness. The authors hypothesized that the women who participated in the group which had as its goals, heightened self-expression, individuality and independence of thought and action would shift in the direction of more self-actualizing people and experience an attitude change toward greater agreement with proliberationist views. Both the Personal Orientation Inventory and the Attitudes Toward Women Scale were used to assess degree of change. Findings reveal a significant difference on the inner-directedness scale which reflects an increase in independence and self-supportedness. In addition to promoting personality changes, it was also found that the marathon group had some impact in facilitating attitude changes among the women, in the direction of more liberationist beliefs. The authors note that according to Kelman (1974), a determinant of attitude consistency is the degree to which the environment is supportive and accepting of the behaviors which reflect the attitude changes. Therefore, if the environment is hostile and nonaccepting, the individual is put in a stressful and conflictual state being vulnerable to disapproval if she chooses a more nontraditional life style.

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As can be seen from this review of literature on self-actualization and sex role attitudes, the findings appear quite consistent with respect to the relationship between nontraditional attitudes and increased levels in self-actualization. However, the toll such changes take in terms of psychological adjustment and well-being are not as encouraging.

Vocational Orientation

The profile of the working woman has, and continues to, change dramatically. According to the U. S. Census Bureau (1976), a conservative estimate of the number of women who will participate in the labor force between 1974 and 1990 will increase by 22% over previous years. The largest increase will be for women between the ages of 25 to 44 years (McCall, 1977). Increases in labor force activity have been especially significant among married women. Some of the reasons cited for this include the breakdown of barriers in traditionally held occupations so that women are now entering male dominated professions and jobs; the life expectancy of women has increased by 27 years; the continuously rising cost of living; birth control devices which have made it possible for women to control the size of their families and the finding that most working women are satisfied in their jobs (Bureau of Advertising, 1972). Other contributing factors include the greater accessibility of education and legislation aimed at eliminating discrimination.

The women who have entered into the labor force differ in important characteristics from those traditional women who believe
a woman's place is exclusively in the home. It has been found that it is the younger, better educated, more liberal and cosmopolitan women that opt for a working status (Reynolds, Crask & Wells, 1977). However, it has also consistently been found by these same researchers and the National Commission on the Observance of International Women's Year (1977), that it is the traditional woman who rates herself as the most satisfied with life, lending support to the notion that the traditional woman does not feel undervalued in the housewife role. Such contradictions need further examination, and hypothesis two explores the relationship between paid employment versus homemaker choices and its significance to overall life satisfaction. Differentiating factors such as interest patterns, psychiatric symptomatology, personality correlates, effects of marriage and children, motives to pursue work, and socialization influences must be taken into account and further explored in order to arrive at a better understanding of both the choice of vocation and vocational choices for women.

In a recent article reviewing the literature on personality and backgrounds of women who enter male-dominated occupations, Lemkau (1979) found distinct personality differences for these nontraditional women. Studies by Werner and Bachtold (1974); O'Leary and Braun (1972); and Helson (1971) found these women to be more independent, assertive and rational--qualities which stereotypically reflect the male competency traits. As a whole, they were brighter, more dominant, adventurous and radical than comparison groups. In addition, they were also found to be significantly more emotionally stable,
resourceful, aloof and imaginative as measured by Cattell's 16PF. Except for an orientation toward ideas and things and less of an orientation to the social environment, nontraditional women still maintain aspects of the feminine stereotype such as warmth and expressiveness. Patrick (1973) found that in response to a TAT item, achievement was based on competency and independence for professional women, whereas for homemakers, achievement was based on approval and conformity to expectations.

Striking similarities were found in background characteristics of women in male-dominated occupations. Among these were a preponderance of firstborns or only children, thereby occupying a "special status" in the family hierarchy; being of foreign origin; higher levels of parental education than found in the general population; high rates of maternal employment and professional status acquired by the father; parental values which emphasized achievement, hard work, education and androgynous exploration; stable family situations; close, warm and supportive relationships with both parents; parents were found to be encouraging and supportive of their endeavors and to have good marital relationships with each other (Hennig, 1973; Constantini & Craik, 1972; Standley & Soule, 1974; Patrick, 1973; Epstein, 1969; Block, Von der Lippe, & Block, 1974; O'Leary & Braun, 1972).

Tinsley (1972) found differences in the areas of parental family background, home environment, high school and college activities, educational variables, personal attitudes and values, employment objectives, parental education and occupational levels,
socioeconomic status and self-ratings of personal traits between homemakers and career oriented women. Career oriented women rated themselves higher than homemakers on academic ability, achievement motivation, intellectual independence and self-confidence; whereas, homemakers rated themselves higher on social skills. Dupree (1976) using Cattell's 16 Personality Factor Questionnaire between groups of career versus homemaker oriented women found significant differences at the .05 level on dominance, liberalism, imagination, creativity and superego strength, for the career oriented women, thereby supporting her hypothesis that significant differences in the personalities of women who choose differing vocational directions exists.

Supporting evidence of personality differences as well as background differences in the two groups is given by Crawford (1975), O'Connell (1974) and Morris (1974). In general it has been found by these researchers that homemakers have greater needs for deference, order and abasement as measured by the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule. In addition, homemakers are more moralistic, conscientious and staid than women who combine homemaking and career. Such women were found to be more aggressive, competitive, experimental, autonomous and free thinking. Career oriented women were also found to be more liberal in the areas of sexual behavior, vocational, educational, and intellectual roles than homemakers. Background factors show the career oriented woman to have come from a family where the mother was employed and the parents reflected liberal attitudes and had higher educational levels than the homemaking groups. The
career oriented groups are also found to have a stronger sense of identity.

In the area of interest patterns and values, differentiating characteristics have also been found. Munley (1974) and Wagman (1966) using the Strong Vocational Interest Blank and the Study of Values found distinctive interest-value patterns between career and homemaking oriented women thereby supporting findings discovered by Hoyt and Kennedy in 1958. These findings by Hoyt and Kennedy showed that career oriented women exceeded homemaking oriented women on the physician, lawyer, psychologist, author, and physical education teacher scales, which in 1958, were all considered male-dominated professions. The homemaking motivated women choose traditional scales such as housewife, office worker, stenographer-secretary, home economics teacher, and dietician. On the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule, homemakers were found to be more succorant and heterosexual while career women were found to be more achievement motivated, enduring, and intraceptive. Wagman's findings support those of Hoyt and Kennedy. In addition, Wagman found the career oriented women to score higher on the theoretical, economic, and political scales of the study of values and lower on the social, esthetic and religious scales than the homemaking group. However, only the theoretical and religious scales were significant in differentiating the two groups at the .01 level. Theoretical orientation is defined as the discovery of truth through cognitive means using observation and reason; whereas, the religious orientation is defined as an altruistic aspect of love, valuing human life above all else.
In a study investigating the relationship of feminine role and self-concepts to vocational maturity, Putnam and Hansen (1972) demonstrated that a person's self-concept was significantly associated with one's vocational maturity thereby supporting Super's theory of vocational development. They further found that both the feminine role concept of self combined with the self-concept predicted vocational maturity for 16 year old girls from middle-class families. Their findings reveal that the more the girl saw her role as being a liberal one, the higher was the level of vocational maturity. Putnam and Hansen conclude that the more liberal girls believe in an achievement orientation which affords the possibility of achieving her own potentials and accomplishments. The authors advocate the necessity of helping both girls and boys identify philosophies, values and personal goals so that they may influence their vocational choices be it a housewife or a career directed one.

Oliver (1974) investigated the need for achievement and the need for affiliation in career-oriented and homemaking-oriented college women, in terms of an interaction between the two needs. Using Bardwick's (1971) premise that identification with the traditional feminine model is based on a high need for affiliation and a low need for achievement, Oliver sought to determine whether the converse might be true for women with career-orientations. She found that there existed an achievement-affiliation interaction for both the career and homemaking-oriented subjects at the .05 level of significance. The finding of an interaction effect lends support to Bardwick's notion of motivational factors playing a part in vocational choices.

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for women such that different needs are satisfied by different roles. Therefore, affiliation needs may best be gratified through the traditional homemaking role with its emphasis on other-directed activities; whereas, the achievement needs can best be satisfied through one's own efforts and emphasis on inner-directedness.

While the research which has been cited up to this point shows distinctive and strong differences in the areas of personality, background, interest patterns, vocational maturity, needs and self-concept between career-oriented and homemaking-oriented groups, it has not dealt with the actual effects of paid employment, homemaking or a combination of both; the variables that effect such choices and the effect certain life choices have on a woman's mental health, life satisfaction and marital relationship, among other things. The following review of literature will explore some of these areas.

McClendon (1976), in investigating the actual occupational status attainment process for 1,381 males and 778 females from a national sample of noninstitutionalized individuals 18 years and older from the years 1972 through 1974 found the following results: married working females have more education than nonworking females, come from higher status families, and have slightly higher status than part-time workers and unmarried women. It was also found that education was the most important factor for assigning both males and females to positions, and that the number of children a woman had did not affect her status attainment. He also found that compared to the working women, housewives had, on the average, a year less education, slightly more siblings, and fathers with lower socioeconomic
levels and less education. McClendon concluded that if housewives wanted to find employment, they would most likely end up with lower occupational status positions than currently working women. Other researchers, Alexander and Eckland (1974), Treiman and Terrell (1975) have found that for females, family status is a stronger determinant of education than is mental ability and that the education of working females is more strongly affected by mother's education than by father's.

Ferree (1976) examining housework and paid work as sources of satisfaction among working-class women, married with at least one child in first or second grade, interviewed 135 women in eastern Massachusetts. Her findings reveal that full-time housewives are more dissatisfied with the way their lives are going than are women who hold jobs. While financial need is an important motivator for women seeking employment, Ferre notes that it is not the only reason. Important social and psychological needs which cannot be met by full-time housework are provided for by the opportunity to work. Such intrinsic needs as social interaction, a sense of personal contribution, relief from feelings of meaninglessness and powerlessness and a sense of competency and self-esteem find expression in the work area. Housewives were also found to feel that they have not had a fair opportunity with life and want their daughters to be different from themselves. In the area of educational levels, the higher the educational level, the more satisfaction with life noted. Ferree's findings confirm that of Komarovsky (1962) who claimed that the less educated women tend to be less unhappy at home than the more educated women. Additional findings reveal that the women with no work experience at all, had the
least amount of interest in working for intrinsic reasons as compared to financial reasons. It was also found that part-time workers were more interested in work for intrinsic purposes than either full-time workers or housewives, and consequently, are also the most satisfied. However, it was also found that although a sense of competency is more accessible through working, it is the woman whose self-esteem is supported by both the role of housewife and working woman who tends to have the greatest satisfaction of all. In her sample, Ferree found at least 25% of the women to intrinsically value housework and have absolutely no desire to work outside of the home. Ferree concludes that there is no reason to assume that a woman could not be self-actualizing in the homemaker role, and there is some data to indicate that this is so. However, on the whole, most full-time housewives are discontent with their sense of accomplishment and find paid employment a liberating experience.

In studying wives' reasons for work, wives' perceptions of husband's participation in homemaker tasks, marital satisfaction, attitudes toward women, satisfaction with homemaker job and task responsibilities among 71 married couples, Gross and Arvey (1977) found some significant results. Wives' satisfaction with the housewife role was related to husband's responsibility for homemaker tasks, including child care, and to husband's attitudes toward women. The wives of husbands with liberal attitudes were less satisfied with the homemaker role than wives of conservative husbands. Reasons which Gross and Avery cite for this finding are that the wives of liberal husbands are less likely to see themselves as only housewives.
and are more able to find satisfactions in other areas of their lives. It was also found that the wife's marital satisfaction was not related to husband participation in homemaker tasks, but was related to her own employment status and satisfaction with the housewife role. That is, those women who held jobs and who were also satisfied with the homemaker role scored highest in marital satisfaction. On the other hand, job holders who were not as satisfied with the homemaker role scored the lowest in marital satisfaction. Working wives perceive their husbands as helping more with homemaker tasks; however, the husbands state that they do not have any more responsibility than when their wives didn't work. Wives who worked for financial instead of intrinsic reasons, did not receive any more help from husbands in their participation with household chores. An interesting finding was noted in that the liberal attitudes of a husband were more closely associated with their wives' homemaker satisfaction than the wives' own attitudes. Gross and Avery do not speculate on this finding. However, it appears that the more supportive the spouse in terms of encouraging alternative sources of satisfaction, the more the woman is able to integrate both roles into her life style in a comfortable and accepting fashion.

Related studies by Axelson (1970) and Orden and Bradburn (1969) have found conflicting results in the area of marital satisfaction and working wives. Axelson found that husbands of housewives evaluated their marriages more positively than husbands of working wives. However, Orden and Bradburn found that husbands and wives report higher marital satisfaction when the wife works for intrinsic reasons instead of economic ones and is not defined exclusively as a housewife. In
a study done by Burke and Weir (1976) in which wives' employment status was related to marital satisfaction and performance, significant sex differences were found among 189 married couples who were sampled. Findings reveal that among working wives greater marital and life satisfaction was reported even though holding a job tends to intensify worries and concerns. However, housewives reported more life worries and demands, overall. It was also found that working wives tended to communicate with their husbands more than housewives on a variety of topics, whereas, housewives appeared to limit the diversity of communication to topics dealing specifically with the children. However, the husbands of working wives reported greater dissatisfaction with jobs, marriages, and many other aspects of their lives. They also performed less effectively in these areas. It appears that husbands of housewives fare much better. The authors reason that the stress involved in adjusting to a two-career family coupled with a decrease in overall support, time, and energy that a wife can give, contributes to this general decline in overall satisfaction.

On the whole, studies dealing with wives' employment status have found an increase in the area of life satisfaction, daily work satisfaction, increased levels of self-esteem and self-confidence, a greater sense of personal autonomy and competency and improved relationships with children among working wives (Nye, 1974; Feldman, & Feldman, 1973; Birnbaum, 1971; Ohlbaum, 1971). Birnbaum (1975) compared three groups of women: single professional women, married professional women, and homemakers. She found that both single and
married professional women scored significantly higher on measures of self-esteem, life satisfaction, and feelings of competency than did the homemakers. In the area of physical attractiveness she found the homemakers to believe they were less attractive. Burke and Weir (1976) also found homemakers to report poorer physical health.

There have been consistent findings in assessing the effects of employment status, children, and psychological needs on the mental health of women. Feld (1963) and Birnbaum (1971) both found that in general the health of working wives is better than that of housewives. It was found by Nye (1974) that the benefits derived in terms of psychological and social satisfactions from working, mitigate any feelings of guilt, anxiety, and inadequacy about fulfilling maternal and housewife roles. In fact, in one study done by Hock (1978) on working and nonworking mothers with infants, it was found that the more career oriented a working mother, the less she took infant irritation as a personal failure, the less she saw infant distress at separation as caused by her absence, the less anxiety she felt about separation issues and the less worry she felt about other care givers. The more highly career oriented a nonworking mother was, the opposite held true on all counts. There is evidence to support the notion that children do best overall when mothers do what they want. That is, when women who prefer to be homemakers are homemakers and when women who prefer employment can have it (Hoffman, 1974; Howell, 1973; Nye & Hoffman, 1963). Feld (1963) and Nye (1963) report that employed mothers are more positive in their attitudes toward their children.
and describe their role as mothers as less restricting, burdensome and demanding than nonworking mothers. Gove and Geerken (1977) studied psychiatric symptomatology and sex differences among the married concluding that differences in roles occupied by men and women produce differential effects. Taking the effect of employment, and number of children on feelings of loneliness, desire to be alone, and demands, the researchers found that employed married men are in the best mental health followed by employed married women with the unemployed married women being in the worst mental health. In a comparative study of workers and housewives in treatment for depression, Mostow and Newberry (1975) found that while working women were more impaired when treatment began, they tended to recover faster than did housewives. Working women were found to feel more competent in their work, less bored with their lives and less tense in social situations than housewives.

In exploring the motives to seek or avoid work and the degree of commitment to one's work some recent research has been conducted in the area of "vicarious achievement"; that is, experiencing a sense of accomplishment through the accomplishments of others. Blumen (1970) and Lipman-Blumen (1972) related achievement styles to sex-role ideology and educational aspirations. They found mode of achievement to be a strong intervening variable in the relationship between sex-role ideology and educational aspirations. Women who are traditional in their sex-role orientation tended to meet achievement needs through the accomplishments of their husbands. The researchers conclude that such achievement patterns can short
circuit educational, occupational, and personal needs of traditional women. Such women are forced to depend upon and to manipulate the relationships with their husbands to get what they want for themselves, resulting in such a strong identification with the achiever that both successes and failures are treated as if they were their own. Some women adopt contributory styles of achievement in which they help facilitate another's performance--the "good woman behind every successful man" syndrome; in this case the contribution acts as the accomplishment. Such indirect styles, foster dependency, avoid confrontations with adult environments and as Lipman-Blumen and Leavitt (1976) assert, reinforce the notion that marital and maternal roles are the most appropriate and desired roles for women.

It can then be speculated that within marriage, the danger in vicarious forms of achievement lie in the acquisition or frustration of status, power, money, and other needs. Those traditional women whose husbands do not achieve at a rate or level they consider successful, can find their marital satisfaction declining and their sense of frustration in the relationship with their spouse increasing. It can further be speculated that for women who adopt a direct achieving style, in which they utilize their own resources and efforts to accomplish their goals, there would be more acceptance of their spouse's occupational attainments.

For those women who do choose to work, work commitment has been defined by Safilios-Rothschild (1971) and Haller and Rosenmayr (1971) as the length and continuity of a married woman's employment.
Because such a choice is considered a socially deviant one, the mere fact that a woman made it, is considered to indicate a strong and purposeful work involvement. Nonfinancial motivations to pursue employment also represent a long term and involved employment commitment. Haller and Rosenmayr found that the wish to work long-term is strongly correlated with work satisfaction among women. In addition to this, there has been some evidence by Fuchs (1970), that those women who were not committed to and involved in their work, were not only dissatisfied with their job, but also with their family life and their roles as wife and mother. Safilios-Rothschild concludes that these findings suggest that in some cases, women who are alienated from their work roles may be as alienated from their other roles. Although Campbell, Converse and Rodgers (1976) have found that satisfaction with life is very closely related to differing life cycle stages such as marital status, education, occupation, and income levels, Haller and Rosenmayr have found that a woman's work commitment in the life cycle is strongly influenced by a successfully pursued career and a long work experience. However, they did find that mothers show higher work commitment after having children.

Satisfaction with Life

During the past 15 years, social scientists began to more seriously take a look at those indicators which constitute a person's subjective experience of well-being. These Quality of Life studies as they have come to be called, have shown similar patterns of relationships among variables. For example, it has been shown that satisfaction
with life is usually dependent upon where individuals are at in their life cycles. Life cycle can be conceptualized in terms of the aging process in which one follows a sequence of biological capabilities, experiences, roles, relationships, and opportunities (Van Dusen & Sheldon, 1976). Positive correlations have consistently been found between life satisfaction and certain variables. Higher income levels, higher educational levels, better health, employment, higher status positions, married status (particularly for men), involvement in social and leisure-time activities with others and such factors as self-esteem and a sense of competency and mastery over one's environment tend to increase overall life satisfaction (Arkoff, 1975; Bradburn, 1969; Fellows, 1966; Robinson & Shaver, 1969; Wilson, 1967).

In a study done by Stewart (1976) in which satisfaction in stages of the life cycle were explored, it was found that among 48 undergraduate students who were asked to indicate past, present, and future satisfaction with their own lives, middle adulthood was perceived as the most satisfying period followed by early childhood, later adulthood, middle childhood, old age, later childhood, early adulthood, and adolescence. In overall ratings, 66% described their lives as very or somewhat satisfying, 24% fell in the "so-so" range and 10% described their lives as very or somewhat unsatisfying.

These percentages very closely approximate those studies done by Robinson and Shaver (1969) and Bradburn (1969), thereby indicating a general tendency for most persons to perceive their lives at least somewhat satisfying. This section of the review of literature will deal with some general studies focusing on indicators
of satisfaction toward the end of one's life thereby giving an overall life perspective and more specific studies on life satisfaction as it pertains to women.

Longitudinal research in this area suggests that it is not the aging process as such which determines life satisfaction among the elderly, but rather that life style patterns established earlier in the person's life cycle influences the social and psychological well-being of the older person (Maddox, 1968). It has also been found that older and younger persons do not differ so much in their perceptions of their overall life satisfaction as they differ in the types of gratifications they select to experience. It is also interesting to note that the highest increases in reported feelings of worry and experienced symptoms of anxiety are among the younger age groups and not the older ones (Veroff, Douvan & Kulka, 1976).

Spreitzer and Snyder (1974) found an interaction effect between age, sex, and life satisfaction with women up to age 65 reporting higher rates of satisfaction than men and men after age 65 reporting higher levels than women. They also found that perceived physical health and financial adequacy were strong predictors of life satisfaction for persons over age 65 even more so than objective indicators of socio-economic levels.

Based on Spreitzer and Snyder's findings, Medley (1976) hypothesized a causative chain among financial situation, physical health satisfaction, satisfaction with standard of living, family life, and life as a whole. His findings reveal that satisfaction with family life made the greatest impact on satisfaction with life
for both men and women, over 65 years of age. Among women, satisfaction with standard of living was the second most important determinant of life satisfaction, with health satisfaction next. The reverse was true for men. In contrast to Spreitzer and Snyder's study, a person's financial situation was found to have no direct relationship on life satisfaction for either sex.

Zeglen (1976) in studying the impact of primary relationships on the life satisfaction of persons 60 years and older found that proximity to a spouse or household member was most important to life satisfaction. She also found that income level and type of occupational experience were more important to males' satisfaction, whereas, marital status was more important to females.

As can be seen from these studies on life satisfaction for the elderly, while there is commonality in the types of variables which influence later life satisfactions, the consistency of priority predictors of life satisfaction are not as clear cut for the aged. There are also important sex differences in self-reported measures of life satisfaction. The remaining literature will focus on a woman's life satisfaction with attention given to those life style patterns which impact on life satisfaction and which can be seen to be either continuous or discontinuous throughout a woman's life cycle thereby affecting later life correlates of well-being.

Change is the word which seems to best reflect the socialization process for women. Change in the areas of social expectations, environmental pressures, work roles, home roles, the roles of wife and mother, and educational roles. It appears that role continuity
and discontinuity is a life span phenomena for most women in which role conflict and loss and gain require repeated adjustments to life situations. According to Atchley (1972) the woman is under greater pressure to take-on a number of conflicting roles throughout her life, while the man usually occupies a consistent "role space" in which the role of worker is most prevalent. Cottrell (1942) maintains that a person will make an adjustment to a role change to the extent that sufficient anticipatory preparation has been undertaken for that role situation. Because women are faced with age-linked adjustments in the areas of educational training, marriage, and childbearing, labor force participation and menopause, Kline (1975) notes that women are therefore more familiar with change and impermanence which in the long run act as contributors to overall life satisfaction. Lopata (1966) asserts that constant modifications in each assigned role a woman has through her life cycle, contributes to a relatively high level of life satisfaction in a woman's later years. Indeed, as Mulvey (1963) found, women who displayed the least degree of life satisfaction as far as their vocational behavior was concerned were those women who had experienced only one continuous role of either homemaker or worker over the adult life-span. It was found that the women with the greatest degree of life satisfaction were those that had experienced more discontinuity and change in primary role involvements over the lifetime. Such a finding is consistent with Baruch and Barnett's (1978) statement that when one considers the overall life span, the gratifications experienced by participation in a variety of

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roles usually outweighs the conflict and stress involved in multiple role involvement.

However, Hall (1972) emphasizes that effective coping with role conflict is contingent upon not only the type of coping style a woman assumes, but also on the type of role conflict involved, the conditions causing the conflict, the personality of the person involved and the condition of the interpersonal relations among the individual and her role senders. Hall found that role conflict is related to the satisfaction married women feel with their roles depending upon the type of coping strategy they employ. If a woman can structurally redefine her role by eliminating or adding particular activities within roles, receiving role support from outside agents who aid in certain role activities, receive support from role senders (usually family members), problem solve with role senders, and integrate roles so that overlap among roles is increased in a way that each contributes to the other, then she will experience higher levels of satisfaction in her roles.

Another effective coping strategy entails what Hall calls "reactive role behavior" in which a woman increases efficiency in role performance through planning, scheduling, and organizing activities. This also includes working harder to meet all role demands. The least effective coping style is the one in which the woman attempts personal role redefinition by ranking activities in order of importance, separating roles and minimizing overlap of roles, overlooking role demands, reducing standards and changing attitudes in an attempt to reduce conflict. Such a style will result in low role satisfaction.
for the married woman. Successful adaptation to multiply role involvements and their subsequent stresses and conflicts is dependent upon the extent to which one sets goals for certain levels of role performance. This usually results in success or failure depending upon the personal level of aspiration. Hall states that it is this degree of psychological success or failure which naturally leads to a sense of satisfaction with one's role involvements. Hall goes further to say that the simple act of coping in and of itself may be more strongly related to role satisfaction than the type of coping style.

Hall and Gordon (1973) studied the effects of career choices on conflict, role behavior, and satisfaction among a group of married women. Three career options consisting of full-time employment, part-time employment and full-time housewife were examined. The main hypothesis predicted that women who actually did what they preferred doing would be more satisfied than women who found themselves in roles which did not match their preferences. Findings revealed significantly more satisfaction for full-time housewives and those involved in volunteer activities who indicated a preference for these roles than for those who indicated that they would prefer not to be in these roles. However, for women who preferred working, those who were presently working part-time were not significantly more satisfied than those who were not working. In addition to this, women who were working and preferring such a role, were also not significantly more satisfied than those who were working but would prefer not to.
Hall and Gordon note that the role dynamics of working women are different from those of nonworking women. Both part-time and full-time working women reported significantly more conflicts from nonhome pressures than housewives with part-time workers reporting more home-related conflicts than either full-time working women or full-time housewives. It also appears that part-time workers report the greatest number of role involvements. In spite of the conflicts reported by full-time workers, they reported the greatest overall satisfaction with their role. Housewives reported the least amount of multiple role involvement which accounted for low occurrences of nonhome pressures, however, they were also found to have relatively high incidences of self-related conflicts. For all three groups, home pressures were still the most significant contributor to a woman's source of role conflict. However, among part-time workers, a positive correlation was found between satisfaction and multiple role involvements. According to the authors, the results suggest that career choices are more difficult to successfully implement than are the choices of home-oriented women because home-related tasks are part of the traditionally accepted roles for women and, therefore, find support, acceptance, and admiration from the external environment. On the other hand, the woman preferring to work outside of the home may encounter increased role conflict and pressure which may offset the satisfaction gained from doing what she prefers to do.

In a study examining the differences in levels of satisfaction, self-concept, self-acceptance, and vocational maturity between freshmen
men and women who made congruent and incongruent occupational choices, Walsh, Howard, O'Brien, Santa-Maria, and Edmondson (1973) found significant differences. Using Holland's (1966) theory of vocational development which states that individuals tend to choose environments which are consistent with their personal orientations and that such congruent choices are indicative of personal and vocational stability, the researchers found the congruent students to report higher levels of personal adjustment and a higher degree of overall personal satisfaction. Such findings lend support to the Hall and Gordon study in that those individuals who choose environments consistent with their personalities will be most satisfied if they are doing what they prefer to do. Holland's theory focused on six types of adjustment stemming from major life styles and patterns of relationships between the individual and their world. These six orientations consisted of: realistic--characterized by aggressive behavior and physical activity; social--characterized by close interpersonal situations and skill in interpersonal relations; investigative--characterized by intellectuality and thinking; conventional--characterized by a great concern for rules and regulations, great self-control, subordinantion of personal needs, and strong identification with power and status; enterprising--characterized by manipulation and domination of others and the quest for personal power; artistic--characterized by strong self-expression and a dislike of structure.

Holland states that if environmental factors interfere with the implementation of a person's first orientation, then an attempt
will be made to seek an occupational environment appropriate to the second strongest orientation. However, Holland also acknowledged that his theory would have to be modified for women although he did not explain why or how it should be modified. One explanation, however, lies in the fact that women in our society are socialized into more conventional roles such as homemaker and either never discover or do not have the opportunity to actualize their preferences for occupational choices thereby disrupting the natural selection process of defining vocational tasks and goals within one's own unique occupational orientation.

Bardwick (1971) summarized evidence to show that the present middle-aged woman begins to evidence increased dissatisfaction with the exclusive role of housewife after 10 to 15 years. Mulvey's (1963) data showed that for women between the ages of 50 and 60 years, high life satisfaction was associated with career patterns marked by: a return to career after children have entered school; entry into the work environment upon deferred career; contribution of talent and time to volunteer activities when children were young; and continuous, simultaneous homemaking and working.

In a study which examined women's goal-emphases and satisfactions during the postparental period, Humphrey (1969) sampled 271 women using Buhler's Life Goal Inventory and a questionnaire which included self-reported satisfaction scales. Her findings reveal significant relationships between lower educational level and non-employment outside of the home. In addition to this woman involved
in educational activities were found to have tendencies toward development of potentials, accomplishment, leadership and public life, and having power and control significantly more than women not involved in such activities. The author also found a relationship between lower educational levels and strong need satisfaction and self-limiting adaptation goal emphases.

Hypothesis three explores the relationship between women who are able to find employment commensurate with their educational levels or training and their abilities to actualize their potentials, predicting that those women whose employment matches their training will also be more self-actualized.

Chernik and Phelan (1974) studied perceived need satisfaction as a function of job level using Maslow's need hierarchy which states that physiological and security needs are the most prepotent and must be somewhat satisfied before a person can satisfy higher-order needs such as self-esteem and self-actualization. The authors hypothesized that workers would perceive the importance of needs differently than managers and that need fulfillment would differ based on different perceptions of roles. Results show that higher work levels are positively correlated to degree of perceived job satisfaction. Female clerks, representing 86% of their sample, indicated much less satisfaction than did the male, however, for the female manager, the reverse was true. While the higher-order needs of esteem and self-actualization were consistently ranked in high order of importance among all male workers, females ranked security first with other
needs following in predicted order. Females showed greater degrees of job satisfaction with each higher managerial level. It appears then that not only do females occupy the lowest work levels and, therefore, experience the least amount of satisfaction from their work, but also that this level of work involvement keeps women from moving and experiencing the esteem and autonomy that comes from positions of authority and responsibility. Such a finding has implications for the choice of paid employment as compared to the exclusive role of homemaker in that if a woman is denied access to positions which enhance self-esteem, nurture autonomy and tap her potentialities, therefore forcing her to stay at a level which reinforces dependency she might well decide that the financial gain is not worth the psychological costs, thereby finding her role as housewife more satisfying than her role as worker.

Indeed, in a study done on factors influencing the homemaker's satisfaction, Hafstrom and Dunsing (1973) found that compared to homemakers who had managerial occupations, homemakers not employed outside the home were the most satisfied with their levels of living followed by clerical-sales workers, professional-technical occupations and blue collar workers.

In a study on satisfaction with family, work, leisure and life among men and women, Haavio-Mannila (1971) found important interrelationships between different indices of satisfaction. For all groups of unmarried employed men and women, married employed men and women, and married nonemployed women, family satisfaction
was found to have the highest correlation with overall life satisfaction. For employed wives, family life as a whole was more important in determining satisfaction in other life sectors than the relationship with the spouse. However, satisfaction with work and dissatisfaction with their family and spouse prompted these women to choose work as a central life satisfier. It was also found that such dissatisfaction with family and spouse correlated significantly with noneconomic reasons to seek out employment. Haavio-Mannila concluded that work may serve as functional compensation for dissatisfaction with the marital relationship. It was also found that women who occupied higher status positions reported less satisfaction with their family life, whereas, women who occupied lower status positions reported the greatest amount of satisfaction with their families and spouses. However, it was also found that the lower status women had more symptoms of anxiety than those who occupied higher status positions. The greatest number of symptoms of anxiety were found among nonemployed housewives—a finding which corresponds to Hall and Gordon's (1973) research in which housewives were found to have the highest rates of self-related conflicts. Makinen (1975) supports Haavio-Mannila's theory of compensation and cites the finding that most married subjects refer to family life as the central source of life satisfaction while unmarried subjects report work and leisure as their central life satisfiers.

In the area of sex roles and satisfaction with life, it was hypothesized by Wish (1977) that subjects 62 years of age and older would report greater life satisfaction if they had integrated or
androgynous sex roles as compared to strongly sex-typed individuals. Her findings reveal this to be the case for females, but not for males. She also found socioeconomic variables and age as the most important predictors of life satisfaction, among her sample of 98 female and 60 male subjects.

In a study by Keys (1976) in which sex-role ideology, commitment to a career, orientation to the family/homemaker role and involvement in activities were explored the following results were found: stronger career commitment was related to desire for more education, higher occupational goals and desire for fewer children. Interaction between mother's role (full-time homemaker versus employed) and mother's satisfaction with that role as perceived by her daughter had a strong influence on daughter's sex-role ideology and career commitment. The interaction between an employed mother's occupational level and her satisfaction with her job was strongly related to daughter's own beliefs and plans.

As Baruch and Barnett (1978) report, in general, self-esteem and satisfaction were correlated with a woman perceiving her mother as preferring the role she was in. Baruch and Barnett note that choosing a role different from one's mother appears to decrease self-esteem and satisfaction with one's own role because of conflictual feelings including guilt and self-doubt.

In a study done by Furminger (1969) in which she explored the degree to which a role is a source of satisfaction, five psychosocial roles were selected. Her findings reveal that the...
affiliation role was more salient for women with higher educations and higher self-esteem; the intimacy role was less salient for women with less education and self-esteem; the generativity role was more salient for higher self-esteem women employed in a paid occupation than for all other subjects; the nurturance role was found to increase in saliency for higher self-esteem subjects with increased time in employment, while the opposite holds true for low self-esteem women and the autonomy role was more salient for higher self-esteem women than lower regardless of the amount of time spent in paid employment. Deguire (1974) studied degree of satisfaction with activity choice among educated, middle-aged women. She hypothesized that women whose time is distributed evenly across various activities will have a greater degree of satisfaction than for those who spend most of their time in one activity. Results reveal homemakers to be particularly dissatisfied with family and home activities. Employed women were quite satisfied with the average of four hours a day spent in home activities.

As can be seen from the research studies cited in this section, a number of conflicting findings have been reported. The importance of intervening variables, populations sampled and the years which the research were undertaken have lead to a wide range of interpretations in this area. It was the purpose of this section to give the reader a cross-section of research findings so that a broad overview could be presented.
CHAPTER III

DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Introduction

It is the purpose of this chapter to present and discuss the instrumentation used in this study, the procedures utilized in the acquisition of subjects, and a description of the subject population including demographic characteristics of the population as a whole. In addition to this, details of the procedures used in the collection of data and the recruitment of paid-volunteer surveyors will be presented. A description of the pilot study and the data analysis techniques used in this study are also provided.

Instrumentation and Materials

The Personal Orientation Inventory

In order to measure the dependent variable of self-actualization, a standardized instrument known as the Personal Orientation Inventory was used (Shostrom, 1963, 1974). The Personal Orientation Inventory (POI) consists of 150 forced-choice items which are comparative in nature. Each statement reflects certain value-judgments and behaviors which are considered important in the development of the self-actualizing individual. Item construction was related to the
theoretical formulations of Humanistic, Existential and Gestalt schools of thought. Concepts incorporated into the development of the POI included those of Maslow (1962, 1970); Riesman, Glazer and Denny's (1950) system of inner and other-directedness; May, Angel, and Ellenberger's (1958) concept of time orientation and Bach and Goldberg's (1974) theory of acceptance of aggression.

The POI consists of two major scales and ten subscales. The major scales of Time ratio (time-competence/time-incompetence) which assesses the extent to which a person is here-and-now oriented as compared to dwelling in the past or living in the future and Support ratio (inner-directed/other-directed) which assesses the integration of both orientations. These two major scales taken in combination are considered the best overall predictors of self-actualization as measured by the POI. Studies by Klavetter and Mogar (1967), Ilardi and May (1968), and Wise and Davis (1975) have found test-retest reliability coefficients of .71 and .77, .34 to .74, and .75 and .88, respectively, on these two scales. Kaats (1973) has reported internal consistency coefficients of .80 for the inner-directed scales and .65 for the time-competence scale. Damm (1969, 1972) compared intercorrelations between several indices and POI scales and found the inner-directed and time-competence scales to be the best predictor of an overall measure of the POI which could be generalized beyond college populations and held equally for males and females.

The ten remaining subscales reflect particular facets important in the development of self-actualization. These subscales...
are defined as follows:

**Self-Actualizing Value (SAV)** which measures the affirmation of self-actualizing persons. A high score is indicative of values characteristic of self-actualizing people. A low score suggests rejection of these values.

**Existentiality (Ex)** measures the ability to react in a flexible manner without rigidity. It is a measure of good judgment in applying values and principles to one's life. A high score reflects flexibility, while a low score suggests rigidity to the point of compulsivity or dogmatism.

**Feeling Reactivity (Fr)** measures sensitivity to one's own needs and feelings. A high score indicates presence of sensitivity, while a low score suggests insensitivity to one's needs and feelings.

**Spontaneity (S)** measures the ability to react spontaneously and be oneself. A high score indicates an ability to express feelings in spontaneous action, while a low score suggests fearfulness in expressing feelings behaviorally.

**Self-Regard (Sr)** measures affirmation of self due to worth or strength as a person. A high score measures the ability to like oneself because of one's strength as a person, while a low score indicates feelings of low self-worth.

**Self-Acceptance (Sa)** measures acceptance of self in spite of weaknesses. A high score indicates acceptance of self and weaknesses, while a low score suggests an inability to accept one's weaknesses.

**Nature of Man--Constructive (Nc)** measures the degree of one's constructive view of the nature of man. A high score indicates that one sees man as essentially good and can resolve good-evil, masculine-feminine, selfish-unselfish, and spiritual-sensual dichotomies, while a low score suggests that one sees man as essentially bad or evil.

**Synergy (Sy)** measures the ability to be synergistic, that is to transcend dichotomies. A high score indicates an ability to see the opposites of life as meaningfully related, while a low score suggests that one sees life as antagonistic.

**Acceptance of Aggression (A)** measures the ability to accept one's natural aggressiveness without denying it exists. A high score indicates an ability to accept anger within oneself, while a low score suggests denial of such feelings.

**Capacity for Intimate Contact (C)** measures the ability to develop intimate relationships with other people, unencumbered by expectations and obligations. A high score indicates the ability
to develop meaningful, contactful relationships with others, while a low score suggests that one has difficulty with warm interpersonal relationships.

Because the development of the POI is based on dynamic traits of personality, traditional concepts of reliability are inappropriate in many instances. The POI is highly sensitive to changes occurring to the individual between administrations. Bloxom (1972) found reliability coefficients ranging from .55 to .85. The acceptance of aggression scale, the nature of man scale, and the feeling reactivity had coefficients of .55, .66, and .69, respectively. Bloxom notes that the acceptance of aggression scale and the feeling reactivity scale measure variables that are affect-related, thus, measuring fluctuations in mood states. Klavetter and Mogar (1967) administered the POI twice, with a one week interval to 48 college students and found test-retest reliability to range from .52 to .82. In general these correlations are at a level equal with other personality inventories, such as the Minnesota Multiphase Personality Inventory (MMPI) and the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule (EPPS).

The validity of the POI has been demonstrated through a number of means. Discriminate validity was reported by Shostrom (1964) in administering the POI to "relatively self-actualizing" and "non-self-actualizing" adults. Persons in these two groups were selected by practicing, certified clinical psychologists. N's were 29 and 34, respectively. Results of the study significantly discriminated between these two groups on 11 of the 12 scales. The means for the self-actualizing group are above the normal adult group means, while the means for the non-self-actualizing group are
below the norm on all scales. Concurrent validity was demonstrated by Shostrom and Knapp (1966) in a study in which the POI was administered to two groups of outpatients in therapy, one group was a beginning group and the others were in advanced states of psychotherapeutic progress. Analysis of the POI scores showed all 12 scales to differentiate between the criterion groups at the .01 confidence level or higher. Studies by Fox, Knapp and Michael (1968), Zaccaria and Weir (1966), Weir and Gade (1969), Murray (1966), and Pearson (1966) all found the POI to significantly differentiate among groups. The POI has also been found to correlate with other scales measuring similar traits. MMPI scales found to have particularly meaningful relationships to the POI are the Depression scale, the Psychasthenia scale and the Social Introversion scale. Correlations have also been found between the POI and the Study of Values, the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory, The Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire and the Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey.

The POI was originally normed on responses from 561 Freshmen entering a representative liberal and practical arts college in Southern California. Additional normative samples were gathered from selected occupational and clinical groups in addition to 2,607 entering freshmen at Western and Midwestern liberal arts colleges, with 1,514 males and 1,093 females. No significant sex differences were found on eight of the 12 scales. Significant differences were found on the time competence scale, the self-acceptance scale, the nature of man scale and the synergy scale. In these instances the female college sample mean was higher than the male sample.
However, with the exception of the time competence scale, all mean differences were less than one raw score point. The college student norms are given in percentiles and the occupational and clinical group norms are given as means and standard deviations and plotted group profiles.

The POI is subject to conscious as well as unconscious attempts to fake responses. "Faking" or the conscious attempt to present oneself in a favorable (socially desirable) light, results in a generally depressed POI profile with standard scores falling between the 30 to 40 range. Intellectualized or "pseudo-actualizing" responses based on a knowledge of the underlying concepts of the POI usually result in a hyperelevated profile with standard scores falling in the range of 60 and above. The self-actualizing range is between 50 and 60 with individuals scoring in this range to be most characteristic of self-actualizing adults.

The POI may either be hand scored or machine scored. For use in this study, machine processing was employed using the Digitek (EdITS/POI 021) answer sheets. Responses were penciled-in using a number two pencil. All scores were reported as raw scores for each scale along with the sum of scores, sum of squares, means, variances, and standard deviations. Raw scores were converted to standard scores for those persons expressing an interest in receiving their POI results. These standard scores were plotted on profile sheets.

The POI is a self-administering test. Items are printed in reusable test booklets. There is no time limit for the inventory.
It can be completed in as little as 20 minutes, with the average testing time lasting 30 minutes. The inventory has been used with early high school age subjects, extending down to the 13 year old level without any difficulties in comprehension. The examinee is urged to make some answer to every statement and reminded to give their own opinion of themselves.

The Attitudes Toward Women Scale

In order to assess the independent variable of sex-role attitudes, Spence and Helmreich's (1972) Attitudes Toward Women Scale was utilized in this study. The Attitudes Toward Women Scale (AWS) is an objective instrument which measures attitudes toward the rights and roles of women in contemporary society. The AWS is neither a personality measure nor a role-preference measure, but an attitude measure and, therefore, does not concern itself with stereotypes about gender-related personality traits. There are three versions of the AWS--an original 55-item scale, a short 25-item version and most recently, a 15-item version. The 25-item scale was selected for use in this study based upon time considerations in that the participants would not have to spend as much time with it as the 55-item version. In addition to this, the 25-item version correlates .95 with the original 55-item AWS, while the 15-item version has a correlation of .91.

The AWS developed out of the unavailability of relevant data in the areas of beliefs about women's place in society and the changes which have taken place concerning these beliefs. The authors note
that the absence of meaningful information is in part due to the lack of standardized, psychometrically sound instruments which tap the attitudes members of society have about the "proper" roles of women. The development of the AWS grew out of an experimental study of interpersonal attraction in which attitudes of men and women students towards the likability of competent and incompetent female stimulus persons was investigated. The authors felt that more useful results could be secured if the subjects' attitudes about the proper roles of women were also included. In searching for an appropriate instrument to measure these attitudes, Spence and Helmreich came across the Kirkpatrick Belief-Pattern Scale for Measuring Attitudes toward Feminism (Kirkpatrick, 1936). While this test did prove to be outdated in both content area and phraseology, the pool of items proved to be useful as a starting point for the development of the AWS. In its first form, the AWS contained 78 items and was given to over 1,000 men and women students in introductory psychology courses at the University of Texas, Austin. These initial data were subjected to various statistical analyses, performed for each sex separately, including both factor and item analyses. After inspection of the results of these statistical analyses, 23 items were dropped which failed to discriminate among subgroups in the item analysis. Single items which were most satisfactory on statistical grounds were retained.

Each of the items consists of a declarative statement which examines the areas of vocational, educational and intellectual roles;
freedom and independence; dating, courtship and etiquette; drinking, swearing and dirty jokes; sexual behavior and marital relationships and obligations, as they pertain to attitudes concerning women's roles. The scale contains four response alternatives ranging from Agree Strongly, Agree Mildly, Disagree Mildly, and Disagree Strongly. Each item is given a score from 0 to 3, with 0 representing the most traditional, conservative attitude and 3 the most liberal, profeminist attitudes. Since each subject's score is obtained by summing the values for the individual items, the 25-item version has a range of scores from 0 to 75, while the full 55-item version has a range of 0 to 165. The AWS has no established cut-off score below which all scores would be considered conservative. Therefore, for use in this present study, a simple median score-point was obtained from the range of scores so that all scores which fell below the half-way point were grouped as conservative and all those which fell above this point were considered liberal.

Because the AWS is the foundation for the 25-item AWS, the following information is included. The 55-item AWS was normed on a sample of 420 men and 529 women in several classes in introductory psychology at the University of Texas, Austin, during the fall semester of 1971 and again to 293 men and 239 women in several classes during the spring semester of 1972. Reliability was tapped in the stability of the distributions for the two semesters in that these distributions were quite similar.

In order to obtain comparative data from an older group, which might be more inclined to hold on to more traditional beliefs
in which the influence of demographic factors might be related to attitudes, the authors requested from the students who made up the second sample, the names and addresses of their parents. AWS forms were sent to 452 mothers and 420 fathers who lived in the United States. Useable data was obtained from 64.6% of the mothers and 55.2% of the fathers. Findings reveal that the scores of the older group tend to be lower, i.e., more conservative than those of the students. However, in both generations, the mean score for the women was higher (more liberal) than that for the men. For both the student and parent samples an image analysis was used to eliminate variation unique to individual items. From the image solution G matrices were obtained and subjected to a principal-axis factor analysis with Varimax rotation. The data for the men and women in the fall semester were analyzed first, then for cross-validation purposes, the data from the spring semester samples. Six factor loadings were obtained from the 55-items.

Validity of the AWS was demonstrated in a study by Lunneborg (1974) in which it was hypothesized that through the use of the AWS males would be more conservative than females and that these same effects would hold regardless of geographic location, but that geography might be expected to produce a north-south difference with northerners being more profeminist than southerners. Samples consisted of 83 northern college students and 1,481 southern college students. Findings reveal that the north-south mean differences for both men and women were significant at the .05 level. The
author notes that even for a group of students at a high level of liberalism, the AWS was quite sensitive to changes in attitude.

Correlations between scores on the short and full (55-item) version for groups of male and female students and their parents were .95 or above. Results of factor analysis and part-whole correlations also proved the similarity of the two forms. The 25-items selected from the 55-item scale for inclusion were based on distributions which maximally discriminated among quartiles for both sexes, and which had the highest biserial correlations. For groups of both students and parents, a correlation was obtained between the Ss' scores on the 25-item version and the full scale 55-item version. For student samples, resulting r's were .968 for the males and .969 for the females. Figures for the mothers and fathers were .956 and .963, respectively. The analyses of both student and parent samples indicates that scores on the 25-item version and that whole-part correlations and factor structures are also highly similar.

Inasmuch as the present study was not limited to a college population, and because the AWS was normed on college samples in addition to their parents, there was some concern that certain words contained in the questions on the AWS would not be understood by women with 8th grade or less reading levels. Therefore, permission was requested from Dr. Janet Spence, author of the AWS to change some of the words while leaving the content of the question alone. Dr. Spence had no objections to the changes stating that
they were perfectly straightforward translations and that the test as a whole is a robust one and does not depend on subtle nuances in language. Therefore the following changes were made:

Question #10 - the word repulsive was changed to disgusting

Question #13 - the phrase masculine prerogative was changed to man's privilege

Question #14 - the word intoxication was changed to drunkeness

Question #15 - the word tasks was changed to chores

Question #17 - the word merit was changed to reward

Question #20 - the phrase bear equally was changed to share half

Question #21 - the word assume was changed to take

Question #25 - the phrase bringing up was changed to up-bringing

Question #26 - the phrase sexually intimate was changed to sexual intercourse and the word fiances was changed to engaged to

Question #30 - the phrase acceptance of the ideal of femininity which has been set up by men was changed to being accepted by men as the ideal feminine woman

Question #32 - the phrase preference over was changed to first choice over

Question #34 - the phrase regulation and control was changed to controlled and regulated

Permission was also given to reproduce the revised version in whatever format seemed best since the authors do not sell copies of the test. Since the test is self-administering, instructions to the participants described that the AWS was an attitude test measuring
the role of women in society. Participants were informed that there were no right or wrong answers, only opinions. They were also asked to answer each item as they actually felt, not as they thought they should feel or would like ideally to feel (see Appendix D, p. 220).

Satisfaction with Life Scale

A review of current literature on components of life satisfaction proved to be the foundation for selecting 22 variables tailored to a woman's sense of life satisfaction. These variables were gathered from quality of life studies (Flanagan, 1978), studies on the well-being of adult women (Baruch & Barnett, 1978), and various measures of self-reported well-being (Andrews & McKennell, 1979). According to many attitude surveys, people generally express at least moderate satisfaction with their lives. Most of these studies have asked very simple, straightforward questions such as Bradburn & Caplovitz's (1965) Reports on Happiness in which the main analysis was based on replies to the simple question: "Taking all things together, how would you say things are these days--would you say that you are very happy, pretty happy, or not too happy?" The drawbacks to this type of global question is that it does not tap the many factors which influence life satisfaction thereby limiting responses to superficial answers.

Haavio-Mannila (1971) points out that in the Bradburn and Caplovitz study no sex differences were found, but when other background factors such as marital and employment status were included,
sex differences did emerge.

Csikszentmihalyi (1979) argues that until adequate indicators of psychological well-being are developed, society will not be able to change adaptively. He states that an available pool of detailed and accurate information about various states of individuals must be gathered for the survival and evolution of social systems. While he notes that the least objective source of information is on subjective responses, he nevertheless advocates that data collection on what makes people satisfied with their lives is a necessary task which should not be held back by the imperfections of present scientific tools. He further states that psychological methods and concepts owe more to survey research and sociological sampling than to anything currently in the psychological tradition.

Relevant aspects of well-being include three main dimensions: the affective (happiness), the cognitive (judgment), and the conative (flow). The concept of satisfaction taps the more cognitive dimension of well being, namely, satisfaction. For purposes of this study, both one global measure of life satisfaction, namely, the question "How satisfied are you with your overall life?" and distinct aspects of life involvement were utilized. The rationale for including 21 additional questions on life satisfaction was so that predictive information on the single most important component of life satisfaction could be arrived at.

It was not the intent of this study to use the Satisfaction scale to investigate the relationship between life cycle or phases
of developmental adult life phenomena and degrees of life satisfaction. However, certain questions most certainly are indicators which could measure this dimension. Rather, the focus is twofold: first, to establish the level of significance between overall life satisfaction and primary occupational status, sex-role attitudes and self-actualization and secondly, to arrive at an ordering of those variables which are most predictive of overall life satisfaction for women. In attempting to develop such a scale, two main sources of research were utilized. First John Flanagan's Quality of Life and Predictors of Life Satisfaction study laid out the individual components which proved critical in assessing one's perception of life satisfaction. These 15 components were categorized under four separate factors. They include: Physical and Material Well-Being of which material comforts and health and personal safety were a part; Relations with Other People including relationships with relatives, having and raising children, close relationship with spouse and having close friends; Social, Community and Civic Activities which is defined as helping and encouraging others and participating in local and national government; Personal Development and Fulfillment which includes learning, understanding one's self, work, and expressing one's self creatively; and finally Recreation which includes socializing and the categories of passive and active types of recreation. It is interesting to point out that these first three factors closely resemble Maslow's hierarchy of needs.

Flanagan sampled one thousand 30-year olds, eight hundred 50-year olds, and eight hundred 70-year olds and found that health,
work, close relationship with a spouse, having and raising children, and understanding yourself are perceived as most important to these adults, with material comforts, health, work and active recreation as the best predictors of overall quality of life for this sample. Flanagan notes that the things people consider when asked to rate their overall quality of life are not identical to the items rated as most important and for which they reported their needs well met. From these 15 indicators, 10 were selected for inclusion in the current satisfaction scale. These 10 were selected on the basis that they would be most relevant to a woman's life space. They included: work, number of children, amount and types of learning, depth of involvement with social environment, including friends and activities, physical health, relationship to primary partner, relationship with children, relationship with friends, family income (material comforts) and the number of children left in the home.

Seven of the remaining 11 indicators were gathered from Baruch and Barnett's (1978) study on the Well Being of Adult Women. These included having a sense of competency in one's work, involvement and commitment to one's work, amount of status one gets from one's work, primary partner's attitudes toward the work one does, mother's attitudes toward the work one does, multiple role involvements, and one's ability to be economically independent. Although Baruch and Barnett's sample consisted of 142 white, married, middle-class women, who had at least one child enrolled in preschool, significant results were found in the areas of satisfaction and multiple role involvements, a sense of competency in one's work, partner's actual and perceived attitudes regarding a woman's work, mother's attitudes regarding one's
work, commitment to one's work, and one's ability to be economically independent. Barnett (1975) found that the more status an occupation had, the more boys desired to enter it, however, girls expressed an aversion to entering it. The author argues that traditional values and attitudes get in the way of pursuing challenging and satisfying occupations besides those of wife and mother.

The remaining four indicators were derived from various measures of self-reported well being (Andrews & McKennell, 1979) and included family life satisfaction, educational level and partner's physical health. The last indicator on satisfaction with partner's occupational level was derived from Jean Lipman-Blumen (1973) who argues that women in the traditional role derive a vicarious sense of achievement from their spouses and, therefore, satisfaction from their husband's or partner's occupational achievements. This suggests that satisfaction would be more strongly related with husband's occupational status for women at home than for employed women.

The Satisfaction with Life scale was developed on a Likert-type format with four response alternatives. They ranged from extremely satisfied, very satisfied, somewhat satisfied, and dissatisfied. A fifth choice was given for questions that did not apply for certain women. From an initial pilot study done prior to the main survey, it was discovered from a sample of 25 women, that on the average, three women would check either somewhat dissatisfied or very dissatisfied columns. Because of the low number of responses in these two categories, it was decided to collapse the two alternatives into one category labeled Dissatisfied. The instructions directed the women to answer the questions as they actually felt at the present
time in their life. On the first six questions regarding work, participants were instructed to answer the question for the work which they considered to be their primary occupation, be it homemaker, paid employment, or whatever. In this way, the amount of missing data could be minimized. The direct wording of the questions required from the participants some type of judgmental thinking based on their level of achievement and set-standard, and their values and beliefs (see Appendix E, p. 223).

Materials

All materials necessary to complete the survey were contained in 13" x 9-1/2" manila envelopes. Each packet contained the following materials: one eight page questionnaire which consisted of demographic information, primary occupation, the Attitudes Toward Women Scale, the Satisfaction Scale and a space for comments by participants; one Personal Orientation Inventory reusable booklet containing 150 forced-choice questions, one Personal Orientation Inventory computer answer sheet, one number two pencil for use with the computer answer sheet, a statement of informed consent which was to be initialed by each participant (see Appendix F, p. 226), and an informational sheet describing what the packet contained and the purpose of the survey with the names and phone numbers of both myself and Dr. Thelma Urbick in case any participant wished to verify the legitimacy of the research project or had additional questions (see Appendix G, p. 227).

In addition to this, each paid volunteer-surveyor was given a clip board which contained the list of addresses which they were to
survey, sheets for recording the estimated characteristics and comments of women who refused to take part in the survey, and a complete copy of the Graphic Street Guide of Greater Kalamazoo which served as their map. Each paid volunteer was also supplied with a copy of the profile sheet for the Personal Orientation Inventory. The purpose of this was to inform the survey participant that they, if they so wished, could obtain the results of their POI test which would be plotted on a profile sheet. Only 29 of the 236 women who completed the total packet requested their POI results.

Each questionnaire had a code number which ran from one to 300. This code number matched the identification number on the POI computer answer sheet and served as participant identifiers. Each POI computer answer sheet contained dummy names, dates, ages, occupation, and marital status which was penciled in before the survey was handed out. This was done to protect the identity of the participants and because the Educational and Industrial Testing Service would not score the results unless this information was supplied. Each completed packet, therefore, contained an initialed informed consent sheet, a completed POI answer sheet, a completed 8 page questionnaire and the reusable POI booklet.

Population Studied

Subjects in this study were selected through the use of random sampling procedures based on the total number of dwelling units in the City of Kalamazoo census tracts during 1978 (N = 27,611). Information on the total number of dwelling units in census areas was collected by
the City Planning Department in cooperation with the City Tax Division for use by the Center for Sociological Research at Western Michigan University. The original use of the information was for a community-wide survey on attitudes concerning police-community relationships under the direction of Dr. Subhash Sonnad and Dr. Paul Friday. Names were removed from the list leaving only dwelling units which were broken down by census tracts resulting in a proportionate stratified sample. With permission from Dr. Sonnad, the list of total number of dwelling units in census tracts was used in drawing the samples for the pilot and present research study. Through the use of the DEC-System 10 computer random number generator contained at Western Michigan University's Computer Center, 650 dwelling units were pulled from the total N = 27,611. All subjects who participated in the survey did so voluntarily and with written informed consent. Subjects consisted of all women over the age of 18 who lived in the City of Kalamazoo and whose addresses were randomly selected from the computerized listing of all dwelling units in the City of Kalamazoo, stored at the Computer Center on the campus of Western Michigan University. Subject characteristics were gathered for age, educational level, marital status, number of children, number of children living at home, yearly income, primary occupation, and two questions relating to educational training and occupation (see Appendix B, p. 217). The following tables represent a breakdown of frequencies and percentages according to each category.
### Table 1

Age Groupings: Frequency and Percentages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Categories</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18 - 24 years</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>33.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 - 34</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>27.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35 - 44</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45 - 54</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>10.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55 - 64</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>9.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65 and over</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 2

Educational Levels: Frequency and Percentages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Educational Levels</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 8th grade</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8th grade</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some high school</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>7.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school graduate</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>25.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some college</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>35.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College Graduate</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>14.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocational training school</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some graduate training</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master's Degree</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>5.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctorate Degree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.38</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 3

Marital Status: Frequency and Percentages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marital Status</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>30.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>48.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Separated</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widowed</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Living with primary partner</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Table 4
Number of Children: Frequency and Percentages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>42.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One-two</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>32.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three-five</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>23.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Six-eight</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nine-eleven</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eleven or more</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5
Number of Children Left Living at Home: Frequency and Percentages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N=258</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>55.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One-two</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>34.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three-five</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Six-eight</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nine-eleven</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eleven or more</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6
Yearly Family Income: Frequency and Percentages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N=251</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than $3,000</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>9.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$3,001 to $5,999</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$6,000 to $8,999</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>11.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$9,000 to $14,999</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>17.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$15,000 to $19,999</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>14.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$20,000 to $24,999</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>12.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$25,000 or more</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>16.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Table 7
Current Primary Occupations: Frequency and Percentages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Homemaker</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>42.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paid employment/Work</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>53.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both (write-in's)</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8
Currently in an Occupation for which Training/Education Prepared You: Frequency and Percentages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>37.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>62.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9
Occupation for which Educated or Trained: Frequency and Percentages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Homemaker</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clerical Worker</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>18.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health Related Field</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>11.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational Related Field</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>14.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sales</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional/Administrative</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service Worker</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Law</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None (wrote in)</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Art/Music</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home Economics</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>9.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Left question blank</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>18.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Table 10
U.S. Department of Labor Occupational Distribution for Employed Women Worker, 1975

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>Percentages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clerical Workers</td>
<td>35.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service Workers outside the home</td>
<td>18.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional and technical workers</td>
<td>16.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operatives</td>
<td>12.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sales Work</td>
<td>7.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managers and administrators</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private household workers</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is interesting to note that the bulk of the women sampled in this survey identified clerical work as the occupation in which they were trained. As can be seen from Table 10, this finding mirrors national statistics from the U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, March, 1975, which finds the majority of working women in the United States to be clerical workers.

The fact that the majority of women in this sample fell between the age range of 18-24 years and have at least some college education most likely reflects the disproportionate number of students living in the City of Kalamazoo.

Although 264 packets were returned, 28 women although agreeing to partake in the survey, did not complete the total packet. In all 28 cases, the Personal Orientation Inventory which measures levels of self-actualization was either not attempted or if it was attempted, was left incomplete. Some women cited reasons for not continuing on. One woman who was 80 years old stated that she was confused and could

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not finish the remainder of the survey. Another woman said that her
dog destroyed the Personal Orientation Inventory and apologized for
not being able to continue. One woman voiced anger over the content
of the survey stating "why the roles, and stereotypes? When will it
end? I hope to live to see it and remember to stick with it." Still
another woman expressed positive feelings stating that it was a good
survey which helped her answer some questions within herself, but
which she did not have time to finish. One woman stopped
because she did not find the survey sufficiently educational for
herself.

These 28 women closely resembled the total sampled population
on age, educational level, marital status, number of children, number
of children left in the home, and yearly family income. However,
more women checked homemaker as their primary occupation than in the
sample as a whole, and 23 of the 28 women were not currently in an
occupation for which their training/education prepared them. When
asked what occupation they were trained for, more women left this
question unanswered than those women who completed the whole survey.
These 28 women were omitted from final hypothesis testing, leaving
the total sample size of survey participants who completed the packet
at 236.

Census Tract Stratification and Participant Characteristics

Figures based on the 1970 Census show that within the City
of Kalamazoo there exists 21 census tracts. Six hundred and fifty
dwelling units from among these 21 census tracts were randomly chosen from the computerized listing of all dwelling units in census areas in the City of Kalamazoo (N=27,611) for use in this study. The following table presents the breakdowns of acceptances and rejections according to census tracts.

As can be seen from Table 11, some census tract areas were over represented in the number of total dwelling units sampled, others were under represented and still others were not represented at all. This resulted in an uneven distribution in the census areas sampled. These disproportionate totals can be explained in a number of ways.

First, for the sake of convenience to the volunteer, an effort was made to group all addresses according to census tract areas so that each volunteer could survey one section of the city to eliminate excessive driving. As volunteers dropped out, new volunteers took over their lists and continued in that same census area. Volunteers usually favored one section of the city over another either because they lived in that area or because they liked the area better than other areas. This resulted in higher concentration of dwelling units surveyed for certain tracts, and lower and nonexistent numbers in others. In addition to this, the random selection of the 650 dwelling units from the computerized listing were not equally distributed among census tracts so that one census area might have more household addresses contained within it than another. Unequal distribution of samples from census tracts can also be explained by the fact that many
Table 11
Census Tract Areas, Number of Total Acceptances Per Tract, Number of Rejections Per Tract and Totals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No. of Households</th>
<th>Census Tract</th>
<th>Partial Street Boundaries Per Tract Area</th>
<th>Number of Acceptances</th>
<th>Number of Rejections</th>
<th>Total Canvassed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1781</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>Douglas Ave., Ravine Rd., W. North St.</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1832</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>Elm St., W. Main St., Academy St., Ravine Rd.</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2938</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>S. Park St., Westnedge Ave., Howard St.</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>777</td>
<td>900</td>
<td>E. Michigan, Reed St., Division St., Lake St.</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2627</td>
<td>1000</td>
<td>Gordon Pl., Riverview Dr., Gull St., Kalamazoo</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1124</td>
<td>1100</td>
<td>Park Pl., Burr Oak St., Inkster Ave., S. Westnedge</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1341</td>
<td>14.01</td>
<td>City limits, Gull Rd., Kalamazoo River</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2835</td>
<td>15.05</td>
<td>City limits, Kendall Ave., Stadium Dr., Howard St.</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1515</td>
<td>17.02</td>
<td>Inkster Ave., City limits, S. Westnedge</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16086</td>
<td>18.02</td>
<td>E. Cork to Sprinkle Rd., City Limits</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Totals</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>264</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>349</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
dwelling units were apartment complexes which could contain as many as 274 units from which five or more units would have to be selected. This resulted in the usual favoring of apartment complexes over single family dwellings which were much more time consuming to survey.

The very low number of people surveyed in certain census areas can be explained through insufficient canvassing. In the case of one particular volunteer, the task of canvassing proved too great. As she herself said:

I am not myself these days. I tried but could hardly get out of the car and approach the door. I needed the money so much for my family that I tried to force myself to do it, but couldn't. I think your study is important especially for women such as me trying to find their place in a somewhat trying world. I hope you will forgive me.

The rationale for selecting 650 dwelling units from a total of 27,611 actual dwelling units in the City of Kalamazoo was based on the planned maximum number of 300 subjects for inclusion in this study. A 50% refusal rate was allowed for which also took into account those dwelling units which were either vacated or no longer existing. Table 12 presents the analyses of the number of dwelling units surveyed and numbers of surveys returned.

In order to acquire some information on the characteristics of those women whose homes were selected but who refused to participate in the survey, volunteers were supplied with a form for recording age, occupation, racial background, location, educational level, and reason for refusal (see Appendix C, p. 219). The volunteers were instructed to estimate these characteristics and write them down on the form.

The results were as follows: average age of women who
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dwelling Units and Surveys</th>
<th>Total Numbers</th>
<th>Percentages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dwelling units pulled from total number of dwelling units in the City of Kalamazoo</td>
<td>650 out of 27,611</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actual number of returned surveys from total number of dwelling units in the City of Kalamazoo</td>
<td>264 out of 27,611</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actual number of fully completed surveys used in final hypothesis testing from total number of dwelling units in the City of Kalamazoo</td>
<td>236 out of 27,611</td>
<td>.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total number of dwelling units actually canvassed from the total number of dwelling units in the City of Kalamazoo</td>
<td>349 out of 27,611</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total number of dwelling units actually canvassed from the actual number of dwelling units pulled for the random sample</td>
<td>349 out of 650</td>
<td>53.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total number of returned surveys from the actual number of dwelling units pulled for the random sample</td>
<td>264 out of 650</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actual number of fully completed surveys used in the final hypothesis testing from the actual number of dwelling units pulled for the random sample</td>
<td>236 out of 650</td>
<td>36.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 12 (Continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dwelling Units and Surveys</th>
<th>Total Numbers</th>
<th>Percentages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total number of refusals from the total amount of dwelling</td>
<td>85 out of 349</td>
<td>24.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>units actually canvassed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total number of surveys actually completed from the total</td>
<td>236 out of 264</td>
<td>89.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>number of surveys returned</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
refused was 58.7 years; the majority of women who refused were caucasian, although about 10% of all refusals were black women with one Iranian and one Polynesian woman also refusing; occupation/income were mostly housewives, blue collar women and retired women with low to middle income ranges; education levels ranged from college graduate to less than a high school diploma with most women falling in the completed high school category. Reasons given for refusing to take the survey were either because the woman was not interested or she said she was too busy; however, many of the older persons cited such reasons as being too old and not feeling as if they were a part of society any longer; some women mentioned illness, poor eyesight, an inability to read or understand English, two women did not want to sign their names to anything; one woman felt the survey was for "women libbers only" and a few women said that their husbands would not let them take it; one woman felt it was too complicated to understand and one woman wanted to know if she got paid for taking it.

A number of women read through the survey and then decided not to take it basing that decision on such things as the amount of time involved or that it was too personal. However, the majority of women who refused did so because they were not interested. There was also a tendency for these women to be older than the majority of women who did take the survey, 58.7 years as compared to only 40 of the 264 respondents being over 55 years of age; less educated in that the majority of respondents had at least some college or less and not in paid employment, as compared to the majority of respondents who were in paid employment.
Of those women who did complete the survey many made no comment on how they felt about taking it or the content of the questions. However, of those women who did comment, five distinct categories seemed to emerge. These were: religious in nature, role as helper, conflicts over the housewife-career dichotomy, struggles with equality and feelings of restriction. Religious comments included the following: quoting the Bible, Ephesians 5:21, Deuteronomy 6:7 to support opinions on women's role, as one woman stated, "many of these questions would not be necessary if all people live as God intended. He created man to be man and woman to be his helper. Only when people follow this plan is there real happiness and harmony."

Another woman felt the survey was dishonest and biased and predicted that it would not pass as a doctoral dissertation. One woman voiced frustration over the forced-choice format and stated that she was not a computerized human being. Still another woman explained why she answered certain questions, certain ways stating that "some occupations are more suitable for women because its important that we keep our sexual identities and not become something we are not."

As regards the homemaker-career choice, the following comments were made: "I found it difficult to rate my feelings as homemaker because while I'm quite satisfied with the mother part, I'm quite dissatisfied with the housekeeping part." "In recent years women have been made to feel that being 'just' a homemaker is doing nothing. I am a college graduate but I am finding the most rewarding job I
could possibly have is raising two human beings. There is time for me to do other things later, but there will never be another time with these children." "Ironically, I consider my job as my primary occupation, but because I do not make much money at it (not enough to self-support) I did not feel free to use that as my primary occupation, instead I selected homemaker."

In the area of role equality, one woman wrote "Although I doubt that true equality between men and women will be realized during my lifetime, I sincerely hope that women continue to fight for the ideal and not become cynical and give up." A couple of women expressed their hope that they were of some help in answering the survey which seemed to reflect their sense of uselessness. As one woman wrote, "Being a widow, retired and childless I feel the survey is more pertinent to the younger person. You do, however, have my best wishes for success in this endeavor and that I have been of some help."

The most direct confrontation came from the husband of one of the survey participants when he wrote "I personally feel most of this survey is a crock! Yes, you can consider me a chauvinist. I personally feel that women working interferes with the male's role as breadwinner."

It appears from these and other comments made that some women rely on external guidelines such as religion to make decisions which might be too conflictual to make on their own; other women seem to feel some guilt regarding career-homemaking choices; and others felt a
sense of purpose in having the opportunity to express their views. On the whole, however, it can be said that most women who expressed their views while evidencing some amount of conflict and mixed emotion, on the average, responded favorably both to the content of the survey and the opportunity to express themselves. Many women were grateful in that it proved thought provoking.

Paid-Volunteer Surveyors

During the end of Winter Semester, 1979, and the beginning of Spring Session, 1979, recruitment of student volunteers from Western Michigan University was undertaken for the purpose of acquiring at least 10 individuals willing and able to conduct door-to-door surveys. An advertisement stating the nature and purpose of the research project was publicized in the school newspaper, The Western Herald (see Appendix A, p. 216). An initial total of 9 women responded to the notice with the intent of becoming volunteers. A number of other students telephoned to gain additional information, but were not interested in volunteering. All students were undergraduates of Western Michigan University who were interested in the research topic and also in supplementing their incomes during the Spring and Summer sessions. While some male students did express an interest in volunteering, it was decided that a higher sample size would be obtained if volunteers were exclusively female. This decision was based on the scope of the population to be sampled which was limited to women over the age of 18 in the City of Kalamazoo. It was anticipated that
a woman surveyor would be perceived as less suspect and, therefore, be more readily received. Other selection criteria for volunteers was based on personal attributes such as friendliness, the ability to articulate and communicate clearly, some level of ego involvement in the topic under study and dependability. Each volunteer was paid $2.00 for each completed survey packet. Volunteers were not paid for the amount of time spent in distributing and collecting the surveys, gas mileage, or incomplete packets. Because payment was based solely on the actual number of surveys completed, there was a high turnover rate among volunteers.

An initial screening meeting was held in May, 1979, for all volunteers. Each volunteer was instructed through appropriate role playing scenes in order to decrease the probability of door-to-door refusals. Manner of presentation, content of dialogue, manner of dress, and participant expectations were rehearsed in order to assess suitability for the surveyor role. One volunteer presented herself as quite aggressive and hostile during role plays and decided that she did not want to volunteer. The remainder of the eight women proved to be well-suited for public contact. All eight women were in their early 20's, Caucasian and students at Western Michigan University.

A list of 60 addresses broken-down by census tracts was given to each volunteer with the expectation that she would have collected at least 30 completed surveys within a one-month period of time. It was planned that 10 volunteers would have collected 30 completed surveys for a total sample size of 300 women. Each volunteer was given the option of choosing a census area where she herself lived at
the time in order to enhance feelings of comfort and familiarity and to cut down on travel time. Volunteers were free to canvass at days and times convenient to themselves, but which also maximized those hours which would find women at home. Schedules were based on 15 completed surveys being collected within the first two weeks of canvassing and the last 15 within the next two weeks. It was anticipated that this time frame would be adequate based on requests to participants that all surveys be completed within a one-week period of time. However, this proved not to be the case. Major difficulties were encountered when volunteers went back to pick up packets and found no one at home. Many volunteers had to return three and four times to one address, even though exact days and times of pick up were agreed upon before hand.

These frustrating and time consuming visits resulted in high drop out rates among volunteers. Although most of the original eight volunteers collected at least 15 completed packets each with two women collecting 30 each, constant efforts at volunteer recruitment had to be continued during a three-month period of time. With the assistance of Dr. Subhash Sonnad of the Department of Sociology at Western Michigan University, a number of sociology undergraduate and graduate students offered to volunteer their services. In addition to this, continued advertisements in the Western Hearld were publicized throughout the Summer Session. However, levels of attrition remained high among student volunteers forcing an expansion of recruitment efforts to the community-at-large and lowering standards of volunteer suitability.
In August, 1979, an advertisement was placed in the Kalamazoo Shopper, a small community classified-ad newspaper, calling for additional volunteers. Screening for appropriate criteria became secondary to the mere acquisition of volunteers resulting in inappropriate individual selection. Some individuals held on to surveys for prolonged periods of time with minimal canvassing taking place. This resulted in substantial decreases of subject participants in certain census tracts.

This proved to be the final recruitment effort. Due to time considerations and continued volunteer turn over, data collection was terminated 36 surveys short of the quota of 300. In all, 26 paid volunteers had been employed all of whom were women in their mid- to early 20's, one woman was Black, the rest Caucasian.

Instructions to Paid Volunteer Surveyors

Each surveyor was instructed to introduce themselves and the purpose of their visit in the following manner:

"Hello, my name is __________ and I'm assisting a student at Western Michigan University who is doing a research project for her doctorate degree in counseling psychology. This project is being conducted to find out how women view their roles in society, how they feel about different parts of their life and what kind of values they hold. I'd like to take a few minutes and show you what the survey consists of and then you can decide if you'd like to be a part of this project."

The surveyors were specifically instructed to avoid the word sex in reference to sex-role attitude and instead use the phrase "roles in society." The intent of this was to minimize any anxiety-provoking response which the word sex might elicit as well as minimizing any
type of inhibited response. In addition to this, the words life satisfaction and self-actualization were not directly mentioned. Rather, general statements reflecting feelings and beliefs were verbalized. It was anticipated that such an approach would be the least threatening, as it did prove to be.

All surveyors were told that the survey participants could only be women who were 18 and over. If a man answered the door, he was told that a project was being conducted for women 18 years and older and was requested to ask his wife or the lady of the house to come to the door. In some cases there was no "lady of the house" and so the address was crossed off the list. These were not counted as refusals. If a woman did answer the door, she was directly asked to participate. In those cases where two, three, or more women roommates occupied one household, the woman who answered the door was first asked to participate, if she refused, one of the other women were asked. Each surveyor was encouraged to go back to the same address at least three times if no one was at home the first two times. After the third visit, if no one was still at home, the address was crossed off the list.

Addresses were also crossed off the list if the address did not contain any women over the age of 18, if the woman refused to partake in the survey, if the address was vacant, if the address proved to be a nonresidential dwelling, and if there was no such address or if the address could not be located. In some rare instances the address was omitted from the list if the surveyor attempted to approach the dwelling and a dog was standing guard. If the surveyor
at any time felt unsafe, she was instructed not to approach the dwelling or use her own discretion. In those cases where addresses contained multiple dwellings such as apartment complexes, permission was first requested from the apartment manager to canvass the complex. In all but one case this did not prove to be a problem. One apartment manager refused. Each surveyor was given a random selection choice of two or three apartment numbers for each time the apartment had to be canvassed.

Each surveyor was asked to record on their address list, next to each address canvassed, whether the respondent refused, accepted, or wanted to know their results. If the participant wanted their results for the POI, their code number was put next to the address to insure that they would receive the results. Each list was turned back in when the surveyor was finished with all their addresses or dropped out of the canvassing.

Once a woman had agreed to take a look at the materials, the surveyor informed her that it was not necessary to complete the survey right at that time. Rather, each participant was given a one week-period of time to work on the materials. The average length of time needed to complete all materials was 45 minutes to one hour. Each surveyor went over the eight page questionnaire, explaining the directions and clarifying any questions the women might have. In addition to this, the POI was explained and demonstrated. The average amount of time the surveyor spent with each participant was 10 to 15 minutes. An exact date and time was agreed upon so that the packet could be picked up readily. However, in some cases a week proved to
be an insufficient amount of time. In other instances, although the day and time of pick up were agreed upon before hand, some women were not at home when the surveyor returned--causing surveyors to return as many as three and four times to the same address. Other women who at first agreed to take the survey, later, upon return of the surveyor, changed their minds and gave the packet back. Some individuals mailed back the survey when they were done with it. Two women called to see if their friends could take it also, and one woman called for clarification on some of the material.

Surveyors were instructed to make sure the participant understood their informed consent agreement which dealt with the uses of the data, confidentiality, and the option to discontinue taking the survey at anytime. Each surveyor read over the consent agreement with each participant. No difficulties were encountered in this area.

It was discovered that some of the surveyors were picking up the packets without checking through them to see if the consent form was signed, the questionnaire completed and the computer answer sheet filled in. Of those 28 women who did not complete the POI test, packets were returned prior to checking through and handing in. This prevented the surveyor from first of all knowing that the packet was incomplete and secondly, from being able to identify which address it came from so that an effort could be made to return and ask the participant to finish. When this type of thing was discovered, surveyors were requested to please check through the packet to make sure everything was in order. Everyone, however, did sign the informed consent form. Some of the POI computer answer sheets had to be done
over due to many marks on the sheet other than those that were supposed to be there, or because they were bent or torn or soiled.

Coding Procedures

Each questionnaire was coded by hand with black magic marker ink. Numerical numbers ranging from one to 16 were entered down the right hand side of each page of the questionnaire. Numbers corresponded to the alphabetical letters given in the first eight questions on the questionnaire. Numbers were recorded as either single or double digits depending on the number of choices available in each question. For example, if someone marked the letter "e" on a question that went up to letter "j," the numerical equivalent would be recorded as an 05. If, however, someone marked the letter "c" on a question that went up to letter "f," the numerical recording would be 3. Both the numbers 9 and 90 identified missing data. The number 9 was used on all those questions which had only nine choices, while the number 90 was used on all questions that had more than nine choices.

Question #9 in the questionnaire was coded from one to 16, with each number representing a different category of occupation. The Attitudes Toward Women Scale was recorded from 0 to 3 and the Satisfaction scale was recorded from one to four with the number nine being used for both missing data and for that column marked "Does Not Apply," therefore, counting the "Does Not Apply" column as missing data even when marked. Each coded sheet of the questionnaire was then entered onto IBM keypunch cards at the Computer Center.

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The Personal Orientation Inventory computer answer sheets were sent to the publisher of the POI, Educational and Industrial Testing Service in San Diego, California for scoring. Print-out sheets were returned with raw scores on each scale of the POI for each individual participant. Some scales had missing data which reflected the fact that on that particular scale, the participant had not answered a sufficient number of questions. This occurred only five times, four of which were on the Synergy subscale. This missing value was treated as missing data. In addition to the individual raw scores per scale, sum of scores, sum of squares, means, variances, and standard deviation were recorded for each scale of the POI for the total 236 participants. Final data analysis was computed for all hypotheses through the services of the WMU Computer Center.

Research Design and Data Analysis

Random sampling procedures were undertaken from the total number of dwelling units in the City of Kalamazoo (N=27,611) which had been broken down by census tract areas. These census tract break-downs which resulted in a proportionate stratified sample, stratified by census tract was undertaken for a community wide survey on Public Attitudes, Knowledge and Expectations of the Kalamazoo City Police in August, 1978, under the direction of Drs. Sonnad and Friday of the Center for Sociological Research at Western Michigan University. Permission was granted from Dr. Sonnad to use the list of dwelling units for this research project. Through the use of computerized
methods, 650 households were randomly selected. In this way a portion of the total population of 27,611 were drawn in such a way that each dwelling unit had an equal chance of being selected, thus, considering it to be representative of the whole population. All 650 addresses were distributed to surveyors, although only 349 were actually sampled. The research design of this study was carried out according to principles of survey research which studies the assessment of whole populations by selecting samples chosen from the populations under study. From the samples chosen, relationships among sociological and psychological variables are examined. For the purpose of this study, the independent variable is the effect of sex-role attitudes and the dependent variables are measured levels of self-actualization and satisfaction with life.

Data analyses of hypothesis I, III, and V were conducted using a two-sample t-test of independent means. A two-sample t-test is used to investigate whether the means of the two populations are the same or different.

In hypothesis I, group one consists of all women who had conservative scores on the Attitudes Towards Women Scale and group two consists of all women who had liberal scores. Any score which fell equal to or less than the median score of 56 on the AWS, was group 1—conservative. Any score which was greater than 56 on the AWS, was group 2—liberal. The null hypothesis will be rejected if the means of the two populations are not equal. That is \( H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2 \) (Null), and \( H_A: \mu_1 < \mu_2 \) will be accepted.
Hypotheses I, III, and V are directional in nature. Therefore if the null hypothesis should be false, a one-tailed test will show that the true value of \( u \) differs from the hypothesized value in a particular direction. Again, 5% or .05 specifies the probability of accepting the hypothesis when the hypothesis is false. The means, standard deviation, and sample sizes for all t-tests conducted on hypotheses I, III, and V for the Personal Orientation Inventory which measures self-actualization through 12 descriptive scales, will be reported in Chapter V.

In hypothesis III, there are two groups, group 1 consists of all women who marked "yes" on the questionnaire to question 8, "are you currently in an occupation for which your education/training prepared you?" and group 2 consists of all those women who marked "no" to that same question.

In hypothesis V, group 1 consists of all those women who stated they were more satisfied with their overall lives, while group 2 are those women who are less satisfied, as asked in question 45 on the questionnaire. The question reads, "how satisfied are you with your overall life?" Again, the means, sample size, and standard deviations will be reported in Chapter IV for all 12 scales of the Personal Orientation Inventory.

Both hypothesis II and hypothesis IV were analyzed using the chi-square \( (\chi^2) \) statistic. The chi-square provides a measure
of discrepancy between expected and obtained frequencies. The basic chi-square formula is:

$$\chi^2 = \sum \frac{[(f_0 - f_e)^2]}{f_e}$$

where $f_e$ is the expected frequency and $f_0$ is the obtained frequency and summation is over the number of discrepancies characterizing a given task (Minium, 1970).

In Hypothesis II, the satisfaction scale was dichotomized into satisfied and not satisfied categories. The other two categories consisted of homemaker versus paid employment. The null hypothesis states that in the population distribution, the independent proportional frequency in each subcategory equals a specified value. To test the hypothesis, calculated values of $\chi^2$ must be determined under random sampling when the hypothesis is true. The $\chi^2$ calculated from the project sample will be compared to this distribution of values. If it is so large that such a value would rarely occur when the hypothesis is true, the hypothesis will be rejected. That is, the hypothesis will be rejected for values of $\chi^2$ so large that their probability of occurrence is .05 or less. Values are predicted upon equal preference among the two groups (homemaker vs. paid employment). Post hoc observations will be reported for $\chi^2$ values which did prove to be significant although they were not part of the hypothesis under study. Chapter IV will report the results of the chi-square analysis in proportions and percentages. As with Hypothesis II, Hypothesis IV dichotomized the satisfaction with life scale into satisfied and not
satisfied categories and low (conservative) AWS scores with high (liberal) AWS scores.

In order to determine the problem of how specific life satisfaction measures related to general life satisfaction, Pearson product-moment correlations were calculated between each of the 21 life satisfaction measures and overall life satisfaction. These correlations are reported in Chapter IV.

In addition to this, in determining which of those specific life satisfaction variables form the best set of predictors for the dependent variable--overall life satisfaction, a multiple regression analysis was performed for the 21 independent variables on the Satisfaction scale. The basic multiple regression analysis formula is:

\[ Y = b_0 + b_1 x_1 + b_2 x_2 \ldots + b_i x_i \]

The best set of predictor variables for general life satisfaction was determined through a stepwise regression analysis procedure, adding predictor variables to the analysis until additional variables did not contribute significantly to explained variance in the dependent variable. Chapter IV will report the beta, standard error and F-values of the set of variables which best predict overall life satisfaction. The rationale for reporting both multiple regression and Pearson correlations coefficients is that the Pearson correlations represent the strength of the relationship between each specific life satisfaction variable and overall life satisfaction, while the multiple regression analysis is concerned with determining the set of specific life satisfaction measures which best predicts a woman's life satisfaction.
Because of missing response data among the multiple indicators of life satisfaction, the number of respondents included in the multiple regression analysis is smaller (N = 55) than for the correlational analysis.

This study has some limitations concerning the external validity of the results, that is, to what populations and settings can the results of this research project be generalized? All subjects who participated in this project were volunteers. Therefore, interpretation is limited to only those persons who willingly participate in such studies. In addition to this, only those populations similar to those found in the City of Kalamazoo are open to any generalization of the results. More specifically, only those populations similar to those women who live in the census tract areas surveyed are open to any generalizations of the results.

Pilot Study

In order to accurately assess the soundness of hypotheses construction, data collection techniques, research design, development of the Satisfaction Scale and appropriateness of the Attitudes Toward Women Scale on a random sample, a pilot study was undertaken prior to the full scale study. This pilot study was conducted in March-April of 1979 with a total sample size of 25 women over the age of 18.
Characteristics of the Sample

An initial effort was made to conduct the pilot research project in exactly the same manner as the full scale study. In line with this, 540 dwelling units were randomly selected from a total population of \( N = 27,611 \) dwelling units in the City of Kalamazoo. These 540 dwelling units were computer-selected by the DEC-System 10 random number generator. The rationale for selecting 540 dwelling units when only 25 were to be sampled, was so that the distribution of census tract areas covered could be ascertained thereby giving a projected idea of the number of census areas that could be included when the final 650 dwelling units were pulled for the full scale study. Therefore, these 540 dwelling units which were randomly selected from the total 27,611 were not the same as the 650 pulled for the final study, although some of the same dwelling units had the potential of being repeated. Of the total sample size of 25, 18 women were actually surveyed in a door-to-door manner. The remainder of seven women were selected from the researcher's work setting and from family or friends of the workers. This occurred due to high refusal rates in which about one out of every two homes surveyed refused to participate. Due to time considerations, door-to-door surveying was discontinued in favor of a more immediate approach.

A description of the sample is as follows: women ranged in age from 18 years to over 65 years of age with the average age group falling between 25-34 years. The range of educational level was from less than 8th grade to two women with master's degrees. The average
educational level of the total sample was some college. Marital status cut across all categories with the majority of women sampled being currently married. The majority of the women had between 0-2 children and 0-2 children left in the home. Of seven categories of income, one-fourth of the women had income levels between $9,000-$15,000; $15,000-$20,000, and over $25,000. The remainder of the categories were somewhat evenly distributed. The overwhelming majority of women rated themselves as homemakers. Those women who held either part-time or full-time jobs, viewed their work as jobs, which provided them with either main or supplemental sources of income, and not as careers. However, their primary source of identity still appeared to be rooted within home-centered definitions of wife and/or mother.

The pilot study proved helpful in that both the Attitudes Toward the Role of Women Scale and the Satisfaction Scale demonstrated effectiveness with a random population. In addition to this, the questionnaire was simplified with some questions eliminated all together and others streamlined into shorter categories. It was also discovered that having six response alternatives on the Satisfaction Scale was unnecessary because three of the response alternatives had very low amounts of respondents.

Summary

It was the purpose of this section to provide detailed information on the population sampled including such characteristics as age, educational levels, marital status, occupation, income levels
and number of children. In addition to this, the procedures used in data collection, including the procedures used in the recruitment of the paid volunteer surveyors, was described. A description of the instrumentation, including the Personal Orientation Inventory, Attitudes Toward Women Scale, and Life Satisfaction Scale was also provided. The data analysis techniques were discussed as was the pilot study.
CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Introduction

This chapter presents the statistical analyses of the data for the five hypotheses under study. The purpose of this study was to explore the effects of women's sex-role attitudes as categorized by conservative or liberal points of view on the ability to develop in an actualizing manner. The study also explored the effect that holding such attitudes would have on overall life satisfaction. In addition to these questions, this study also explored the effect of primary occupation (paid employment vs. homemaker) on overall life satisfaction; the effect of paid employment commensurate with education/training on levels of self-actualization; and the effect of overall life satisfaction on levels of self-actualization. Therefore the results will answer the following questions: Do women who reflect liberal attitudes also score higher on measured levels of self-actualization? Do they rate themselves as more satisfied with their overall lives? Does satisfaction with overall life also mean higher levels of self-actualization? Are certain occupational choices more satisfying than others? Is a woman's self-actualization enhanced when her employment matches her educational training?
The first hypothesis dealt with the effect a woman's sex-role attitudes (conservative vs. liberal) would have on achieved levels of self-actualization as measured by the 12 scales of the Personal Orientation Inventory. This hypothesis rests on the assumption that women whose attitudes reflect appropriate societal expectations of sex-related behaviors, would severely limit the development of their unique individual differences. Conversely, those women who challenge uniform role-taking behaviors would broaden the range of behaviors that are available to them and deepen their capacities in a number of important areas of personal fulfillment.

The second hypothesis investigated the choice of paid employment or homemaker as a primary occupational commitment and the relationship to overall life satisfaction. The hypothesis predicted that those women who perceived their primary occupation as one of paid employment, would also rate themselves as more satisfied with their lives than those women who defined themselves in terms of the homemaker role. This hypothesis was based on the premise that the role of homemaker limits a woman's sense of social connectedness through isolation from other adults outside of her immediate family. In addition to this, a sense of competence which is defined as successfully meeting demands for achievement (Coopersmith, 1968) is not developed outside of her immediate family environment. This limits a woman's opportunity to exercise control and influence within a wider social context than that provided by the role of homemaker. On the other hand, pursuing paid employment allows a woman the
opportunity to master an environment in which she is recognized for her skills and, therefore, positively valued and respected by members of society.

The third hypothesis dealt with the question of whether participation in the labor force through paid employment must match a woman's educational level in order for her to become more self-actualized than she would if her employment did not correspond to her educational abilities. If it is assumed that the level of one's education/training determines status attainment within an occupation, and that the higher the status, the more one feels a sense of challenge, responsibility, and accomplishment in her work, then the more she would have the opportunity to maximize her capabilities. Self-actualizing individuals are able to commit themselves to problem-centered tasks in which the rewards are in accordance with their personalities and needs. Therefore, it was proposed that women who succeed in obtaining employment equal to their educational abilities will also have the greatest opportunity to develop their capabilities because of the task demands, which are viewed as challenging and vital, and, hence, enhance feelings of self-actualization.

The fourth hypothesis was concerned with a woman's sex-role attitude orientation (conservative vs. liberal) and the effect this would have on her overall life satisfaction. It is proposed that those women who challenge stereotypic notions of appropriate sex-role behaviors would be more apt to be satisfied with their lives as a whole because they would be able to integrate both aspects of
positively valued masculine and feminine traits. By expanding the range of behaviors available, one is also more free to choose from multiple role involvements which can offer a variety of gratifications, thereby increasing the sources of satisfaction in life.

The final hypothesis investigated the relationship between greater satisfaction with one's overall life and increased levels of self-actualization. It is assumed that those individuals who find their lives quite satisfying would also be the same individuals who allow themselves their natural expression and evolution toward self-actualization. They would not allow convention to hamper or inhibit activities and experiences that they considered important and basic. Such direction in the area of growth motivation allows for spontaneity and self-regard. Therefore, it was postulated that those women who rate themselves as more satisfied with their overall lives, would also score higher on all scales of the Personal Orientation Inventory.

In the following pages, findings for each hypotheses will be reported and presented in table format. Explanation of statistical analysis and the meaning of scores and scales will be furnished. In addition to this, post hoc observations will be reported as well as the findings of the multiple regression analysis for predictive overall life satisfaction as determined by the individual items on the Satisfaction with Life Scale, and the Pearson Product-Moment Correlations of the independent variables to overall life satisfaction. The findings reported are strictly factual in nature with interpretations, inferences and discussion of the meaning and significance of the results reserved for Chapter V.
Hypothesis I

H₁: Women who obtain scores on the Attitudes Toward the Roles of Women Scale which reflect liberal orientations will score higher on all twelve scales of the Personal Orientation Inventory than women who obtain scores on the Attitudes Toward the Roles of Women Scale which reflect conservative orientations.

Using a two-sample $t$-test of independent means significant results at the $p < .05$ level were found for two scales and at the $p < .01$ level for nine scales of the Personal Orientation Inventory. The means, standard deviations, sample sizes, $t$-values and probability levels are reported in Table 13 for all 12 scales of the Personal Orientation Inventory.

In terms of directionality, higher mean scores on the scales of the Personal Orientation Inventory indicate that those women answered the test items in a direction considered to be more characteristic of self-actualizing adults. On the other hand, lower mean scores tend to reflect answers which are less like those of self-actualizing people. Therefore, the hypothesis states that those women whose answers on the Personal Orientation Inventory reflect more of a tendency toward self-actualization, will also hold liberal attitudes about women's proper role behaviors. Results show this to be the case for 11 of the 12 scales which constitute the quality of self-actualization.

Each scale on the Personal Orientation Inventory is intended to reflect a particular facet relevant to the development of self-actualization. These scales are defined as follows:
### Table 13

t-test Results of Conservative and Liberal Groups on the Scales of the Personal Orientation Inventory

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scales of the POI</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TC</td>
<td>Conservative</td>
<td>11.47</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>-2.48</td>
<td>.007**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Liberal</td>
<td>12.74</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>117</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>Conservative</td>
<td>70.72</td>
<td>13.82</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>-4.00</td>
<td>.000**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Liberal</td>
<td>78.07</td>
<td>14.26</td>
<td>117</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAV</td>
<td>Conservative</td>
<td>14.95</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>-2.49</td>
<td>.006**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Liberal</td>
<td>16.23</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>117</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EX</td>
<td>Conservative</td>
<td>16.04</td>
<td>4.46</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>-4.61</td>
<td>.000**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Liberal</td>
<td>18.77</td>
<td>4.60</td>
<td>117</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FR</td>
<td>Conservative</td>
<td>14.11</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>-3.17</td>
<td>.001**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Liberal</td>
<td>15.52</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>117</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>Conservative</td>
<td>10.00</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>-3.04</td>
<td>.001**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Liberal</td>
<td>11.15</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>117</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SR</td>
<td>Conservative</td>
<td>9.95</td>
<td>2.72</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>-3.33</td>
<td>.000**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Liberal</td>
<td>11.16</td>
<td>2.81</td>
<td>117</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SA</td>
<td>Conservative</td>
<td>14.45</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>-2.04</td>
<td>.021*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Liberal</td>
<td>15.43</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>117</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 13 (Continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scales of the POI</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NC</td>
<td>Conservative</td>
<td>9.00</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>-2.29</td>
<td>.011*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Liberal</td>
<td>9.81</td>
<td>2.41</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>-2.29</td>
<td>.011*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SY</td>
<td>Conservative</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>-1.13</td>
<td>.130</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Liberal</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>1.95</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>-1.13</td>
<td>.130</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Conservative</td>
<td>13.11</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>-2.59</td>
<td>.005**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Liberal</td>
<td>14.36</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>-2.59</td>
<td>.005**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Conservative</td>
<td>16.21</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>-4.21</td>
<td>.000**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Liberal</td>
<td>18.50</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>-4.21</td>
<td>.000**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05

**p < .01

df = 232
Time-Competence (TC) reflects the degree to which an individual lives in the present rather than in the past or future. Self-actualization persons live primarily in the present, with total awareness and contact and full feeling reactivity.

Inner-Directed (I) reflects the degree to which a person is "self" oriented. Self-directed persons are guided primarily by internalized principles and motivations.

Self-Actualizing Value (SAV) which measures the affirmation of values of self-actualizing persons. A high score is indicative of values characteristic of self-actualizing people. A low score suggests rejection of these values.

Existentiality (EX) measures the ability to react in a flexible manner without rigidity. It is a measure of good judgment in applying values and principles to one's life. A high score reflects flexibility, while a low score suggests rigidity to the point of compulsivity or dogmatism.

Feeling Reactivity (FR) measures sensitivity to one's own needs and feelings. A high score indicates presence of sensitivity, while a low score suggests insensitivity to one's needs and feelings.

Spontaneity (S) measures the ability to react spontaneously and be oneself. A high score indicates an ability to express feelings in spontaneous action, while a low score suggests fearfulness in expressing feelings behaviorally.

Self-Regard (SR) measures affirmation of self due to worth or strength as a person. A high score measures the ability to like oneself because of one's strength as a person, while a low score indicates feelings of low self-worth.

Self-Acceptance (SA) measures acceptance of self in spite of weaknesses. A high score indicates acceptance of self and weaknesses, while a low score suggests an inability to accept one's weakness.

Nature of Man-Constructive (NC) measures the degree of one's constructive view of the nature of man. A high score indicates that one sees man as essentially good and can resolve good-evil, masculine-feminine, selfish-unselfish, and spiritual-sensual dichotomies, while a low score suggests that one sees man as essentially bad or evil.

Synergy (S) measures the ability to be synergistic, that is, to transcend dichotomies. A high score indicates an ability to see the opposites of life as meaningfully related, while a low score suggests that one sees life as antagonistic.
Acceptance of Aggression (A) measures the ability to accept one's natural aggressiveness without denying it exists. A high score indicates an ability to accept anger within oneself, while a low score suggests denial of such feelings.

Capacity for Intimate Contact (C) measures the ability to develop intimate relationships with other people, unencumbered by expectations and obligations. A high score indicates the ability to develop meaningful, contactful relationships with others, while a low score suggests that one has difficulty with warm interpersonal relationships.

Therefore, as can be seen from Table 13, those women who have liberal sex-role attitudes score significantly higher than women with conservative sex-role attitudes on 11 of the 12 scales of the Personal Orientation Inventory as described above. The Synergy scale (SY) was the only scale which did not prove to be significant in discriminating the liberal from the conservative group of women.

In summary, the findings of Hypothesis I demonstrate that on 11 of the 12 scales of the Personal Orientation Inventory, the two groups of women, those which reflect liberal attitudes and those which reflect conservative attitudes, do significantly differ in the direction of scores reflecting self-actualizing responses. However, on the Synergy scale this did not prove to be the case. Therefore, it can be said from the majority of these findings, that in general, women who hold liberal points of view about the roles of women in society, also score in a direction toward more self-actualizing responses, than women who are conservative in their attitudes towards women's roles. This finding holds only for those women who participated in this research project within the City of Kalamazoo.
Hypothesis II

H₂: Women in paid employment will rate themselves as more satisfied with their overall life than women whose primary occupation is that of homemaker.

To analyze the data for this hypothesis, a chi-square test was used in which the Satisfaction Scale was dichotomized into more satisfied and less satisfied categories. The more satisfied category includes those women who checked the extremely satisfied and very satisfied columns on the questionnaire, while the less satisfied women are those who checked the somewhat satisfied and dissatisfied columns. Satisfaction is the dependent variable. The independent variables are paid employment and homemaker. The chi-square test assumes that the responses of the individual women, as recorded in the cells of the crosstabs, are independent of each other. The function of the chi-square test is to compare the obtained results with those that were expected on the basis of chance. A .05 level of significance was set for the obtained results. The null hypothesis states that in the population distribution, the proportional frequency in each subcategory will equal a specified value. These values are predicted upon equal preference among the two groups; homemaker and paid employment.

Table 14 reports the findings of this hypothesis in cross tabulation format with totals on the more satisfied homemaker group; the more satisfied paid employment group; the less satisfied homemaker group, and the less satisfied paid employment group. The null hypothesis will be rejected if values of $X^2$ are so large that their
Table 14
Chi-square Analysis: Primary Occupation and Overall Life Satisfaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary Occupation</th>
<th>More Satisfied</th>
<th>Less Satisfied</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Homemaker</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Row %</td>
<td>68.7</td>
<td>31.3</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paid Employment</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Row %</td>
<td>62.5</td>
<td>37.5</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corrected $\chi^2 = .664$</td>
<td>df = 1</td>
<td></td>
<td>$p = .415^*$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$^*$p $>.05$

The finding for Hypothesis II indicates that the obtained result of $p (\chi^2 > .664) = .415$ shows that there are no significant differences between women in paid employment as compared to those who are homemakers in ratings of overall life satisfaction. As reported in Table 14, 68 women rated themselves as more satisfied with their overall lives who are homemakers; whereas 31 women rated themselves as less satisfied who are also homemakers. Of the total 99 women in the sample who stated their primary occupation as that of homemaker, 68.7% are more satisfied with their overall lives, while 31.3% are less satisfied.

On the paid employment variable, 75 women rated their lives as more satisfying, while 45 women rated themselves as less satisfied with their overall lives. Of the total 120 women in the sample who stated their primary occupation as paid employment, 62.5% are more...
satisfied with their lives, while 37.5% are less satisfied. Therefore, as can be seen from these results there is a slightly higher percentage of homemakers who are more satisfied with their overall lives than women in paid employment. However, the similarity in these percentages are quite close, resulting in no significant findings for this hypothesis.

The null hypothesis is not rejected because category one is independent of category two stating that there are no significant differences between the two groups. Therefore, it appears from these results that overall life satisfaction is independent of a woman's chosen primary occupation, be it homemaker or paid employment.

Although significant differences were not found in hypothesis II, post hoc observations reveal that significant differences were found for three of the 21 variables on the Satisfaction Scale and primary occupational choice. These findings are reported in table format. It was found that those women who are in paid employment as compared to those women who are homemakers rate themselves as more satisfied with their educational levels and their ability to be economically independent. Those women who are homemakers, on the other hand, rate themselves as more satisfied with their partner's occupational level than women whose primary occupation is paid employment.

Again, using chi-squares to compare the obtained results with those that are expected on the basis of chance through a random selection process; a p < .05 level was set. Question #44 on the
Satisfaction Scale reads as follows: How satisfied are you with your educational level? There are four response alternatives ranging from extremely satisfied, very satisfied, somewhat satisfied, and dissatisfied. Once again, the extremely and very satisfied categories were collapsed into the More Satisfied group, while the somewhat satisfied and dissatisfied categories were collapsed into the Less Satisfied group. The same procedure was followed for Question 46 which read: How satisfied are you with your ability to be economically independent and Question 51 which reads: How satisfied are you with your partner's occupational level? The term partner refers interchangeably to spouse or significant primary person.

Tables 15, 16, and 17 report the findings for questions 44, 46, and 51, respectively. In the case of these post hoc observations, null hypotheses were rejected because the values of $X^2$ were so large that their probability of occurrence was .05 or less. Corrected chi-square values, degrees of freedom, and chi-square significance levels are also reported. Table 15 presents the results for satisfaction with educational level.

The obtained result of $p(X^2 > 7.659) = .005$ indicates that there are significant differences between women in paid employment as compared to those who are homemakers in ratings of satisfaction with educational level, at $p = .05$ level. As reported in Table 15, 35 women rated themselves as more satisfied with their educational levels who are homemakers, whereas, 65 women rated themselves as less satisfied, who are also homemakers. Of the total 100 women...
Table 15
Chi-square Analysis: Primary Occupation and Satisfaction with Educational Level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary Occupation</th>
<th>More Satisfied</th>
<th>More Satisfied</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Homemaker</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Row %</td>
<td>35.0</td>
<td>65.0</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paid Employment</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Row %</td>
<td>54.6</td>
<td>45.4</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Corrected $X^2 = 7.659$  \[ df = 1 \]

$p = .005^*$

* $p < .05$

In the sample who stated their primary occupation as that of homemaker, 35.0% are more satisfied with their educational levels, while 65.0% are less satisfied.

On the paid employment variable, 65 women rated themselves as more satisfied, while 54 rated themselves as less satisfied. Of the total 119 women in the sample who stated their primary occupation as paid employment, 54.6% are more satisfied with their educational levels, while 45.4% are less satisfied.

In the case of this finding, the null hypothesis is rejected because satisfaction with educational level appears to be dependent upon a woman's primary occupational choice, with those women who are homemakers significantly less satisfied with their educational levels than those women who are in paid employment.

The obtained result of $p (X^2 > 9.010) = .002$ indicates that there are significant differences between women in paid employment as compared to those who are homemakers in ratings of satisfaction.
with one's ability to be economically independent at $p < 0.05$ level. As reported in Table 16, 35 women rated themselves as more satisfied with their ability to be economically independent who are homemaker whereas 60 women rated themselves as less satisfied who are also homemaker. Of the total 95 women in the sample who stated their

Table 16

Chi-square Analysis: Primary Occupation and Satisfaction with Ability to be Economically Independent

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary Occupation</th>
<th>More Satisfied</th>
<th>Less Satisfied</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Homemaker</td>
<td>Count 35</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Row % 36.8</td>
<td>63.2</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paid Employment</td>
<td>Count 69</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Row % 58.5</td>
<td>41.5</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corrected $X^2 = 9.010$</td>
<td>$df = 1$</td>
<td></td>
<td>$p = .002^*$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05

primary occupation as that of homemaker, 36.8% are more satisfied with their ability to be economically independent, while 63.2% are less satisfied.

On the paid employment variable, 69 women rated themselves as more satisfied with their ability to be economically independent, while 49 women rated themselves as less satisfied. Of the total 118 women in the sample who stated their primary occupation as paid employment, 58.5% are more satisfied with their ability to be economically independent, while 41.5% are less satisfied.
Therefore, comparing the percentage of women who are in paid employment with those who are homemakers, significant differences emerge in that there are significantly more women in paid employment who are satisfied with their abilities to be economically independent.

The obtained result of \( p \left( X^2 > 4.815 \right) = .028 \) indicates that there are significant differences between women in paid employment as compared to those who are homemakers in ratings of satisfaction with partner's (primary significant other) occupational level at \( p = <.05 \) level. As reported in Table 17, 66 women rated themselves as more satisfied with their partner's occupational level who are homemakers, whereas 20 women rated themselves as less satisfied, who are also homemakers. Of the total 86 women in the sample who stated their primary occupation as that of homemaker, 76.7% are more satisfied with their partner's occupational level, while 23.3% are less satisfied.

Table 17
Chi-square Analysis: Primary Occupation and Satisfaction with Partner's Occupational Level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary Occupation</th>
<th>More Satisfied</th>
<th>Less Satisfied</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Homemaker</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Row %</td>
<td>76.7</td>
<td>23.3</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paid Employment</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Row %</td>
<td>59.2</td>
<td>40.8</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Corrected \( X^2 = 4.815 \) \( df = 1 \) \( p = .028^* \)

\*\( p < .05 \)

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On the paid employment variable, 42 women rated themselves as more satisfied with their partner's occupational level, while 29 women rated themselves as less satisfied. Of the total 71 women in the sample who stated their primary occupation as that of paid employment, 59.2% are more satisfied with their partner's occupational level, while 40.8% are less satisfied. In the case of this finding, women whose primary occupation is that of homemaker are also more satisfied with their partner's occupational level than those women who are in paid employment, as shown by the differences in percentage between the two groups.

Hypothesis III

H₃: Women in paid employment for which their education/training prepared them, will obtain higher scores on self-actualization as measured by all twelve scales of the Personal Orientation Inventory, than women who do not hold jobs for which their education/training prepared them.

Using a two-sample t-test of independent means, significant results at the p < .05 level were found for only one of the 12 scales of the Personal Orientation Inventory. Findings reveal significance at the p < .05 level for the Acceptance of Aggression scale for that group of women who do not hold jobs for which their education/training prepared them—a finding converse to that which was hypothesized. In addition to this, for that same group of women, except for the Time Competence and Synergy scales, the remainder of the POI scales, although not significant, were in the opposite direction of that hypothesized.
Group 1 represents all those women in paid employment who checked Yes to Question number 8 on the questionnaire which read: "Are you currently in an occupation for which your education/training prepared you?" Group 2 represents all those women who checked No to that same question. In terms of directionality, higher mean scores on the POI reflect responses which are more in the direction of self-actualizing responses, while lower scores are less so. Because no significant differences were found on 11 of the 12 scales for the two groups of women, it can be said that their responses to items on the POI were quite similar to each other and, therefore, not differentiating on this particular variable.

The means, standard deviations, sample sizes, t-values and probability levels are reported in Table 18 for all 12 scales for the Personal Orientation Inventory for this hypothesis. Descriptive statements containing the definitions of each scale were included previously (see pages 87,88).

The findings for Hypothesis III do not confirm the supposition that women in paid employment for which their education/training prepared them, will obtain higher scores on self-actualization as measured by all 12 scales of the Personal Orientation Inventory than those women, who while also employed, do not hold jobs for which their education/training prepared them. Not only did the findings fail to support the hypothesis, a significant relationship was found to exist on the Acceptance of Aggression Scale converse to that which was predicted, for these two groups of women. In addition to this, on the remaining 11 scales, nine of these scales were also in the

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Table 18

t-test Results of Women Who are and are not in an Occupation for which Their Education/Training Prepared Them on the Scales of the Personal Orientation Inventory

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scales of the POI</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TC</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>12.03</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>.606a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>11.83</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>55</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>73.36</td>
<td>15.20</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>-0.73</td>
<td>.233</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>75.36</td>
<td>14.37</td>
<td>55</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAV</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>15.47</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>-0.04</td>
<td>.483</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>15.50</td>
<td>4.16</td>
<td>55</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EX</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>17.34</td>
<td>4.71</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>-0.29</td>
<td>.385</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>17.60</td>
<td>4.60</td>
<td>55</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FR</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>14.98</td>
<td>3.54</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>-1.22</td>
<td>.111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>15.72</td>
<td>2.64</td>
<td>55</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>10.26</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>-0.74</td>
<td>.230</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>10.67</td>
<td>2.64</td>
<td>55</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SR</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>10.36</td>
<td>2.73</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>-0.67</td>
<td>.251</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>10.70</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>55</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SA</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>14.03</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>-1.46</td>
<td>.074</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>15.01</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>55</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 18 (Continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scales of the POI</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NC</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>9.31</td>
<td>2.76</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>-0.28</td>
<td>.390</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>9.45</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>55</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SY</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>2.01</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>.643a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>1.87</td>
<td>55</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>12.95</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>-2.47</td>
<td>.993*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>14.60</td>
<td>3.54</td>
<td>55</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>17.33</td>
<td>4.52</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>-0.77</td>
<td>.221</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>17.96</td>
<td>4.30</td>
<td>55</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p ≤ .05

aThese p levels are in the opposite direction of what the research hypothesis was expecting.
inversely predicted direction, although not significantly so. This hypothesis selected out only those women who were currently in paid employment at the time the survey was being conducted. Therefore, a subgroup of 118 women in paid employment were pulled from the total sample size of 225 women, excluding nine cases of missing data.

**Hypothesis IV**

**H₄**: Women who obtain scores on the Attitudes Toward the Roles of Women Scale which reflect liberal attitudes will rate themselves as more satisfied with their overall life than women who obtain conservative scores on the Attitudes Toward the Roles of Women Scale.

As with Hypothesis II, data analysis for this hypothesis utilized a chi-square test in which the Satisfaction Scale was dichotomized into more satisfied and less satisfied categories. The more satisfied category includes those women who checked the extremely satisfied and very satisfied columns on the questionnaire, while the less satisfied women are those who checked the somewhat satisfied and dissatisfied columns. Satisfaction is the dependent variable, while sex-role attitude is the independent variable. The chi-square test assumes that the responses of the individual women, are independent of each other. The function of the chi-square test is to compare the obtained results with those that were expected on the basis of chance through a random selection process at the \( p < .05 \) level.

The null hypothesis will not be rejected if it is found that overall life satisfaction is independent of a woman's sex-role orientation, be it liberal or conservative. Conversely, the null hypothesis
will be rejected if, on the other hand, overall life satisfaction is found to be dependent upon a woman's attitudes towards her roles in society. Categories consist of more satisfied and less satisfied with overall life and liberal versus conservative sex-role orientation.

Table 19 reports the findings for this hypothesis in cross-tabulation format with totals on the more satisfied conservative group; the more satisfied liberal group; the less satisfied conservative group and the less satisfied liberal group. The null hypothesis will be rejected if values of $X^2$ are so large that their probability of occurrence is .05 or less. Corrected chi-square values, degrees of freedom and chi-square significance level are also reported.

Table 19

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex-Role Attitudes</th>
<th>More Satisfied</th>
<th>Less Satisfied</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Conservative</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Row %</td>
<td>67.5</td>
<td>32.5</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liberal</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Row %</td>
<td>62.7</td>
<td>37.3</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corrected $X^2$</td>
<td>$.402$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$df$</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$p$</td>
<td>$.526*$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*$p \geq .05$

The obtained result of $p (X^2 > .402) = .526$ indicates that there are no significant differences between women who are liberal versus those who are conservative in their sex-role attitudes and ratings of overall life satisfaction, at the $p \leq .05$ level.

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As reported in Table 19, 77 women rated themselves as more satisfied who are conservative in their attitudes about women's roles; whereas 37 women rated themselves as less satisfied. Of the total 114 women in the sample who are conservative in their sex-role orientation, 67.5% are more satisfied with their overall lives, while 32.5% are less satisfied.

On the liberal category, 74 women rated themselves as more satisfied with their overall life, whereas 44 rated themselves as less satisfied. Of the total 118 women in the sample who are liberal in their sex-role orientation, 62.7% are more satisfied with their overall lives, while 37.3% are less satisfied.

In the case of this finding, the null hypothesis is not rejected because category one is independent of category two stating that there are no significant differences between the two groups. Therefore, it appears from these results that overall life satisfaction is independent of a women's sex-role attitude orientation, be it liberal or conservative.

**Hypothesis V**

H₅: Women who rate themselves as more satisfied with their overall life, will obtain higher scores on all twelve scales of the Personal Orientation Inventory than women who rate themselves as less satisfied with their overall lives.

Using a two-sample t-test of independent means, significant differences at the $p < 0.05$ level were found for three of the scales and at the $p < 0.01$ level for five scales of the Personal Orientation Inventory. Group 1 consists of all those women who checked either
the extremely satisfied or very satisfied columns on the questionnaire, thereby making up the more satisfied group. Group 2 consists of all those women who checked either the somewhat satisfied or dissatisfied columns on the questionnaire, thereby comprising the less satisfied group. In terms of directionality, higher mean scores on the Personal Orientation Inventory indicate responses more in a direction toward self-actualizing responses, while lower mean scores indicate the opposite.

The null hypothesis is not accepted for eight of the twelve scales because the means of the two groups are not equal; while for the remaining four scales, in which no significant differences were found, the null hypothesis is not rejected.

The means, standard deviations, sample sizes, t-values and probability levels are reported in Table 20 for all 12 scales of the Personal Orientation Inventory for this hypothesis. Descriptive statements describing what each scale measures were included previously (see pages 87, 88).

Hypotheses II, IV, and V are concerned with the relationships between occupation, sex-role attitudes, and self-actualization and a single dimension of life satisfaction, namely, overall life satisfaction. However, 21 additional variables of life satisfaction were included in the Satisfaction Scale. The purpose for including these components was two-fold: first, to derive the degree of association between each independent variable and the dependent variable so as to demonstrate a measure of the strength of the relationship between each of these variables and overall life satisfaction.
Table 20

*t*-test Results of Women Who are More Satisfied and Less Satisfied with Overall Life on Scales of Personal Orientation Inventory

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scales of the POI</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TC</td>
<td>More Satisfied</td>
<td>12.75</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>.000**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Less Satisfied</td>
<td>11.01</td>
<td>3.37</td>
<td>81</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>More Satisfied</td>
<td>76.26</td>
<td>13.94</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>2.39</td>
<td>.009**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Less Satisfied</td>
<td>71.54</td>
<td>15.01</td>
<td>81</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAV</td>
<td>More Satisfied</td>
<td>16.06</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>.013*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Less Satisfied</td>
<td>14.85</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>81</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EX</td>
<td>More Satisfied</td>
<td>17.84</td>
<td>4.43</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>1.58</td>
<td>.058</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Less Satisfied</td>
<td>16.82</td>
<td>5.10</td>
<td>81</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FR</td>
<td>More Satisfied</td>
<td>14.88</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>.482</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Less Satisfied</td>
<td>14.85</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>81</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>More Satisfied</td>
<td>10.95</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>.012*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Less Satisfied</td>
<td>10.04</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>81</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SR</td>
<td>More Satisfied</td>
<td>11.08</td>
<td>2.76</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>.000**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Less Satisfied</td>
<td>9.67</td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>81</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SA</td>
<td>More Satisfied</td>
<td>15.52</td>
<td>3.53</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>.001**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Less Satisfied</td>
<td>13.95</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>81</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 20 (Continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scales of the POI</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NC</td>
<td>More Satisfied</td>
<td>9.77</td>
<td>2.61</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>2.58</td>
<td>.005**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Less Satisfied</td>
<td>8.83</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>81</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SY</td>
<td>More Satisfied</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>2.31</td>
<td>.001*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Less Satisfied</td>
<td>3.58</td>
<td>1.81</td>
<td>81</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>More Satisfied</td>
<td>13.83</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>.380</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Less Satisfied</td>
<td>13.67</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>81</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>More Satisfied</td>
<td>17.44</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>.451</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Less Satisfied</td>
<td>17.37</td>
<td>4.57</td>
<td>81</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05  **p < .01
satisfaction through calculations of the Pearson correlation coefficients. A second purpose was to arrive at an estimation of the best set of predictors which impact overall life satisfaction for this group of women. In order to provide for this information, a series of multiple regression analyses were performed in stepwise fashion until addition of further predictor variables did not contribute significantly to the amount of variance accounted for in the dependent variable.

Table 21 reports the Pearson correlation coefficients in the order of highest to lowest correlations of the independent variables to the dependent variable. In addition to this, the amount of variance for each independent variable will be reported and the total number of respondents to each specific measure of life satisfaction.

As can be seen from Table 21, the specific variable on the Satisfaction Scale which has the greatest degree of association with overall life satisfaction is the quality of the relationship with one's partner, followed by satisfaction with one's family life. Based on these findings, it can be said that there is a closer relationship between satisfaction with the quality of the relationship with partner and overall life satisfaction than any of the other specific life satisfaction measures. This variable alone accounts for almost 40% of the variance on overall life satisfaction, with satisfaction with family life accounting for almost 38% and satisfaction with involvement in a variety of roles accounting for 34% of the total variance.
Table 21

Degree of Relationship between Overall Life Satisfaction and Specific Life Satisfaction Measures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>r</th>
<th>r²</th>
<th>n</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>52</td>
<td>Satisfaction with the quality of the relationship with partner</td>
<td>.632</td>
<td>.399</td>
<td>165</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43</td>
<td>Satisfaction with family life</td>
<td>.606</td>
<td>.367</td>
<td>218</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41</td>
<td>Satisfaction with involvement in a variety of roles, for example, wife, student, employee, member of the community, and so forth</td>
<td>.585</td>
<td>.342</td>
<td>225</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48</td>
<td>Satisfaction with amount and depth of involvement in social environment, be it friends, activities or group memberships</td>
<td>.529</td>
<td>.279</td>
<td>231</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51</td>
<td>Satisfaction with partner's occupational level</td>
<td>.473</td>
<td>.223</td>
<td>158</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39</td>
<td>Satisfaction with partner's attitudes toward the work which you do</td>
<td>.469</td>
<td>.219</td>
<td>168</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>Satisfaction with partner's physical health</td>
<td>.423</td>
<td>.178</td>
<td>166</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>Satisfaction with the type of work currently engaged in</td>
<td>.404</td>
<td>.163</td>
<td>218</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47</td>
<td>Satisfaction with amount and types of learning opportunities for personal development and self-understanding</td>
<td>.404</td>
<td>.163</td>
<td>227</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item</td>
<td>Item Description</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>$r^2$</td>
<td>n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55</td>
<td>Satisfaction with family income</td>
<td>.396</td>
<td>.156</td>
<td>215</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>54</td>
<td>Satisfaction with quality of the relationship with friends</td>
<td>.388</td>
<td>.150</td>
<td>230</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37</td>
<td>Satisfaction with amount of involvement and commitment one has to one's work</td>
<td>.362</td>
<td>.131</td>
<td>218</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>Satisfaction with a sense of competency in one's work</td>
<td>.339</td>
<td>.114</td>
<td>217</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46</td>
<td>Satisfaction with ability to be economically independent</td>
<td>.339</td>
<td>.114</td>
<td>224</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>53</td>
<td>Satisfaction with the quality of the relationship with your children</td>
<td>.328</td>
<td>.107</td>
<td>133</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38</td>
<td>Satisfaction with the amount of status one gets from one's work</td>
<td>.296</td>
<td>.087</td>
<td>217</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>Satisfaction with mother's attitudes toward the work you do</td>
<td>.280</td>
<td>.078</td>
<td>162</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44</td>
<td>Satisfaction with educational level</td>
<td>.273</td>
<td>.074</td>
<td>230</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42</td>
<td>Satisfaction with the number of children which you have</td>
<td>.263</td>
<td>.069</td>
<td>157</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49</td>
<td>Satisfaction with physical health</td>
<td>.180</td>
<td>.032</td>
<td>231</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56</td>
<td>Satisfaction with the number of children left in home</td>
<td>.170</td>
<td>.028</td>
<td>117</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In Table 22, the beta, standard error and F-values of the best set of predictor variables are presented. While correlation coefficients give an indication of the strength of the relationship between each variable and overall life satisfaction, the multiple regression analysis demonstrates which variables have the greatest impact in predicting overall life satisfaction so that a change in the satisfaction derived from the specific life satisfaction measure will cause a change in the degree of overall life satisfaction experienced.

Table 22 presents a multiple regression analysis derived from a stepwise regression procedure. The eight best predictor variables from among the variables on the Satisfaction Scale account for 82% of the variance on overall life satisfaction. Three predictors stand out as most important sources of overall life satisfaction: Item 48—satisfaction with social environment, Item 43—satisfaction with family life, and Item 36—sense of competency in one's work. The fact that overall life satisfaction is related to many specific satisfaction items, indicates that women derive their sense of overall life satisfaction from diffuse sources. However, social relationships and work are both of primary significance in determining general life satisfaction. It is interesting to note that with other variables controlled in the regression analysis, Item 39—satisfaction with partner's attitudes toward the work which you do and Item 56—satisfaction with the number of children left in the home, both have a negative impact on overall life satisfaction.

From this best set of predictor variables, it can be said that a change in any one of these specific life satisfaction measures
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Overall Life Satisfaction Regressed on Specific Life Satisfaction Measures (N = 55)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>48</td>
<td>Satisfaction with amount and depth of involvement in social environment, be it friends, activities, or group memberships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.398</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43</td>
<td>Satisfaction with family life</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.344</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>Satisfaction with a sense of competency in one's work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.242</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39</td>
<td>Satisfaction with partner's attitudes toward the work which you do</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-.183</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55</td>
<td>Satisfaction with family income</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.171</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56</td>
<td>Satisfaction with the number of children left in the home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-.166</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>52</td>
<td>Satisfaction with the quality of the relationship with partner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.165</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51</td>
<td>Satisfaction with partner's occupational level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.157</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$R^2 = .823$  
*all $F$ values significant at $p < .05$

df = 1, 46
would significantly impact a change in one's sense of overall life satisfaction. It should be emphasized that these best predictor variables were gathered from only 55 of the total 236 women who participated in the survey, whereas the number of respondents is much greater for the individual correlational values to the dependent variable. The difference in the meaning of the Pearson correlation coefficients and the best predictor variables lies in the understanding that the correlations give an indication of the measure of the strength of the relationship between each independent variable and the dependent variable, while the best predictor estimates can actually predict the impact of specific life satisfaction variables on overall life satisfaction by providing an estimate of how a change in one will cause a change in the other.
CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

It was the purpose of this study to investigate the effects of sex-role attitudes on levels of self-actualization and satisfaction with life among a group of randomly selected women within the City of Kalamazoo. In addition to this, this study also explored the relationships between occupational primacy as defined through paid employment and homemaker on overall life satisfaction and employment commensurate with education/training and its relationship to self-actualization.

The relevancy in pursuing these variables for further exploration lies in the rapidity with which social and individual change for women has occurred in the last 10 to 15 years, affecting all areas of a woman's life and sense of identity.

Since the mid-1960's, researchers have focused their attention on women in areas such as the rate of attitude change toward women's rights and roles; family and marital relationships; vocational, educational, and intellectual activities and personality characteristics. Such changes have been found to occur at approximately the same rate in all educational and socioeconomic strata indicating that such attitudinal changes are ideological in nature rather than circumstantial. The revolutionary quality of these changes can, in part, be
traced to the mounting evidence which shows the damaging consequential effects of the socialization process for women. Research studies, as previously cited, demonstrate the impact of successful socialization in terms of retarded cognitive development, inhibition of achievement, autonomy, competency traits and lowered self-esteem. The foundation for this study rests upon the reviewed literature in addition to the theoretical considerations of the nature of self-actualization, the beliefs about sex-role behaviors and the subjective appraisal of life satisfaction. The assumptions tested in this study are based upon a variety of developmental, environmental, social and psychological influences which shape a woman's attitudes about her role in society and, consequently, her employment status, self-actualizing tendencies, and experience of life satisfaction.

The first hypothesis dealt with the effect a woman's sex-role attitudes would have on her achieved levels of self-actualization. It was postulated that women who do not hold stereotypic attitudes about appropriate behaviors for women, would be liberal in their orientations, thus, resulting in higher achieved levels of self-actualization than women whose beliefs were conservative. It was assumed that the degree to which one adheres to the notion of appropriately sanctioned sex-related behaviors for the sexes, one limits the diversity and range of behaviors available to themselves, thereby stunting their psychological and emotional growth.

The second hypothesis concerned itself with the choice of employment as a primary occupational commitment compared to that of homemaker and its relationship to overall life satisfaction. This
hypothesis rested on the supposition that paid employment affords opportunities such as a sense of social connectedness and competency which homemaking cannot offer, thereby resulting in a greater sense of life satisfaction.

The third hypothesis explored the relationship between employment in an occupation for which one was educated/trained and self-actualization levels. It was anticipated that women who succeed in obtaining employment equal to their educational and skill levels, would also be the same women who would maximize their human potentialities resulting in increased tendencies toward self-actualization.

The fourth hypothesis studied the relationship between sex-role attitude orientation and satisfaction with one's overall life. It was reasoned that those women who are not bound by rigid sex-role attitudes would also be freer to express themselves in a variety of ways resulting in a subjective view of a more satisfying overall life.

The final hypothesis concerned itself with the ability to realize one's full capacities as a person and a greater sense of overall life satisfaction. It was hypothesized that those women who allow themselves their natural expression, unrestrained by conventional dictates, would also experience their lives as more satisfying than those women who allow convention to hamper them from doing anything they considered important and basic.

The review of selected literature covered four basic areas: research in sex-role attitudes, occupational and vocational choices, self-actualization and satisfaction with life. The findings in the area of sex-role attitudes appears to be consistent with regard to
individual characteristics. Generally, the nontraditional woman is seen as adopting a variety of role involvements leading to a more integrated life style than the traditional woman. However, it was also found that the nontraditional woman experiences more psychological conflict and stress in making choices which are unconventional in nature, affecting her sense of psychological well-being.

Findings in the area of self-esteem are inconsistent with regards to sex-role attitudes. Some research reports no relationship between the two variables, while other research shows that sex-role attitudes can both positively and negatively affect a woman's self-concept.

In the area of occupational and vocational choices the research was consistent: there are clear and distinct differences between career-oriented and home-oriented women in personality, background, interest patterns and values, educational attainment and need states. Studies dealing with wives' employment status have found among working wives an increase in the area of life satisfaction, daily work satisfaction, increased levels of self-esteem, a greater sense of personal autonomy and improved relationships with children. It has also been found that in general, the mental health of working wives is better than that of housewives.

Research relating self-actualization to sex-role attitudes is uniformly in agreement: the nontraditional, pro-feminist women consistently evidence higher levels of self-actualization. Maslow's theory of self-actualization rests on the assumptions that personal growth requires differentiation and individual expression in order to
take place. The nontraditional woman does not become more masculine in orientation in that she assumes values of the traditional male role, but rather transcends role boundaries in the pursuit of self-actualization.

In general, studies dealing with life satisfaction have found that satisfaction is dependent upon where a person is at in their life cycle. Studies specifically relating life satisfaction as it pertains to women have found higher degrees of satisfaction among women who had experienced a variety of role involvements instead of only one continuous role of either homemaker or worker. It has also been found that women who actually did what they prefer doing were more satisfied with their lives than those who found themselves in roles which did not match their preference.

The instrumentation used for the assessment of self-actualization was the Personal Orientation Inventory. The POI consists of 150 forced-choice items in which each statement reflects certain value-judgments and behaviors which are considered important in the development of the self-actualizing individual. There are two major scales, time-competence/incompeptence and inner-directed/other-directed, and 10 subscales: self-actualizing value, existentially, feeling reactivity, spontaneity, self-regard, self-acceptance, nature of man--constructive, synergy, acceptance of aggression and capacity for intimate contact. Predictive validity of the POI was assessed through prominent doctoral-level psychologists who nominated criterion samples of "self-actualizing" and "nonactualizing" persons, who subsequently completed the POI. POI scale differences between these nominated samples proved to be
statistically significant. In addition to this, a substantial number of college freshmen from Western and Midwestern liberal arts colleges were sampled as the original normed group.

The 25-item version of the Attitudes Toward Women Scale was utilized in this study for the assessment of sex-role attitudes. Each item consists of a declarative statement which examines the areas of vocational, educational, and intellectual roles; freedom and independence; dating, courtship and etiquette; drinking, swearing and dirty jokes; sexual behavior and marital relationships and obligations, as they pertain to attitudes concerning women's roles in society.

The scale contains four response alternatives ranging from Agree Strongly, Agree Mildly, Disagree Mildly, and Disagree Strongly. Each item is given a score from 0 to 3, with 0 representing the most traditional, conservative attitude and 3 the most liberal, profeminist attitudes. The Attitudes Toward Women Scale was normed on a sample of 420 men and 529 women in several introductory psychology courses and on an additional 293 men and 239 women in addition to this group's parent population. Due to the differences in the normed sample and the sample population of this study, there was concern that certain words contained in the AWS would not be understood by women with eighth grade or less reading levels. Therefore, permission was requested from Dr. Janet Spence, author of the AWS, to change some of the words while leaving the content in tact. Dr. Spence had no objections to these changes.

A review of the current literature on components of life satisfaction proved to be the foundation for selecting 22 variables
which impact a woman's subjective experience of life satisfaction. These 22 variables made up the Satisfaction with Life Scale for use in this study. These variables were gathered from quality of life studies, studies on the well being of adult women and various measures and studies of self-reported well being. One global question asking the respondent "How satisfied are you with your overall life?" proved to be the central indicator for several of the hypotheses.

The remaining 21 variables were incorporated for the purpose of gathering information on which aspect of a woman's life has the greatest predictive value for overall life satisfaction. The Scale was developed on a Likert-type format with four response alternatives ranging from extremely satisfied, very satisfied, somewhat satisfied, and dissatisfied. A fifth choice was given for questions that did not apply for certain women and was labeled the "Does Not Apply" column.

The population studied in this research project were selected through the use of random sampling procedures based on the total number of dwelling units in the City of Kalamazoo census tracts during 1978 (N = 27,611). This information was collected by the City Planning Department in cooperation with the City Tax Division for use by the Center for Sociological Research at Western Michigan University.

The list of household dwelling units was secured from Dr. Subhash Sonnad who originally used the information for a community-wide survey on attitudes concerning police-community relationships. For the purpose of this study, 650 dwelling units were randomly generated from the total N = 27,611 through the use of a random number
generator that is computerized on the DEC System-10 at the Western Michigan University computer center. The number 650 was based on the original plan to collect 300 usable responses, allowing for at least a 50% refusal rate. Because the dwelling units were broken down by census tract areas, a proportionate stratified sample resulted. All subjects who participated in the study were women over the age of 18 who, at the time of the study, lived within the City of Kalamazoo. All participants in the survey were volunteers who agreed to sign written informed consent forms. Subject characteristics were gathered for age, educational level, marital status, number of children, number of children living at home, yearly income, primary occupation and two questions relating to educational training and occupation.

An actual total of 349 people were canvassed on a door-to-door basis. Of this total 264 women agreed to take the survey while 85 women refused. Twenty eight of the 264 women did not complete the Personal Orientation Inventory and, therefore, had to be omitted from the final hypothesis testing, leaving a total sample size of 236. Although 21 census tracts are contained within the City of Kalamazoo, only 10 of these 21 were actually surveyed. The reasons for this can be accounted for through the preferences of the paid volunteer surveyors who usually favored a certain section of the city either because they lived there or because they liked the area and felt comfortable surveying it. The actual data collection was discontinued at 264 people, 36 women short of the goal of 300 acceptances. This was due to time considerations in addition to the difficulty encountered.
in replenishing the pool of paid volunteer surveyors.

Paid volunteer surveyors were recruited during the end of Winter Semester, 1979, and the beginning of Spring Session, 1979, from the student population at Western Michigan University. An advertisement was placed in the school newspaper, The Western Herald, stating the nature and purpose of the research project. A total of nine women were selected for the door-to-door project. Each volunteer was paid $2.00 for each completed survey packet. Volunteers were not paid for the amount of time spent in distributing and collecting the surveys, gas mileage, or incompletely completed packets. Each volunteer was given a list of 60 addresses broken down by census area which was to be completed within a one-month period of time. The expectation was that at least 30 of the dwellings canvassed would take part in the survey. Due to high drop out rates among volunteers, continued efforts had to be maintained to recruit volunteers both from the university community and also from the community at large. A total of 26 paid volunteer surveyors were employed over a three month period of time.

Data collection procedures included instructions to the surveyors to introduce themselves as assistants to a doctoral student doing research at Western Michigan University. Surveyors were specifically told not to use the word "sex" in reference to sex-role attitude, nor the words self-actualization or life satisfaction, but rather to make general statements concerning how women view their role in society, how they feel about different parts of their life and what kind of values they have. It was anticipated that such an
approach would be less anxiety provoking for the respondents. Each surveyor was instructed to return to the same address at least three times if no one was at home the first two times. After the third visit if no one was still at home, the address was crossed off the list. Each surveyor was asked to record on their address list, next to each address canvassed, whether the respondent refused, accepted, or wanted to know their results. Once a woman agreed to take a look at the materials, the surveyor informed her that it was not necessary to complete the survey right at that time. Rather, each participant was given a one-week period of time to work on the packet which included the POI booklet and computer answer sheet with number two pencil, an instruction sheet and the informed consent agreement, and the eight-page questionnaire. The surveyor went over all the materials in the packet with each participant, left the packet and agreed upon a day and time to return and pick it up. However, in some cases a week proved to be an insufficient amount of time. In other instances, although the day and time of pick up was agreed upon before hand, some women were not at home when the surveyor returned causing repeated visits to the same address and affecting surveyor drop out rates.

Prior to the full scale study, a pilot study was completed in March-April, 1979. The purpose of this pilot study was to accurately assess the soundness of hypotheses construction, data collection techniques, research design, development of the Satisfaction with Life Scale and appropriateness of the Attitudes Toward the Role
of Women Scale, on a random sample of women. An initial effort was made to conduct the pilot project in exactly the same manner as the full scale study. In line with this, 540 dwelling units were randomly selected from a total population of $N = 27,611$ dwelling units in the census tract areas of the City of Kalamazoo. The first 25 households were pulled from the total 540 for use in the pilot study. Of the total sample size of 25, 18 of the women were actually surveyed in a random door-to-door fashion. The remainder of the seven women were selected from the researcher's work setting and from friends or family of the workers. This was done due to time constraints.

Results of the pilot study proved the soundness of the instrumentation, hypotheses, and data collection techniques. The pilot study also resulted in the simplification or elimination of some questions in the questionnaire. Revisions were also made with the Satisfaction with Life Scale in which the original six response alternatives were scaled down to four due to very low numbers of responses in some of the categories.

For the purpose of this study, the independent variable is the effect of sex-role attitudes and the dependent variables are measured levels of self-actualization and satisfaction with life. Data analysis with the first, third, and fifth hypotheses were conducted using a two-sample $t$-test of independent means. Therefore, if the null hypotheses should be false, a one-tailed test will show that the true value of $u$ differs from the hypothesized value in a particular direction. Both the second and fourth hypotheses were analyzed using the chi-square ($X^2$) statistic. The chi-square provides a
measure of discrepancy between expected and obtained frequencies. If the $X^2$ is so large that such a value would rarely occur when the hypothesis is true, the hypothesis will be rejected if the probability of occurrence is .05 or less. In addition to the data analysis used in hypotheses testing, a multiple regression analysis was performed in order to arrive at an estimation of which of the 21 independent variables on the Satisfaction with Life Scale best predicted the single dependent variable of overall life satisfaction. Pearson correlation coefficients were also calculated.

Results of the first hypothesis, which dealt with the effect a woman's sex-role attitudes (conservative versus liberal) would have on achieved levels of self-actualization as measured by the 12 scales of the Personal Orientation Inventory, predicted that women with liberal orientations would score higher on all 12 scales of the POI than women with conservative orientations. Findings reveal significant differences at the .05 level of probability for 11 of the 12 scales in the predicted direction. The only scale which proved not to be significant was the synergy scale.

The second hypothesis investigated the choice of paid employment or homemaker as a primary occupational commitment and its relationship to overall life satisfaction predicting that women in paid employment would rate their overall lives as more satisfying than women whose primary occupation is that of homemaker. The findings for Hypothesis II are not significant at the .05 level. However, post hoc observations reveal significant differences at the $p < .05$ level for three of the 21 variables on the Satisfaction with Life Scale.
Scale and primary occupational choice. It was found that those women who are in paid employment as compared to those women who are homemakers, rate themselves as more satisfied with their educational levels and their ability to be economically independent. Those women who are homemakers, on the other hand, rate themselves as more satisfied with their partner's occupational level, than women whose primary occupation is paid employment.

Results of the third hypothesis which investigated the question of whether participation in the labor force through paid employment must match a woman's educational/training level in order for her to become more self-actualized than she would if the two did not match, predicted that for those women whose employment was commensurate with their education/training, higher levels of self-actualization would be obtained. Findings show significance at the p < .05 level for only one scale--acceptance of aggression--for that group of women who do not hold jobs for which their education/training prepared them--a finding converse to that which was hypothesized. In addition to this, for that same group of women, with the exception of the Time Competence and Synergy scales, mean scores were in the opposite direction of that which were hypothesized, although not significantly so.

The fourth hypothesis was concerned with a woman's sex-role attitude orientation (conservative versus liberal) and the effect this would have on her overall life satisfaction. It was predicted that women whose sex-role attitudes reflect a liberal orientation would also rate themselves as more satisfied with their overall lives than women who hold onto more conservative points of view. Results of the chi-
square test for this hypothesis proved that there was no significant
difference between the two groups of women and their ratings of
overall life satisfaction at the p < 0.05 level.

The final hypothesis investigated the relationship between
greater satisfaction with one's overall life and increased levels
of self-actualization. The prediction was made that those women
who find their lives quite satisfying would also be the same
individuals who allow themselves their natural expression and
evolution toward self-realization and growth. Results showed
significant differences at the .05 level of probability for eight
of the 12 scales on the POI. These scales were the time competent,
inner-directed, self-actualizing value, spontaneity, self-regard,
self-acceptance, nature of man and synergy scales.

In calculating the multiple regression analysis in order to
arrive at an estimation of which of the 21 independent variable
on the Satisfaction Scale best predicted the single dependent
variable of overall life satisfaction, Item 48—satisfaction with
amount and depth of involvement in one's social environment followed
by family life satisfaction and competency in one's work were the top
three predictors. Two of the variables, partner's attitudes toward
the work one does and number of children left in the home were found
to have a significant negative impact on overall life satisfaction
when other specific life satisfaction variables were controlled.

As pertains to the variables which had the strongest relation­
ship to overall life satisfaction, quality of the relationship to
partner, family life, and involvement in a variety of roles were found
to have the highest degrees of association to overall life satisfaction.

The results of these five hypotheses in addition to the best prediction of overall life satisfaction and highest correlational relationships to overall life satisfaction, will be more fully explored in the rest of this chapter along with a presentation of recommendations for further research in this area.

Discussion

Relationship Between Sex-role Attitudes and Self-Actualization

The theoretical foundations of Maslow's theory of self-actualization rest on the following criterion: self-actualizing people evidence an absence of neurosis, psychopathic personalities, psychosis or strong tendencies toward psychological maladjustment. Self-actualizing persons make full use of their talents, capacities and potentialities. To be self-actualized also implies basic need gratification, past or present, in the areas of safety, belongingness, love, respect, self-esteem and cognitive needs for knowledge and understanding (Maslow, 1970). Such persons are in an active process of being and becoming and are growing by continuously examining and expanding their assumptions about life. They are not statically maintaining themselves, but rather developing their humanness toward fuller integration of the self. One aspect of self-actualizers is their relative independence of culture and environment; they depend on their own abilities and resources for personal growth and development. There is a basic resistance to enculturation and a
transcendence of the culture which surrounds them. Conventionality
is viewed as ordinary and of no great consequence and is responded
to in a rather casual and perfunctory manner. Such individuals may
be called autonomous, that is, directed by their own rules, rather
than the rules of society.

Based on these theoretical considerations, the question then
arises as to the impact that adhering to sex-role related stereotypes
would have on the spontaneous and natural progression toward self-
actualization. Clearly defined, sex-role attitudes are beliefs about
behavioral differences between the sexes so that certain rights
and privileges are sanctioned for one sex and restrained or inhibited
for the other sex, as dictated by normative cultural expectations.
It was the purpose of the first hypothesis to test the relationship
between the two variables, postulating that women who are bound by
stereotypes about "women's roles" in society, would also severely
limit their development toward a psychologically healthy, self-
actualized self. Findings reveal that those women who hold onto a
conservative notion of women's place, do evidence lessened self-
actualizing tendencies than those women who are more flexible in
their view of "appropriate" roles for women. These findings correspond
to those of other researchers.

Studies by Hjelle and Butterfield (1974), Doyle (1975),
Heidemann (1976), Mahoney (1975), Corbett (1974), and Darpli (1974)
all found consistent results: those women who are liberal in their
sex-role attitudes are also more self-actualized. Such findings
substantiate earlier inferences made in this paper concerning such

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a relationship, namely, that strongly sex-typed individuals seriously limit the range of behaviors and experiences which are available to them.

In this research study, all scales of the Personal Orientation Inventory, which is a standardized measure of self-actualization as measured through 12 distinct attributes, proved significant in differentiating the two groups of women, those who were conservative in their sex-role attitudes as compared to those who were liberal, except for the Synergy scale, which did not prove to be significant. Synergy is defined as a person's ability to see opposities of life as meaningfully related. It is a quality which speaks to a person's capacity to transcend dichotomies and blend opposite polarities into one, such as femaleness and maleness. This finding exactly mirrors the findings in the Hjelle and Butterfield (1974) study which found significant differences on all scales of the POI, except for the Synergy scale. It appears from this finding, that while it can be said that women who challenge stereotypic notions of prescribed role behaviors for women are also significantly moving in a direction toward greater self-actualization, they have not yet abandoned the concept of sex-role-defined behaviors.

Indeed, the fact that measures of conservative and liberal attitudes toward women's roles still enjoy wide popularity among researchers speaks to societal resistance to acknowledge the person instead of seeing the sex specific traits or characteristics deemed as appropriate end-products in the process of well-adjusted socialization.
It can be expected that the woman who answers "agree strongly" to the question: economic and social freedom is worth far more to women than being accepted by men as the ideal feminine woman, would evidence a certain degree of psychological conflict as the messages of what Bem (1970) terms our "non-conscious ideology" rise up to resist the internal messages of our individuality. It appears that a person's ability to equalize and integrate roles, relationships and the many faceted aspects of self is, to some extent, dependent upon society's tolerance for such exploration.

As Maslow (1970) states regarding self-actualizers: "Our imperfect society clearly forces inhibitions and restraints upon our subjects. To the extent that they have to maintain their little secrecies, to that extent is their spontaneity lessened and to that extent are some of their potentialities not actualized" (p. 174).

Developing scales which emphasize dualisms such as conservative-liberal, masculine-feminine, achieving-affiliative, and good-bad in actuality only reinforce the notion that one must identify with only one side of themselves to the exclusion of the other. Such dualistic mentality affords no resolution which can transcend opposition. The findings of this research along with the Hjelle and Butterfield (1974) study, clearly seem to indicate that while challenging long-held beliefs about sex-defined role behaviors makes for increased levels of psychological and emotional growth, we have yet to discover the "farther reaches of human nature," within our very selves.

It should be noted that while the research findings clearly show women with liberal sex-role orientations score in a more self-
actualizing direction than women with conservative orientations, the means on the POI scales for the population of women surveyed in this research are below the means of the normed population of self-actualizing adults as developed for the Personal Orientation Inventory. These differences can be explained through the standards of criterion selection for self-actualizers in the original normed group.

In the development and validation of the POI scales, the normed group consisted of individuals selected by well-known psychologists who nominated criterion samples of self-actualizers and non-self-actualizers. This method of selection appears to replicate Maslow's original subject selection procedures in which he himself and two prominent researchers, chose the 1% of the college populations they judged the most well adjusted through intensive screening over a two-year period of time.

In an initial attempt, 3,000 college students were screened, but yielded only one usable subject. Technique of selection was that of the iteration method in which information was gathered on the personal and cultural state of belief, the psychological state of the individual, and studies on the personality syndromes of self-esteem and security. From his holistic analysis of these total impressions, Maslow was able to glean whole characteristics of self-actualizing people. He concluded that public and historical figures such as Jefferson, Lincoln, Eleanor Roosevelt and Einstein, among others, were highly probable cases of self-actualizing individuals. Therefore the standards of criterion selection for self-actualizing persons far exceed those qualities that would be found in average or ordinary
persons. The scales of the POI were similarly normed on groups of persons found to possess characteristics of self-actualization as researched and developed by Maslow. This leads to the conclusion that those women surveyed in this study who had liberal orientations in their sex-role attitudes, while they scored in a significantly higher direction on scales of the POI than the conservative women, as a whole, do not match the normed group in expressed characteristics of self-actualization.

It appears clear from the findings of the first hypothesis and the discussion of these findings that women who choose to grow must be willing to give up traditional notions of sex-role propriety toward a more full understanding of themselves as persons. The progression toward self-realization requires leaving what is safe and familiar in terms of traditional teachings and discovering humanness--being whatever and whoever one chooses. To the extent that women behave in ways which are consistent with the roles society has cast for them, to this extent, will they also deny their unique, idiosyncratic, and dynamic selves.

**Relationship between Employment Status and Overall Life Satisfaction**

The second hypothesis explored the relationship between primary occupational commitment and overall life satisfaction. It was predicted that those women whose primary occupational choice was that of paid employment, would be more satisfied with their overall lives than women who identified primarily with the homemaker role. This premise was based on the reality that the role of homemaker has...
historically been assigned to women in such a primary and nonconscious fashion that women believe it is their duty, privilege and main source of life satisfaction to carry on their predetermined sense of placement—in the home.

It was anticipated that women who challenge these beliefs place emphasis on self-determination instead of predetermination and, therefore, seek out alternative sources of fulfillment which afford feelings of social connectedness, purpose, and contribution in a central instead of peripheral manner. One means to this end is through the task of paid employment. It was expected that these women would, therefore, find their lives more satisfying. However, the hypothesis was not supported. Analysis of these findings takes several directions.

First, earlier findings as reported in this study, show that it is the traditional, home-centered woman who consistently rates herself as the most satisfied with life (National Commission on the Observance of International Women's Year, 1977) and (Reynolds, Crask, & Wells, 1977). Two possible interpretations of these findings and the lack of significant findings in the present study can be explained through Bem's (1970) theory of nonconscious ideology or training the woman to know her place.

Bem asserts that the happiness or satisfaction of such women reveal society's success in socializing its women and is a good indicator of the distance society must yet travel toward the goals of self-fulfillment. In line with this assessment, Erich Fromm (1970) in an analysis of social character, determined that society
rewards those women who act in accordance with prescribed roles and, therefore, reinforces role-taking behaviors. Therefore, if women believe that it is their primary duty in life to be home-centered and to derive their main sources of gratification from the home environment, then indeed, they would see themselves as very satisfied with their lives.

Indeed, as Safilios-Rothschild (1971) found, the choice of employment as a primary occupational commitment is viewed as a socially deviant one. This finding lends support to Porter's (1967) research which found that women who hold liberal sex-role attitudes also appear to evidence higher amounts of psychological stress and conflict because self-development and fulfillment are seen in opposition to being a wife and mother. Again, such a finding goes back to our society's either-or approach to life choices, which propagates dualistic barriers. While psychological stress and conflict do appear to be greater in women who make what might be considered socially deviant choices, Porter also found that adoption of some aspects of the self-orientation, in conjunction with a desire for marriage and children, was characteristic of women who were strong and purposive as defined by level of ego strength.

Ferree (1976) examining housework and paid work as sources of satisfaction found that part-time workers worked more for intrinsic reasons than either full-time workers or housewives and rate themselves as the most satisfied. In addition to this, her findings show that it is the woman whose self-esteem is supported by both the role of housewife and working woman who tends to have the greatest feelings.
of satisfaction. Such a finding lends support to the notion that a woman's sense of satisfaction and personal fulfillment may depend on the extent to which she can integrate these parts of her life. Therefore, a finding that did not reach statistical significance for this hypothesis could be explained through the fact that respondents were asked to choose only one category, either paid employment or homemaker, as a primary occupational commitment. It appears that instead of limiting choices to an either-or approach a third alternative that combined both paid employment and homemaker roles could have produced significant findings in this area.

Additional variables appear to also play a part with employment status and life satisfaction. Gross and Arvey (1977) found that wives' satisfaction with the housewife role was related to husband's responsibility for homemaker tasks and to husband's attitudes toward women's roles, and Macke and Hudis (1977) found that husbands' actual and perceived attitudes toward wives' employment are related to wives' actual employment status. Haavio-Mannila (1971) found that for working wives, general family satisfaction was more important to overall life satisfaction than her relationship to her husband; that wives who do not work are dependent upon their husbands both for their general life satisfaction and for finding the source of central life satisfaction. Therefore, it is suggested that satisfaction with life and its relationship to employment status is not as clear cut as first suspected.

In addition to societal influences, the actual and perceived attitudes by husbands toward wives' employment exerts a profound affect
on a woman's actual employment status. It appears that the more liberal and supportive the husband is in terms of encouraging alternative sources of life satisfaction, the more the woman feels able to integrate both roles into her lifestyle in a comfortable and less stressful manner. Therefore, it seems insufficient to ask a woman to rate her overall life satisfaction based on a dichotomized choice of paid employment or homemaker; actually, the issue is more complex than this.

Although findings for this hypothesis did not support it, post hoc observations reveal significant findings in the following areas: women in paid employment do rate themselves as more satisfied with their educational levels and their abilities to be economically independent; whereas, homemakers are more satisfied with their partners' occupational levels. In discussing these findings it appears quite logical to conclude that those women who earn their own incomes and consider this a primary life involvement would also feel more satisfied with their own abilities to be economically independent, whereas the homemaker is dependent upon her husband or other sources rather than her own abilities to provide needed income.

In the area of educational levels and paid employment, it has been found by McClendon (1976) that married working females have more education than their nonworking counterparts, and that housewives, on the average, had a year less education than working women. Ferree (1976) found that the less educated women tend to be less unhappy at home than the more educated women and that the higher the educational level, the more satisfaction with life. Based on these findings and

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the findings of the present research, there appears to be a definite relationship between higher educational levels, increased employment involvement and greater satisfaction with life, in addition to movement toward more liberal points of view.

In the National Commission on the Observance of International Women's Year (1977) study, the women with the greatest amount of post-high school education were the expanding outlook women followed by the balancing and traditional outlook women. Traditional women had a higher number of individuals with less than a high school education than either expanding or balancing outlook women. It is logical to expect that women with higher educational levels would also be in a position to acquire occupational attainments that would reflect their educational accomplishments, thereby reflecting a correlation between paid employment and more satisfaction with their educational levels. In fact, McClendon (1976) found that education was the most important factor for assigning both males and females to occupational positions and concluded that if housewives wanted to find employment, they would most likely end up with lower status positions than currently working women.

In finding that homemakers are more satisfied with their partners' occupational level than women in paid employment, two possible explanations are offered. The first interpretation rests on the Lipman-Blumen (1972) theory of "vicarious achievement."

Lipman-Blumen found that women who are traditional in their sex-role orientations and behaviors tended to meet their own needs for achievement through the accomplishments of their husbands, thereby
experiencing a sense of accomplishment which they could not offer to themselves. Identification with the achiever results in both successes and failures being treated as if they were one's own. It appears that the act of achieving in and of itself provides for the vicarious satisfaction which is derived, or that contributing to another's achievement through traditional methods, acts as the accomplishment itself. This interpretation also has implications for the greater satisfaction that home-centered wives appear to indicate. That is, women who define themselves through someone else, would depend upon their partners to provide meaning, purpose, and validation of life, thereby being satisfied with their assigned roles.

The second explanation for this finding follows from the first. It can be assumed that women who adopt a direct achieving style through primary involvement in paid employment as an occupational choice, in which they rely on their own efforts and resources to function competently, would be less inclined to become as ego-involved in their partners' accomplishments for the purpose of treating them as if they were their own. Rather the ego-involvement would be directed toward a feeling of acceptance rather than vicariousness in their partners' occupational attainments, leading to the conclusion that women in paid employment are not less satisfied than homemakers in the area of their partners' occupational level, but rather more accepting of where they are at, because they have their own separate identities.

In discussing the findings for Hypothesis II, it become evident that a diversity of factors come into play when explaining
the relationship between a woman's employment status and her overall life satisfaction. Variables such as husband's attitudes, involvement with home-related tasks, level of family satisfaction, educational levels of women, ability to integrate the simultaneous roles of homemaking and paid employment all influence the choices which women pursue and which they find rewarding and satisfying. Therefore, asking a simple question about occupational preference and relating it to overall life satisfaction is too limited an approach to tap the multi-determining factors which impact life choices.

**Relationship between Employment Commensurate with Education/Training and Self-Actualization**

It was postulated in the third hypothesis that women who are in paid employment for which their education/training prepared them, would score higher on all 12 scales of the Personal Orientation Inventory than women who do not hold jobs for which their education/training prepared them. The rationale for this hypothesis was based on several factors.

First, a distinguishing feature of the self-actualizing individual is their ability to commit themselves to tasks that are problem centered, that offer a feeling of challenge, responsibility and accomplishment. Work is viewed as exciting and pleasant and when developed in harmony with their personality and needs, quite rewarding. It has been found by other researchers (Manning, 1972; McClendon, 1976) that education has a strong, positive relationship to career motivation and ego development and that education is the most important factor in
the process of assigning occupational positions for both females and males. Therefore, it was assumed that those women who are placed in positions that utilize those competencies in which they are qualified, through education and training, would be in the best possible position to maximize their capabilities and potentialities, whereas the opposite would hold true for women whose employment status does not match their educational or training levels.

The findings for this hypothesis not only did not support it, but rather were in the opposite direction of that hypothesized for 10 of the 12 scales, with the acceptance of aggression scale showing the only significant difference between the two groups of women. At first glance, these findings would seem contrary to the findings of other research studies previously cited. However, upon closer examination the findings actually substantiate the rationales upon which the hypothesis was based, although it does not substantiate the hypothesis.

A clearly visible explanation for this seeming paradox is that for the population of women sampled in this study, 18.9%, the highest percentage of all occupations listed, were clerical workers at the time of this survey. The hypothesis erroneously assumed that regardless of what occupation a woman was engaged in, if it matched her training and educational abilities, then she would be in the best possible position to maximize her potentials and capabilities.

However, findings by Chernik and Phelan (1974) clearly indicate that higher work levels, such as managerial positions, satisfy higher order needs such as self-esteem and self-actualization, in addition
to increasing perceived job satisfaction. The study clearly demonstrates a relationship between perceived need satisfaction using Maslow's need hierarchy and job level. Eighty-six percent of the sample were female clerks who consistently ranked security as the most important need, while managerial people ranked esteem and self-actualization in order of importance. It appears that women at lower occupationally traditional levels, such as clerical work, find the most need fulfillment from their work is in the security of having work itself. Clerical work does not offer the diversity and range of accomplishment, responsibility and challenge that persons occupying positions of leadership and authority can be expected to experience.

According to the U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, March, 1975, the majority of working women list clerical work as their major occupation. Women as a whole are, therefore, locked into positions which do not enhance self-esteem, nurture autonomy or tap broader potentialities and capabilities. These traditionally women occupied positions reinforce dependency, lack opportunity for significant decision-making, limit the range of influence and keep women from moving and experiencing the esteem and autonomy that comes with positions of authority and responsibility on a wider scope. One cannot expect a person to move in a direction of greater self-actualization if the opportunities to develop deeper competencies are lacking. Therefore, the hypothesis itself is misleading in that it only considers one dimension toward self-actualization,
when the issues must be looked at within a wider social and historical context. The finding of this hypothesis appears to point out that simply matching educational level with occupational position does not guarantee movement toward self-actualization.

Historically, women have been socialized into positions which reinforce security based needs as Chernik and Phelan (1974) clearly show. Maslow (1970) defines these security needs in terms of stability, dependency, protection, freedom from fear, anxiety and chaos, need for structure, order and limits. When an individual feels powerless to influence their environment in direct, meaningful ways, and is locked into routine, ritualized work tasks, then opportunities and options for expanded personal development are left unmet. The self-actualization need is only met when a person is doing what she or he is individually fitted to do.

As Maslow states: "a musician must make music, an artist must paint, a poet must write, if one is to be ultimately at peace with oneself." Maslow notes that the specific form these needs take will vary greatly from person to person and notes that in one individual "it may take the form of the desire to be an ideal mother, in another it may be expressed athletically, and in still another it may be expressed in painting pictures or in inventions. At this level, individual differences are greatest." The point of this is not the choice which is made, but rather that a person have the freedom and opportunity to discover their unique self and then be able to act upon that which is individually their own.
When society socializes masses of its population into unidirectional routes, the need to actualize idiosyncratic tendencies into individual fulfillment becomes a second place elitist pastime to the first place struggle for survival. In order to be able to develop into a "true sense of selfhood" one must have the freedom of flexibility, the tolerance for creativity and the respect, recognition and support to nourish the process of becoming more and more who one uniquely is. Unfortunately, this process is often met with external resistance so that the majority of working women are still occupying the lowest paid, least powerful, and most restrictive personally need-fulfilling positions.

The major significant finding of this hypothesis was on the acceptance of aggression scale which showed that women who are not in an occupation for which their education/training prepared them were more able to accept their natural aggressiveness and anger without the need to deny that such feelings exist. It follows logically, that if one were denied access to a position which one is trained for and presumably competent to handle, then feelings of annoyance, resentment, and anger would emerge more readily in the person who is alienated from the very work role which they have already been prepared to assume. Such a finding appears quite central to the process of becoming self-actualized. As Shostrom (1977) states: "actualizing requires the expression of anger on the outside congruent with the degree of intensity felt on the inside." The ownership of feelings of anger has historically been the springboard to protest and social change. It is a very important ingredient, perhaps the
most important ingredient, in the movement toward equalization and in the right of each person to define the essence of their natures.

Research by Safilios-Rothschild (1971) and Fuchs (1970) confirm the reality that women who are dissatisfied and alienated from their work roles, are also dissatisfied and alienated from their other roles in life. Such dissatisfaction and alienation gives rise to feelings of anger. Women who have invested their energies toward the development of specific occupational aspirations, are much more likely to freely own their negative feelings when the situation is frustrating and prevents them from acquiring a position for which they have already been prepared. In addition to this, the findings of the Hall and Gordon (1973) study appear to apply to the findings of this hypothesis as well. That is, that women who actually did what they prefer doing, are more satisfied than women who found themselves in roles which did not match their preferences.

As Holland's (1966) theory of vocational development states—individuals tend to choose environments which are consistent with their personal orientations and such congruent choices are indicative of personal and vocational stability in addition to increasing levels of personal adjustment and overall personal satisfaction. Such considerations lend support to the findings of this hypothesis in that those individuals who are not implementing their vocational choices, are also experiencing increased dissatisfaction and are freely owning the feelings of anger.

In discussing the findings for Hypothesis III, the focus rested on the shortsightedness of the hypothesis itself. Clearly, to
assume one is in the best possible position to actualize their capabilities simply because their education/training matches their employment status is limiting the deeper exploration of the meaning and quality of varying work roles, and the impact this has on the need for self-actualization. In addition to this, although the significant finding on the acceptance of aggression scale was in the conversely predicted direction, it nevertheless logically supports the tenets of the process of self-actualization, namely, a nondefensive response to an alienating, frustrating and disappointing state of affairs, through acceptance of angry feelings.

Relationship between Attitudes Toward the Roles of Women and Overall Life Satisfaction

Hypothesis IV tested the relationship between sex-role attitudes and feelings of overall life satisfaction by predicting that women who obtain scores which reflect liberal attitudes will rate themselves as more satisfied with their overall lives than women who report conservative attitudes. This hypothesis was based on the findings that individuals with integrated sex-role orientations report significantly greater life satisfaction in their elderly years (Wish, 1976) and on Baruch and Barnett's (1978) research that found gratifications provided by multiple role involvements usually outweigh the conflict and stress involved in making such choices. However, the findings for this hypothesis did not substantiate the prediction, and, in fact, a very slight tendency for women with conservative attitudes to rate their overall life as more satisfying was found, although not significantly so.
Interpretation for these findings takes several directions, some of which have already been applied to other findings in this study. Once again, in line with the theory of "nonconscious ideology" or teaching the woman to know her place, Bem (1970) cites the consistency of societal reference group messages from religion, family, peers, teachers and the mass media which all convey the same old story, namely, that the role of homemaker is the most desirable role for a woman to pursue. This set of beliefs and attitudes are accepted so implicitly and unquestioningly that Bem states: "the possession of a uterus uniquely qualifies its owner for her 'natural' role."

It is interesting that our socialization process causes women who prefer to hold on to traditional beliefs about women's role in society thereby filtering out alternative possibilities, interests, talents, abilities and motivations to find their lives more satisfying than a woman who challenges these assumptions. Such a finding can be explained through society's failure to support and nurture individual choice and difference. According to Kelman (1974), a determinant of attitude consistency is the degree to which the environment is supportive and accepting of the behaviors which reflect the attitude changes. According to Korman's (1970) hypothesis, all other things being equal, individuals will engage in and find satisfying those roles which maximize their sense of cognitive consistency. Therefore, if the environment is hostile and nonaccepting, the individual who chooses to define herself in more personally relevant ways, can expect and often does experience, stress and conflict.

Such stress and conflict can act as inhibitors to continued personal definition, reinforcing the notion that the safest route
is the traditional one, where approval and acceptance are abundant. Although the Baruch and Barnett (1978) study found that multiple role involvements outweigh the conflict and stress associated with such involvement, it seems that when one evaluates their overall life satisfaction, it is those involvements which most support conservative ways that are deemed the most satisfying.

Porter's (1967) research indicates that although a woman may derive a sense of identity through her own efforts, she still experiences considerable psychological distress at the thought that she may have to give up traditional roles in order to attain realization as an individual. If her environment is disapproving, nonsupportive, and condemning of nontraditional life choices, we can expect increased levels of conflict to follow.

Findings by Powell and Reznikoff (1976) in their study of role conflict and symptoms of psychological distress in college-educated women, noted that married women find their roles more difficult and are more likely to develop symptoms of mental illness as a result of the conflict between personal needs and cultural role expectations. In addition to this, findings revealed significantly higher symptom scores by full-time employed women with doctorates compared to other full-time employed women in the same age category.

Baker (1972) found greater feelings of expressed alienation among women who advocated a redefinition of the traditional feminine role thereby supporting the psychological distress studies and the conflictual nature of the process of individualization in a culture which advocates role boundedness. Although the above interpretation
for the findings of the fourth hypothesis clearly supports the theory of conflict, tension and stress involved in making life choices contrary to learned socialized roles, other interpretations are offered to provide balance in this area.

The fact that no significant differences emerged between the two groups of women, those who are conservative in their sex-role attitudes and those who are liberal, as it pertains to their subjective appraisal of their overall life satisfaction, can in part be explained through Hall and Gordon's (1973) finding that women who actually did what they preferred doing, would be more satisfied than women who found themselves in roles which did not match their preferences. Therefore, if a woman advocates expansion of rigidly defined sex-role attitudes and her immediate environment is supportive of this redefinition, then she would be satisfied doing what it is she prefers. It is interesting to note that individual preferences appear to be dependent upon the extent to which a person's personal environment is congruent with the choices made.

As has already been noted, studies by Baruch and Barnett (1978), Gross and Arvey (1977), Axelson (1970), Orden and Bradburn (1969), and Burke and Weir (1976) all point out the significant impact that husband's attitudes have on wives' actual employment status, marital satisfaction and decision-making process. It could be speculated that for those women who advocate a liberation of present day sex-role ideology as found in this study, their personal life environments are reinforcing of their sex-role attitudes thereby resulting in a sense of satisfaction with the ways in which their lives are developing.
Conversely, the same line of thought can hold for those women who find their lives satisfying and hold traditional points of view.

Wish's (1976) study found that those individuals with integrated sex-role orientations report significantly greater life satisfaction in their elderly years. It could be that those women who are more liberal in their sex-role attitudes and who rated their lives as more satisfying, as reported in this population of women sampled, were women who combined homemaking with career patterns. As Bardwick's (1971) summarized evidence shows, middle-aged women begin to show increased dissatisfaction with the exclusive role of housewife after 10 to 15 years and Mulvey's (1963) data indicate that for women between the ages of 50 and 60, high life satisfaction is associated with a return to career after children have entered school.

As one respondent so aptly stated in the present study, "I am a college graduate, but I am finding the most rewarding job I could possibly have is raising two human beings. There is time for me to do other things later, but there will never be another time with these children." Such a response seems to clearly indicate individual choice which has the potential of successfully integrating both worlds.

The present discussion of hypothesis four relies heavily on the theory of "nonconscious ideology" which teaches a woman that the most satisfying role she can fulfill is that of homemaker and that psychological conflict and distress will result if she should choose different roles. However, it also allows for the possibility
that both choices are viable in and of themselves, if indeed a woman prefers what it is she is actually doing. The findings of this hypothesis seem to indicate an equal amount of satisfaction regardless of the sex-role orientation one espouses. One possibility for this finding could be that overall life satisfaction is independent of sex-role ideology and that in the scheme of things, the elements which make life satisfying reside in other places.

Relationship between Life Satisfaction and Self-Actualization

The final hypothesis in this study predicted that women who rate themselves as more satisfied with their overall lives would also obtain higher scores on the Personal Orientation Inventory than women who rated themselves as less satisfied with their overall lives. Maslow's theory of self-actualization rests on the premise that psychological health and personal growth develop to the extent to which an individual feels safe enough to choose new experiences, to move on, to reach out to the environment in spontaneity and wonder. Only if a person feels frustration, disapproval or ridicule will the process toward growth become stifled and the need to remain at a prolonged level of fear win out. Maslow cites the growing satisfaction which results when one makes choices which permit exploration, differentiation, and which enhance a deepened sense of self.

Although Maslow's theory has implications for a general statement of human motivation and personality development, it has particular relevance for women and the socialization process. An essential ingredient in the mechanisms which implement individual
growth is the necessity and the supportiveness of the outer environment. A supportiveness that allows for freedom of choice while at the same time preserving personal autonomy and control over those choices. Women are faced with a dilemma which is inherently threatening to self definition when the processes of socialization place greater value on choices which are traditional in nature, rather than on choices which enable a person to choose in accordance with their own natures. It must be assumed that for those women who make choices which are individualistic and particular to who they are, and who also find their lives very satisfying have a sufficient amount of personal safety and security in their immediate personal environment to allow for movement forward.

The results of the fifth hypothesis confirm the prediction that the processes which allow for the expression of growth also enable one to experience a more personally satisfying existence for eight of the 12 factors which define the quality of self-actualization. Though it appears reasonable to expect that growth is dependent upon the extent to which one's immediate personal environment is supportive and respecting of individual choice, the eight factors which have been found to be significantly differentiating between more satisfied and less satisfied women share a commonality in that they tend to be concerned with intrapersonal processes more so than with interpersonal dynamics. Therefore, while environmental support creates an atmosphere of acceptance of individual preference, it nevertheless appears that the real work of growth takes place within the individual.
In his chapter on Defense and Growth which is contained in *Toward a Psychology of Being*, Maslow makes reference to many of these same eight factors as essential ingredients of growth. To begin with, healthy individuals are found to be present centered, not preparing to live. This state of being is referred to as time-competence. It can be speculated that women who are able to come to terms with societal expectations, because they have personal environments which encourage them to do so, and their own personal aspirations in ways in which guilts, regrets and resentments are minimized while at the same time maximizing present working goals, are able to validate their lives as subjectively more satisfying than women who live primarily in the past or in the future.

The second differentiating quality on the POI was the inner-directed scale. The concept of inner-directedness defines whether reactivity orientation is toward others or toward the self. In the process of growth toward self-actualization, a person must make choices by which they go forward based upon their own subjective experiences and trust in themselves. Maslow notes that the opposite of this self trust is the opinion of others on which the person is dependent for love, approval and admiration. Therefore, the choice becomes allowing oneself to experience life in their own way or giving in to the expectations of others. If one gives up self to keep others, then growth is repressed, because security and safety are more basic needs. If, however, one is supported and encouraged to develop from a secure base, then a person will respond to their environment in accordance with their own inner being, reaching out and expressing whatever
skills one has. It should be noted that this process is not a one-time experience but rather, as Maslow states: "a never ending series of free choice situations, confronting each individual at every point throughout life" (page 47). Therefore, the finding on this particular scale appears to demonstrate that greater overall life satisfaction is experienced by those who are more inner directed and self-determining.

People who hold self-actualizing values with emphasis on growth, independence, freedom of expression, exploration of alternatives and flexibility are also found to be more satisfied with their overall lives than persons who reject these values. This finding is in line with the Podeschi and Podeschi (1973) paper which noted that women cannot expect to fulfill their own idiosyncratic tendencies through traditional means such as nurturing and caretaker roles, but rather must go on to a wider variety of experiences which allow for feelings of certainty, capability, mastery, self-trust and self-esteem. In line with this, it was also found that those individuals who are spontaneous, freely expressing their feelings, are also found to be more satisfied with their overall lives than persons who are fearful of expressing their feelings. Again, it appears that the movement toward growth requires free and uninhibited responsiveness to one's environment, assuming that the environment is tolerant of such natural expressiveness.

Under the category of Self-Perception, both self-regard and self-acceptance were found to be significantly differentiating between women who rate their lives as more satisfying as compared to women...
who rate their lives as less satisfying. It appears that women who have personal environments which are respecting and understanding of their needs to grow and are helpful in the process of implementing a sense of selfhood, nurture both feelings of self-worthiness and self-acceptance to the point of choosing experiences which are self-defined.

The final category of Synergistic Awareness which includes both the qualities of viewing man as essentially good and the ability to see opposities of life as meaningfully related, were also significant in differentiating between the two groups of women on overall life satisfaction. From these findings, it can be speculated that it is the woman who has in some way blended and balanced the dichotomized choices of home-orientedness and career-orientedness, of conservative sex-role ideology and liberal sex-role ideology into a state of beingness in which experiences are chosen for the delight that they offer and the gratifications that they provide, who is in the best possible position to experience her life as very satisfying.

Throughout the discussion of the various hypothesis, it appears that the choices women make for their lives are essentially secondary in importance to the challenge of self-discovery. To willingly accept a certain role because it is expected, without questioning the meaning and significance for one's life, is to deny the diversity of possibilities that lie within each human being—possibilities which find expression in viewing life choices as meaningfully related, as containing the potential of integration and balance, where growth is a continuing process of self-renewal.
Through this journey, the influence and impact of both the socialized environment and the personalized environment, contain the power to help or to paralyze the desire to "dare to choose the unknown" (p. 59).

Best Predictor of Overall Life Satisfaction

In order to provide an indication of the many factors which impact and influence life satisfaction for women, 21 variables, each relating to different aspects of a woman's life were included in the Satisfaction Scale. From these 21 variables, the best estimation of overall life satisfaction was derived in addition to the correlational values between each specific life satisfaction variable and overall life satisfaction. The best set of predictor variables for a total sample size of 55 women were in the areas of social environment, family life, and competency in one's work when other variables were controlled.

The variables with the highest correlational values to overall life satisfaction were quality of the relationship with partner, family life and involvement in a variety of roles—each of which emphasize social relationships and, consequently, account for variable overlap resulting in a different set of variables as the best predictors of overall life satisfaction.

Both of these findings appear to be uniquely characteristic of the women who participated in this survey since studies by Medley (1976), Haavio-Mannila (1971), and Makinen (1975) all found family satisfaction to have the highest correlation with overall life satisfaction.
satisfaction.

One possible explanation for social environment to be the best predictor variable in this study could be because 33.7% of the population sampled fell between the 18-24 year age range—a higher percentage than any other age range for this sample. These years are a time of transition when one is usually separating from their family of origin and establishing their own independence so that involvement in a social environment is more important to life satisfaction than other aspects. One would expect that as one progresses through developmental stages, which include marriage and children, a shift would naturally occur in the direction of family satisfaction becoming more important than other aspects. It is also possible that this finding is particular to those 55 women who might have had some unique characteristics in common. A further explanation could be that it reflects a shift in values causing women to seek out alternative sources of satisfaction and not rely exclusively on their families to provide their main source of life satisfaction.

For this population of women, the strongest measure of the relationship to overall life satisfaction was the quality of the relationship with the partner such that satisfaction in one area is strongly related to satisfaction in the other. The distinctness of this finding could be that other intervening variables were not included in the analysis.

In the Haavio-Mannila (1971) study, the variable of employment proved to be important in that for working wives, general family
satisfaction was more important to overall life satisfaction than the relationship to husband, whereas for home-staying wives, the opposite was true. Therefore, the importance of intervening variables such as employment status can significantly alter the degree of association between variables, and should be further explored in future research.

A possible explanation for the discrepancy between the variables having the best prediction of life satisfaction as compared to the highest correlation to life satisfaction is that satisfaction with social environment can be perceived as more important to overall life satisfaction, whereas quality of the relationship to partner can contribute to a degree of qualitative experience which might not necessarily be as important as the meaning and purpose of having a partner in one's life. If the question were worded differently and one were asked how important it was to life satisfaction to have a partner, regardless of the quality of that relationship, different findings might have emerged. As Flanagan (1978) notes, the things people consider when asked to rate their overall quality of life are not identical to the items rated as most important.

While the variables of partner's attitudes toward the work which one does and number of children left in the home both have positive correlations to overall life satisfaction, when all other variables were controlled for, these two items emerge as significant negative influencers on overall life satisfaction. This finding appears to indicate that while some aspects of these two variables are positively experienced and contribute to overall life satisfaction,
other aspects are perceived as negative. Basically, this seems to reflect a tendency toward diminishing returns such that once the positive functions have been taken care of, negative factors emerge.

One possible explanation for this phenomena could be explained through a sense of ambivalence toward these factors. That is, while having children in the home can satisfy many functions, it can also act as an inhibitor of behaviors that would limit the range of options available to women. The same kind of effect could be happening with partner's attitudes as well. As Baruch and Barnett (1978) found, a husband's actual and perceived attitude toward wife's employment is related to wife's actual employment status. Therefore, while a woman might be satisfied with her husband's attitudes toward her work as a homemaker, she might be dissatisfied with his attitudes toward work outside of the home which would account for the negative effect of this variable.

Recommendations

In the area of hypothesis construction, it is recommended that more specific variables be investigated in order to permit the possibility of significant findings between groups of women.

In Hypothesis II, the category of "paid employment" proved to be too general to allow for the influences of part-time versus full-time employment on life satisfaction. In addition to this, omitting the option of both paid employment and homemaker as a combination which impacts life satisfaction was extremely unfortunate since many more women are identifying themselves in this manner.
Hypothesis III also proved to be too generally stated to allow for the differential effects of varying occupational positions on one's ability to actualize their capabilities. It is recommended that future research in the area of women's attitudes about their changing roles explore more relevantly specific intervening variables, such as husband's influence, rather than concentrate on global issues. It seems this would increase the likelihood that significant differences will emerge, in addition to increasing available data in this area.

Recruitment of surveyors should also be handled in a different manner. Rather than publicly recruit from the university-community-at-large, attempts should have been made to identify that student population which had some expertise in the area of survey research through appropriate university departments. This occurred with this study half-way through the data collection period, when undergraduate and graduate sociology students were requested to volunteer. This would have cut down on refusal rates, time considerations and volunteer turn-over. An alternative approach would have been to recruit surveyors from neighborhoods of the census tract areas where low rates of canvassing resulted. For example, a contact with the Douglass Community Center could have resulted in the recruitment of people who lived in that area and, therefore, felt familiar and comfortable with the neighborhood. As it turned out, some census tract areas were not canvassed because the volunteers were given the option of concentrating on areas in which they felt at ease.

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Instructions to surveyors should have, from the outset, included directions which had the surveyors make sure the total packet was completed upon pickup. This oversight resulted in 28 unusable surveys. More specific data on the characteristics, attitudes and levels of self-actualization could have been obtained on residents of differing census tract areas if census tract codes were included on the questionnaire and POI answer sheets. This information could have been used to correlate socio-economic levels with the variables under investigation.

Regarding instrumentation, the Life Satisfaction Scale should be modified to include the measurement and evaluation of time dimensions such as past, present, and future in order to provide insights into the perceptions of life satisfaction and possible events which have altered or which influence aspects of life satisfaction. Such modifications would provide information on the continuity of life satisfaction, reflecting a life-cycle perspective. In addition to this, eliciting comments which could identify important here and now intervening influences on the 22 variables would have provided a more well-rounded picture of the relative importance of life events, on overall life satisfaction, as they affect women.
APPENDIX A.--Western Hearld Advertisement

WANTED

Persons to conduct
door-to-door survey
for doctoral dissertation
research in the area of
women's changing roles,
self-actualization, and
life satisfaction. You
will be paid. Call
383-7268 M W F and 343-4220
all other times.
APPENDIX B.--Questionnaire Part 1

QUESTIONNAIRE

Code No.________

PART 1 INSTRUCTIONS:

This questionnaire contains three parts. The first part contains items asking for information about your background. Please place a check mark in the space which best applies to you.

1. Your Age
   a. _______ 18-24
   b. _______ 25-34
   c. _______ 35-44
   d. _______ 45-54
   e. _______ 55-64
   f. _______ 65 and over

2. What is the highest level of education you have completed?
   a. _______ less than 8th grade
   b. _______ 8th grade
   c. _______ some high school
   d. _______ high school graduate
   e. _______ some college
   f. _______ college graduate
   g. _______ vocational training school
   h. _______ some graduate training
   i. _______ master's degree
   j. _______ doctorate degree

3. What is your marital status?
   a. _______ single
   b. _______ married
   c. _______ separated
   d. _______ divorced
   e. _______ widowed
   f. _______ living with a primary partner

4. How many children do you have?
   a. _______ none
   b. _______ 1-2
   c. _______ 3-5
   d. _______ 6-8
   e. _______ 9-11
   f. _______ 11 or more

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5. How many children do you have left living in your home?
   a. ______ none
   b. ______ 1-2
   c. ______ 3-5
   d. ______ 6-8
   e. ______ 9-11
   f. ______ 11 or more

6. What is your yearly family income?
   a. ______ less than $3,000
   b. ______ more than 3,000, but less than 6,000
   c. ______ more than 6,000, but less than 9,000
   d. ______ more than 9,000, but less than 15,000
   e. ______ more than 15,000, but less than 20,000
   f. ______ more than 20,000, but less than 25,000
   g. ______ more than 25,000

7. What do you consider your current primary occupation to be? Select only one
   a. ______ homemaker
   b. ______ paid employment/work

8. Are you currently in an occupation for which your education/training prepared you?
   a. ______ Yes
   b. ______ No

9. Please state what occupation you were educated or trained for:
   __________________________________________________
   __________________________________________________
   __________________________________________________
### APPENDIX C

**ESTIMATED CHARACTERISTICS AND COMMENTS OF WOMEN WHO REFUSED TO TAKE PART IN THE SURVEY**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>Income</th>
<th>Racial Background</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Education</th>
<th>Reasons given for refusal - quote</th>
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APPENDIX D.--Attitudes toward Women Scale (AWS)

PART 2 INSTRUCTIONS:

The statements listed below describe attitudes toward the role of women in society that different people have. There are no right or wrong answers, only opinions. You are asked to express your feelings about each statement by indicating whether you (A) AGREE STRONGLY (B) AGREE MILDLY (C) DISAGREE MILDLY OR (D) DISAGREE STRONGLY. Please indicate your own opinion by placing a check mark under the column which best describes your feelings. Please answer each item as you actually feel, not as you think you should feel.

(A) (B) (C) (D)

10. Swearing and obscenity are more disgusting in the speech of a woman than in the speech of a man. 

11. Women should take increasing responsibility for leadership in solving the intellectual and social problems of the day.

12. Both husband and wife should be allowed the same grounds for divorce.

13. Telling dirty jokes should be mostly a man's privilege.

14. Drunkenness among women is worse than drunkenness among men.

15. Under modern economic conditions, with women being active outside of the home, men should share in household chores such as washing dishes and doing the laundry.

16. It is insulting to women to have the "obey" clause remain in the marriage service.
17. There should be a strict reward system in job appointment and promotion without regard to sex.  

18. A woman should be as free as a man to propose marriage.  

19. Women should worry less about their rights and more about becoming good wives and mothers.  

20. Women earning as much as their dates, should share half of the expense when they go out together.  

21. Women should take their rightful place in business and all the professions along with men.  

22. A woman should not expect to go to exactly the same places or have quite the same freedom of action as a man.  

23. Sons in a family should be given more encouragement to go to college than daughters.  

24. It is ridiculous for a woman to run a locomotive and for a man to darn socks.  

25. In general, the father should have greater authority than the mother in the up-bringing of children.  

26. Women should be encouraged not to have sexual intercourse with anyone before marriage, even the people they are engaged to.
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<td>27. The husband should not be favored by law over the wife in the disposal of family property or income.</td>
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<td>28. Women should be concerned with their duties of childbearing and house tending, rather than with desires for professional and business careers.</td>
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<td>29. The intellectual leadership of a community should be largely in the hands of men.</td>
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<td>30. Economic and social freedom is worth far more to women than being accepted by men as the ideal feminine woman.</td>
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<td>31. On the average, women should be regarded as less able of contributing to economic production than men.</td>
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<td>32. There are many jobs in which men should be given first choice over women in being hired or promoted.</td>
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<td>33. Women should be given equal opportunity with men for apprenticeship in the various trades.</td>
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<td>34. The modern girl is entitled to the same freedom from being controlled and regulated that is given the modern boy.</td>
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APPENDIX E.--Satisfaction Scale

PART 3 INSTRUCTIONS:

This section contains items asking you to rate how satisfied you are with certain areas of your life. You are asked to express your feelings about each statement by indicating whether you are (A) EXTREMELY SATISFIED (B) VERY SATISFIED (C) SOMEWHAT SATISFIED (D) DISSATISFIED OR (E) DOES NOT APPLY. Please indicate your own feelings by placing a check mark under the column which best describes your feelings. Please answer each item as you actually feel now in your life.

FOR THE FIRST SIX QUESTIONS, PLEASE ANSWER THEM FOR THE WORK WHICH YOU CONSIDER TO BE YOUR PRIMARY OCCUPATION, THAT IS, HOMEMAKER OR PAID EMPLOYMENT OR WHATEVER IT IS YOU CONSIDER TO BE YOUR OCCUPATION.

35. How satisfied are you with the type of work which you are currently engaged in?

36. How satisfied are you with having a sense of competency in the work which you do?

37. How satisfied are you with the amount of involvement and commitment you have to your work?

38. How satisfied are you with the amount of status you get from your work?

39. How satisfied are you with your partner's attitudes toward the work which you do? (spouse, mate etc.)

40. How satisfied are you with your mother's attitudes toward the work which you do?
41. How satisfied are you with the extent to which you are involved in a variety of roles, for example, wife, student, employee, member of the community and so forth?

42. How satisfied are you with the number of children which you have?

43. How satisfied are you with your family life?

44. How satisfied are you with your educational level?

45. How satisfied are you with your overall life?

46. How satisfied are you with your ability to be economically independent?

47. How satisfied are you with the amount and types of learning opportunities which you have for personal development and self-understanding?

48. How satisfied are you with the amount and depth of involvement you have in your social environment be it friends, activities or group memberships?

49. How satisfied are you with your physical health?

50. How satisfied are you with your partner's (mate, spouse, etc.) physical health?

51. How satisfied are you with your partner's occupational level?
52. How satisfied are you with the quality of the relationship you have with your partner?

53. How satisfied are you with the quality of the relationship you have with your children?

54. How satisfied are you with the quality of the relationship you have with your friends?

55. How satisfied are you with your family income level?

56. How satisfied are you with the number of children you have left in the home?

THE END

PLEASE FEEL FREE TO COMMENT ON THIS QUESTIONNAIRE OR STUDY:


Thank you for your time and help.
APPENDIX F.--Informed Consent Agreement

Code No.__________

INFORMED CONSENT:

I agree to have this data used for research purposes only, knowing my responses will be used anonymously and my identity not revealed. I understand that at anytime I may stop taking this survey. If I have any questions, I have been notified my questions will be answered.

Initials:_____________
APPENDIX G.--Informational Sheet

DEAR SURVEY PARTICIPANT:

This packet contains the following materials:

1. One eight page questionnaire
2. One Personal Orientation Inventory booklet
3. One Personal Orientation Inventory computer answer sheet with dummy names, dates filled in to protect your anonymity.
4. One number 2 pencil to be used with the computer answer sheet.
5. A informed consent statement asking for your initials to verify to school officials that you are a willing volunteer.

All materials are confidential and under no circumstances will you be asked your name. This research project is being conducted only in the City of Kalamazoo and only with females over the age of 18, specifically to fulfill my doctoral dissertation for the Counseling and Personnel Department at Western Michigan University. If you wish to verify this, you may contact Dr. Thelma Urbick at 383-1975. If you have any questions about the test items please feel free to call me at 383-7268 or 343-4220.

The Personal Orientation Inventory is a test consisting of 150 questions. Complete directions are given on the front of the booklet. This test measures a variety of different feelings you have on different areas of your life. Please do not bend or tear the computer answer sheet in any way since it will not be possible to score it. Thank you for your time and assistance in this project. I will return to pick-up the completed packet in one week's time.

Sincerely,

Mary Ann Vigilanti
Doctoral Student, W.M.U.
APPENDIX H.—Original Questionnaire—Pilot Study

QUESTIONNAIRE

PART 1 INSTRUCTIONS:

This questionnaire contains three parts. The first part contains items asking for information about your background. Please place a check mark in the space which best applies to you.

1. Your Age
   a. ______ 18-24
   b. ______ 25-34
   c. ______ 35-44
   d. ______ 45-54
   e. ______ 55-64
   f. ______ 65 and over

2. What is the highest level of education you have completed?
   a. ______ less than 8th grade
   b. ______ 8th grade
   c. ______ some high school
   d. ______ high school graduate
   e. ______ some college
   f. ______ college graduate
   g. ______ vocational training school
   h. ______ some graduate training
   i. ______ master's degree
   j. ______ doctorate degree

3. What is your marital status?
   a. ______ single
   b. ______ married
   c. ______ separated
   d. ______ divorced
   e. ______ divorced single parent
   f. ______ widowed
   g. ______ other

4. How many children do you have?
   a. ______ 0-2
   b. ______ 3-5
   c. ______ 6-8
   d. ______ 9-11
   e. ______ 11 or more

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5. How many children do you have left in the home?
   a. 0-2
   b. 3-5
   c. 6-8
   d. 9-11
   e. 11 or more

6. What is your yearly family income?
   a. less than $3,000
   b. more than $3,000, but less than 6,000
   c. more than $6,000, but less than 9,000
   d. more than $9,000, but less than 15,000
   e. more than $15,000, but less than 20,000
   f. more than $20,000, but less than 25,000
   g. more than $25,000

7. What is your current PRIMARY occupation?
   a. homemaker
   b. clerical worker
   c. health related field
   d. educational related field
   e. factory work
   f. business
   g. sales
   h. professional/administrative
   i. service worker
   j. student
   k. unemployed/laid off

8. If you are currently in paid employment is this:
   a. full time position
   b. part time position
   c. main source of income
   d. supplemental income
   e. a job
   f. a career

9. If you are NOT currently in paid employment, do you consider your primary work role to be:
   a. work in the home
   b. school work
   c. volunteer work
   d. other
THE FOLLOWING TWO QUESTIONS APPLY ONLY IF YOU ARE CURRENTLY MARRIED WITH A HUSBAND. IF THIS DOES NOT APPLY TO YOU, PLEASE CONTINUE ON TO PART 2 OF THIS QUESTIONNAIRE. THANK YOU.

10. What is the highest level of education your husband has completed?
   a. ______ less than 8th grade
   b. ______ 8th grade
   c. ______ some high school
   d. ______ high school graduate
   e. ______ some college
   f. ______ college graduate
   g. ______ vocational training school
   h. ______ some graduate training
   i. ______ master's degree
   j. ______ doctorate degree

11. What is your husband's PRIMARY current occupation?
   a. ______ homemaker
   b. ______ clerical work
   c. ______ health related field
   d. ______ educational related field
   e. ______ factory work
   f. ______ businessman
   g. ______ professional/administrative
   h. ______ sales
   i. ______ service work
   j. ______ student
   k. ______ unemployed/laid off
   l. ______ other

PART 2 INSTRUCTIONS:

The statements listed below describe attitudes toward the role of women in society that different people have. There are no right or wrong answers, only opinions. You are asked to express your feelings about each statement by indicating whether you (A) AGREE STRONGLY, (B) AGREE MILDLY, (C) DISAGREE MILDLY, OR (D) DISAGREE STRONGLY. Please indicate your own opinion by placing a check mark under the column which best describes your feelings. Please answer each item as you actually feel, not as you think you should feel.

12. Swearing and obscenity are more disgusting in the speech of a woman than in the speech of a man?

   Agree Strongly (A)
   Agree Mildly (B)
   Disagree Mildly (C)
   Disagree Strongly (D)

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13. Women should take increasing responsibility for leadership in solving the intellectual and social problems of the day.

14. Both husband and wife should be allowed the same grounds for divorce.

15. Telling dirty jokes should be mostly a man's privilege.

16. Drunkenness among women is worse than drunkenness among men.

17. Under modern economic conditions, with women being active outside of the home; men should share in household chores such as washing dishes and doing the laundry.

18. It is insulting to women to have the "obey" clause remain in the marriage service.

19. There should be a strict reward system in job appointment and promotion without regard to sex.

20. A woman should be as free as a man to propose marriage.

21. Women should worry less about their rights and more about becoming good wives and mothers.

22. Women earning as much as their dates, should share half of the expense when they go out together.

23. Women should take their rightful place in business and all the professions along with men.
24. A woman should not expect to go to exactly the same places or have quite the same freedom of action as a man.

25. Sons in a family should not be given more encouragement to go to college than daughters.

26. It is ridiculous for a woman to run a locomotive and for a man to darn socks.

27. In general, the father should have greater authority than the mother in the up-bringing of children.

28. Women should be encouraged not to have sexual intercourse with anyone before marriage, even the people they are engaged to.

29. The husband should not be favored by law over the wife in the disposal of family property or income.

30. Women should be concerned with their duties of childbearing and house tending, rather than with desires for professional and business careers.

31. The intellectual leadership of a community should be largely in the hands of men.

32. Economic and social freedom is worth far more to women than being accepted by men as the ideal feminine woman.

33. On the average, women should be regarded as less able of contributing to economic production than man.
34. There are many jobs in which men should be given first choice over women in being hired or promoted.

35. Women should be given equal opportunity with men for apprenticeship in the various trades.

36. The modern girl is entitled to the same freedom from being controlled and regulated that is given the modern boy.

PART 3 INSTRUCTIONS:

This section contains items asking you to rate how satisfied you are with certain areas of your life. You are asked to express your feelings about each statement by indicating whether you are (A) VERY SATISFIED, (B) SOMewhat SATISFIED, (C) UNDECIDED, (D) SOMewhat DISSATISFIED, (E) VERY DISSATISFIED, AND (F) DOES NOT APPLY. Please indicate your own feelings by placing a check mark under the column which best describes your feelings. Please answer each item as you actually feel now in your life.

FOR THE FIRST SIX QUESTIONS ONLY:

Please answer these first SIX questions for paid employment. However, if you are not in paid employment of any sort, then please answer them for the work which you do most of the time, that is, the work which you are primarily involved with. That can be work in the home, volunteer work, school work, etc.

37. How satisfied are you with the type of work which you are currently engaged in?
38. How satisfied are you with having a sense of competency in the work which you do?

39. How satisfied are you with the amount of involvement and commitment you have to your work?

40. How satisfied are you with the amount of status you get from your work?

41. How satisfied are you with your husband's attitudes toward the work which you do?

42. How satisfied are you with your mother's attitudes toward the work which you do?

43. How satisfied are you with the extent to which you are involved in a variety of roles, for example, wife, student, employee, member of the community and so forth?

44. How satisfied are you with the number of children you have?

45. How satisfied are you with your family life?

46. How satisfied are you with your educational level?

47. How satisfied are you with your overall life?

48. How satisfied are you with your ability to be economically independent?

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<th>Very Satisfied (A)</th>
<th>Somewhat Satisfied (B)</th>
<th>Undecided (C)</th>
<th>Somewhat Dissatisfied (D)</th>
<th>Very Dissatisfied (E)</th>
<th>Does Not Apply (F)</th>
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<td>49. How satisfied are you with the amount and types of learning opportunities which you have for personal development and self-understanding?</td>
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<td>50. How satisfied are you with the amount and depth of involvement you have in your social environment be it friends, activities, or group memberships?</td>
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<td>51. How satisfied are you with your physical health?</td>
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<td>52. How satisfied are you with your husband's physical health?</td>
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<td>53. How satisfied are you with your husband's occupational level?</td>
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<td>54. How satisfied are you with the quality of the relationship you have with your husband?</td>
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<td>55. How satisfied are you with the quality of the relationship you have with your children?</td>
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<td>56. How satisfied are you with the quality of the relationship you have with your friends?</td>
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<td>58. How satisfied are you with the number of children you have left in the home?</td>
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This completes the questionnaire portion of the survey. Please continue on to the Personal Orientation Inventory, if you have not yet done so. Please use the special computer answer sheet provided. If you would like to comment on any portion of this questionnaire please feel to do so below. Thank you for your time and help.

COMMENTS:
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