

RELATIONSHIP OF IN-COLLEGE PERSONALITY WITH
AFTER-COLLEGE EMPLOYMENT ORIENTATION

by

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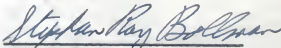
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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	ii
LIST OF TABLES	v
Chapter	
I. INTRODUCTION	1
Importance of Study	
The Problem	
Objectives and Hypothesis	
Procedure	
II. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK	7
Proposition	
Personality in Perspective	
Implications of Personality for College Women's	
Employment	
Major Hypotheses	
III. PROCEDURES AND METHOD	26
Source and Collection of Data	
Operational Definitions	
Methods of Data Analysis	
Limitations	
IV. FINDINGS	43
Relationship of Selected Factors with Employment	
Orientation	
Relationship of Findings to Middle and General	
Level Concepts	
Additional Findings	
V. DISCUSSION	71
Discussion of Correlation Findings	
Possible Reasons for Findings	
Suggestions for Further Research	
VI. SUMMARY	79

REFERENCES	83
APPENDIX A—EMPIRICAL MEASURES OF EMPLOYMENT	86
APPENDIX B—CORRELATIONS OF 1966 QUESTIONNAIRE WITH EMPLOYMENT	89
APPENDIX C—CORRELATIONS OF ITEMS WITH AFTER-COLLEGE EMPLOYMENT ORIENTATION	93

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Year of Matriculation of Subjects	6
2. Honors and Controls by Years of Matriculation	28
3. College Data	28
4. 1966 Follow-up Study Data	29
5. Parents' Educational Level	30
6. Occupations of Fathers	31
7. Marital Status of Respondents	31
8. Income Level of Husbands of Subjects	32
9. Size of Communities Where Subjects Reside	33
10. Size of Communities Where Original 87 Subjects Grew Up	33
11. Employment Orientation of Subjects as Measured by Times in Life Cycle Subjects Expect to Work	34
12. Job Aspirations of Subjects Planning to Work in Future	34
13. Rationale Given for Future Work Plans of Subjects	35
14. Item With Times When Expect To Work	90
15. Correlations of Items With After-College Employment Orientation	94

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The modern college educated woman has been selected as an area of study by sociologists, psychologists, and family relations specialists. She has been the focus of federal government programs. Much concern has been generated concerning her involvement in the business world and the relationship of this involvement with her children, husband, and the society in general. Some members of the populace have felt that if a woman is educated she owes it to society to be actively engaged in some worthwhile employment outside the home. Others have attributed multiple crisis to feminine employment; some envision feminine employment as the root of juvenile delinquency, divorce, and even decay within our society. Torn between these conflicting opinions, the educated woman may feel guilt about her position whether she is employed or not.

Regardless of guilt feelings, many educated women may be employed in the future due to their strong interests and needs which may be fulfilled in a professional position. Simpson and Simpson (1961) noted that sixteen or more years are spent in educating and awakening the same interests in both sexes; however, society condones the housewife role while questioning the appropriateness of the career role for which the woman was prepared. Thus, women having strong orientation toward employment must have unusually potent reasons. The study by Simpson and Simpson (1961) supported the following generalization:

. . . , that women who intend to pursue work careers through all or most of their lives have reached this decision because a rather special constellation of values and influences have been operative. Their occupational values and sources of influence to whom they listen when making occupational decisions mark them off rather sharply from the more numerous group of women, even college women, whose values are the middle-class security and conformity and whose personal guides and models lead them into the more common feminine role, that of full-time housewife and mother (p. 377).

The research of this thesis is concerned with delineating which values and which characteristics of self-concept are related to strong employment orientation.

Importance of Study

The conflict concerning the place of women in the business world has not kept the number of women employed from rising. One study indicated that 33 per cent of all women were working; a third of all married women and half of the group of women over 40 years of age were reported as employed outside the home (Columbia University Symposium, 1958). The rate of employment increase from 1948 to 1960 was 116 per cent for mothers of school-age children and 108 per cent for mothers of preschool children (Nye and Hoffman, 1963).

Ginzberg (1966) cited six reasons for today's woman being able to step into the business world in a way her mother could not have. Foremost among these reasons is the development of jobs suitable to the feminine individual's physical strengths and aptitudes. Another factor is the expansion of secondary and college education opportunities. Increased educational opportunities have given stimulus to employment. The need for trained employees during and after World War II helped to eliminate prejudice against women as wage-earners. Among other reasons given by

Ginzberg for more employment of women were birth control and technological advances. Medical science has aided the woman in her quest for a place among the employed by making it possible for her to decide on the size and spacing of her family. She is living longer and spending less time raising her family. In addition, the time-consuming and physically exhausting tasks involved in homemaking have diminished with the advent of vacuum cleaners, dish washers, washers, dryers, and similar devices.

Nye and Hoffman (1963) pointed out that contrary to popular stereotype, married women living with husbands are not usually employed because of a need for their income as a principal means of support. They group working mothers into:

- (a) those to whom employment gives opportunity to use their individual talents and vocational training, and
- (b) those women who are least likely to experience major conflicts in their responsibilities toward their children or to receive negative reactions from their husbands (p. 10).

An important question arises as to how these groups delineated by Nye and Hoffman (1963) may be affected by the woman's personality and how she perceives and deals with her environment. Studies done by Hoyt and Kennedy (1958) and Wagman (1967) on freshman college women indicated significant differences in personality and values of employment oriented women versus homemaking oriented women. These differences may cause an individual to gain training or perhaps to choose a particular kind of husband who would act more or less positively towards feminine employment.

The aim of this research was to build a rationale for the hypothesis that personality is related to employment. Data gleaned from this study about the relationship between freshmen women's personality and freshmen women's perception of their own after-college employment will be

compared with relevant data from the Hoyt and Kennedy (1958) and Wagman (1967) studies. The relationship between in-college personality and after-college employment orientation will be tested. If significant relationships can be found between these variables, then more appropriate counseling can be given to employment oriented women while they are in college.

The Problem

Personality while in college is assumed for this research to be an important factor in determining at which of her life cycle stages a woman will seek employment. A relationship between projected employment and in-college personality has been ascertained (Hoyt and Kennedy, 1958; Wagman, 1967). However, no study was found which related in-college employment orientation to after-college employment orientation nor was a study found linking in-college personality with after-college employment orientation.

Two concepts related to employment will be focused upon in this research. The first concept is that of the self; the second is the individual's values.

Objectives and Hypothesis

The purpose of this research was to study the relationship between women's in-college personality (as measured by their self concepts and values) and after-college employment orientation. The purpose is reflected in the following objectives:

- 1) To establish a conceptual framework for studying the relationship of a woman's personality to her employment.

- 2) To establish a rationale for empirical measures of the relevant concepts.
- 3) To test by statistical analysis the relationship of the empirical measures of the major concept with the empirical measures of a woman's after-college employment orientation.
- 4) To determine whether freshman or junior scores are better predictors of after-college employment orientation.

At a general level the hypotheses to be tested are:

- 1) In-college self concept is related to after-college employment orientation.
- 2) In-college values are related to after-college employment orientation.

Procedure

The subjects for this research were women who participated in a longitudinal research project initiated by the College of Home Economics at Kansas State University in the fall of 1958. The research was stimulated by a desire to study participants in the Honors Program of the College of Home Economics. Honors students were those whose ACT scores were in the top ten per cent of the distribution for the particular freshman class of which they were a part. Nonhonors girls were matched to honors girls in terms of size of home town, size of high school, and socioeconomic level of family. Nonhonors scored lower than the 90th percentile on the freshman scholastic aptitude test (Kell and Kennedy, 1966).

The design chosen for the Honors Research Project included a battery of tests administered during the freshman and junior years. Selected tests and a questionnaire were administered again during the period of 1966-67. The number of subjects are shown in Table 1 by their year of matriculation.

TABLE 1
YEAR OF MATRICULATION OF SUBJECTS

Year	Frequency	Per cent
1958	23	27.7
1959	11	13.3
1960	27	32.5
1961	22	26.5
Total	83	100.0

Not all data collected during the ten year period of this study was pertinent to the research of this thesis. Chosen from the available data were two standardized tests and two measures of employment orientation. The California Psychological Inventory¹ (Gough, 1964), given in freshman and junior years, was chosen as a measure of self concept. The Alport Vernon Lindzey Scale of Values² (Alport, Vernon, and Lindzey, 1951), also given during freshman and junior years, was chosen to determine important values. The measure of employment orientation while in college was one locally devised and used previously by Hoyt-Kennedy (1958) and Wagman (1967). After-college employment orientation was ascertained by a question referring to life cycle stages that the women might choose to work. After-college employment orientation was measured in 1966-67.

¹The California Psychological Inventory will hereafter be referred to as the CPI.

²The Alport Vernon Lindzey Study of Values will hereafter be referred to as the AVL.

CHAPTER II

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

In this chapter a conceptual framework will be presented for identifying in-college concepts related to after-college employment orientation. A number of conceptual frameworks are suitable for such a study, including anthropological, developmental, self, situational, sociological, structure-functional, and symbolic interaction. Studies have been done on women's employment using structural functional frameworks and focusing on roles and role expectation (Empey, 1958; Podell, 1966; Falk, 1966). However, an eclectic framework based on developmental and self theories was chosen for the research of this thesis. This approach has the advantage of focusing on the individual as he interacts and controls his life rather than on the individual's immediate social role or situation. A picture of unique individuals choosing employment due to individual needs and with reference to how the individual perceives his environment will be developed.

The four major headings of this chapter are (1) Propositions, (2) Personality, (3) Implications of Personality for Employment Orientation of College Educated Women, and (4) Major Hypotheses. The first section will contain the three major assumptions of this study. Those concepts of personality which are the rationale for the given assumptions and those concepts important to the development of career orientation will be presented in the second section. Integration of these concepts of

personality with research done on career orientation of women, along with further development of the major premise, will be presented in the section on implications. In the conclusion section, the major hypotheses will be stated.

Propositions

The major proposition of this framework is that the employment orientation of a college educated woman is related to her personality. Employment orientation is defined as a given woman's propensity to work during the various stages of her life cycle. It is assumed that women working at all times have the most highly developed employment orientation. The specific focus of the study will be on the relationship between in-college personality scores of college educated women and their employment orientation scores after leaving college.

The initial assumption was that the personality of an individual is relatively persistent and stable. The personality develops in a consistent and patterned way. Although personality is not static, it is predictable.

A second assumption was that personality gives rise to specific derived needs³ within the individual. Personality is influential in determining what the individual feels is essential to his well being. It is assumed that the needs of college educated women differ from those of

³Needs may be divided into those that are essential to maintain a minimum level of life, i.e., food, water, and shelter, and those which are derived from the cultural setting (secondary needs), i.e., a certain kind or level of food, kinds of esteem, kinds of shelter, and so forth. Unless otherwise specified, needs in this paper are derived.

other women or men.

The third assumption was that personality is a prime motivator. Needs are seen as being motivating in nature. Thus one acts to fulfill those needs which he perceives to be essential. Since needs are relative to personality (as is perception relative to the individual), personality is seen as a prime motivator.

Personality

Jersild (1960) defined personality as the properties of the individual which make him a distinct, unique human being. He pointed to an inner dimension of personality which included drives, ideas, attitudes, awareness of self, and unconscious motivations. The outer dimension included such measurable characteristics as physique, talents, abilities, and qualities of temperament or disposition.

Hurlock (1964) perceived personality in terms of a concept of self and individual traits. The concept of self is seen as the core of the individual's personality. The individual traits are seen as "spokes" radiating from the core. Hurlock's model presents a strong interrelationship between the individual's self concept and his individual personality traits. This model with its focus on the inner dimensions of personality rather than the outer dimensions is most consistent with the aim of this research.

Self

The self concept as seen by Hurlock (1964) is a composite of the individual's thoughts and feelings about himself, the person's awareness of his own existence, and "his conception of who and what he is." The

concepts of self are seen as developing into a hierarchy. The first and most basic concept of self is formed within the family. Secondary concepts of self are formed outside the home and family. These concepts may be either favorable or unfavorable and will vary in degree of importance in the general concept of self.

Combs and Snygg (1959) defined the phenomenal self as all the different ways the individual can see himself and the organization of these perceptions. Combs and Snygg differentiated phenomenal self from self concept by defining self concept as only those perceptions which are most vital and important to the individual.

The similarity of Hurlock's and Combs and Snygg definitions lie in the fact that they both see one part of the self as being primary to the individual while another part is less personal. Combs and Snygg called this primary part of the self the self concept; while Hurlock referred to the total structure as the self concept, but saw a hierarchy of importance within the structure. In this thesis self and self concept will be used interchangeably.

Development of Self

The beginnings of self are in the process of differentiation from the general and toward the specific that occurs during infancy (Dinkmeyer, 1965). This occurs through interactions of the child with significant people in his environment. Dinkmeyer (1960, p. 193) stated "Early roots of self begin as the child first distinguishes between his sensations and factors bringing them about." Jersild (1960) cited the early infancy period in which the child is able to see himself as more than a part of his mother as a step toward the development of self. Further development

takes place as the child is able to differentiate significant others in his environment and see how these others relate to him. Self develops as the individual explores his environment and person to test the limits of his reach and the boundaries of his world (Jersild, 1960).

What is there about exploration and interaction which builds the self? Hurlock (1964, p. 707) stated that "The child's concept of himself as a person is a mirror image of what he believes significant people in his life think of him." Thus, these explorations and interactions can be seen as ways for the child to see himself more fully, they are his mirror and will continue to influence him throughout his life span. Combs and Snugg (1959) warned significance lies in the child's perceptions of these interactions, not the interactions themselves.

Ideal Self

The self may be seen as divided into that image which one has of himself and that image which one would like to have of himself. Thus, the ideal self is what the individual aspires to be or believes he ought to be. Usually there is some discrepancy between the self as it is seen in actuality by the individual and the self that is the ideal. A person may say that he should never lose his temper and yet admit that he does frequently lose his temper (Jersild, p. 123).

Hurlock (1964) stated that the child combines qualities of parents and outsiders to build a "composite picture of the ideal self." Thus, the ideal self represents the values of the individual's culture which appeal to him most. These values serve as a model for his behavior.

Culture may influence those people who have ideal self concepts which are in conflict with society as well as those in agreement with

society. The gangster who sees his ideal self as having qualities of Al Capone does not exhibit cultural values in his philosophy, but he may well have chosen this ideal as a result of rebelling against his culture or this behavior may be the only way he can obtain goals that are essential to survival in the culture. Another possibility is that within the individual's subculture such qualities as those of Al Capone have been valued.

Combs and Snygg (1959) pointed out that the ideal self seldom causes any changes in behavior of the individual. The individual may recognize what he "should" become, but frequently this does not change his behavior.

Persistence of Self

Although conflicts exist between various individuals as to the components of self, many (Lecky, 1945; Combs, 1959; Jersild, 1960; Hurlock, 1964) have found that the self is quite persistent. Jersild (1960, p. 124) pointed out that "while still in the process of making new discoveries concerning his properties as an individual, the growing child has a strong tendency to preserve ideas and attitudes he has already formed." The child tries to be consistent with himself, it is difficult for him to grasp anything that is inconsistent with his picture of himself.

The self concept as the core of the phenomenological self represents the individual's fundamental frame of reference, his "anchor to reality" (Combs and Snygg, 1959). Further, since the individual has a need to maintain his "anchor," he imposes a selective effect on how he perceives his environment. This selectivity reinforces the already existent self.

Hurlock (1964) pointed to a greater persistence of self concept

than any other individual personality traits. The self concept acts as a center of gravity of personality pattern maintaining the balance of traits in the pattern and lending itself to stability.

Self Needs

Another way of looking at development of self is through Maslow's theory of needs. This theory points toward self-actualization as the highest level of need gratification. Other needs noted by Maslow (1954) include: (1) physiological, (2) safety, (3) love, and (4) esteem. These needs are recognized as lower levels of the hierarchy which includes self-actualization.

Needs at the higher level become more apparent as those at the lower level are met (Maslow, 1962). For instance, a very hungry man may not care at all for his safety, but rather venture into unsafe places should he see prospects of food. Once he is able to satisfy his hunger, he may feel it is foolhardy to venture into the wilds. The individual who is safe and full has time to seek out love and affection. Once love is assured, the individual may feel the need for a rise in his esteem outside the primary groups. The individual who has fulfilled the four more basic needs will reach his peak in seeking self-actualization. Self-actualization is defined by Maslow (1962) as the "desire to become more and more what one is, to become everything one is capable of becoming."

Although a relationship may exist between the two lower level needs and self concept, it is more difficult to delineate than the relationship between self concept and those needs such as love, esteem and self-actualization. The person who is loved has a different picture of himself than the person who has never experienced love. If a person's

mirror reflects love from his significant others, then he is more able to value himself and develop a positive self concept. A person secure in self concept is more able to have healthy loving relationships with others.

Esteem needs are divided into those concerned with desire for strength and freedom, and those concerned with reputation or prestige (Maslow, 1962). The extent of the individual's esteem needs may be dependent on the individual's self concept and his values. How these needs may be met is also attendant on the self concept and values. The child who is secure in his ability to do well in school is less likely to misbehave in order to gain esteem among his peers; he is able to meet his esteem needs by achieving good grades in school and being successful on the playground.

Maslow (1962) cited thirteen characteristics of self-actualizing people; among these are superior perception of reality, increased acceptance of self, increased acceptance of others and of nature, increase in spontaneity, increase in problem-centering, and so forth. These characteristics are dependent on a positive self picture; a picture which is realistic in viewing the individual's limitations, but secure in the individual's ability to live successfully. The individual values himself and others and has come to terms with many of his conflicting value judgments. Self-actualizing people are doers, but they need not be doctors, lawyers, or professional people. Self-actualizing people find joy in being everything from painters to fishermen. Maslow pointed to motherhood as another possible role for self-actualization.

The fulfillment of any need is relative to the individual and to

the extent of the need. Maslow (1962) pointed out that partial fulfillment may satisfy the individual enough for him to go to a higher level of need. Thus, partial gratification of one need may be enough to motivate behavior appropriate to another need. Needs are motivators of behavior and determiners of goals (Maslow, 1954).

Influence of Self Concept

The self concept can be seen as the influence of behavior and the influencer of types of adjustments made. Hurlock (1964) made the following statement:

Because the self concept is the core of the personality pattern and, as such, influences the quality of the child's behavior, it plays a major role of significance in determining the type of adjustments the child will make (p. 710).

Two elements of self concept which are important to its total influence are stability versus instability, positiveness versus negativeness.

A stable self concept is seen as one where there is continuity between primary selves and secondary selves. Thus, one would expect that the stable self is equally suitable for a variety of social situations. A stable self concept is seen as one where there is similarity between the real self and the ideal self. When the self concept is stable, the individual is far better able to adjust to his environment (Hurlock, 1964).

A positive self concept is necessary if the individual is to have the ability to see himself realistically with little compensatory behavior of a defensive sort such as shyness and withdrawal (Hurlock, 1964). Also important to self concept are self confidence, a high level of self-esteem and few feelings of inferiority or inadequacy. When the person lacks a positive self concept, he will find it difficult to adjust to

everyday life; he becomes defensive. Baldwin (1967) pointed out that defense mechanism are seen by some researchers as a way of life for people. Thus, the individual may be defensive in all situations, rather than using such mechanisms to help him through a difficult or dangerous situation.

In comparing children with unstable or low self concepts to other children, Hurlock (1964) made this observation:

At times of stress, such as adjustment to school or to death or divorce of the parents, the child with an unstable self-concept or a stable self-concept composed mainly of negative concepts will experience greater emotional reactions and make poorer adjustments than the child whose self-concept is composed mainly of positive concepts (p. 711).

Persons with unstable or negative self concepts have fewer alternative ways of adjusting. Their lives offer fewer alternatives because of their more limited and defensive perceptions.

Influence of Values

Values have not been discussed as a separate part of personality, but rather in relationship to self concept. Values may be abstractly discussed when they belong to others, but as Hurlock (1964, p. 500) pointed out "Values are concepts heavily weighted with emotions." Christensen (1964) stated that:

Values are the mental and emotional sets which aid persons in judging the relative worth or importance of things, ideas, or events. They are more action-oriented than are beliefs. . . . In decision-making theory, values, simply stated, are the criteria one uses for choosing among alternatives (p. 969).

Obviously what the individual values affects not only his self concept including his ideal self, but also affects his perception of other physical and sociological phenomena. The individual's values determine which of a number of courses which are consistent with his self concept

he will choose to follow. Thus, values and self concept interact in everyday life.

Child rearing practices are influenced by current social values and they in turn affect both the self concept and the values (the personality) of the next generation. The parents' values become part of the mirror in which the child sees himself; these same values become part of the structure which is used to make decisions about behavioral traits which are appropriate. The child whose parents do not place much value on human life and do not place much value on children may develop a very negative self concept as well as carrying his parents' values about people into his life. The child who is loved and sees others loved may value human life.

The adult in our society is constantly asked to make value judgments. He must choose which activities are most important in his life. He must decide if his personal values should take precedence over those of other people or over those of "society." As he makes these value judgments, others are using their values to judge him. Many will feel that he is as he does. Thus, to the extent that his values cause him to act, his values are him.

Implications of Personality For College

Women's Employment Orientation

The relationship between employment and personality has been recognized for some time by such people as Super and his Associates (1957, 1963, etc.), Tiedeman and O'Hara (1961, 1962, 1963), Holland and Associates (1959, 1962, 1964, etc.) and Anne Roe (1956, 1964, 1966). The

relationship has been operationally tested in terms of such vocational tests as the Strong Vocational Interest Blank (Layton, 1965) and the Kuder Preference Record (Campbell, 1965). Differences related to sex and employment have been recognized too as evidenced by the separate blanks for men and women provided by the Strong Vocational Interest Blank. Carkhuff and others (1967) point to a need for integration of the information now available into a theory of vocational choice.

None of these researchers have mentioned the most basic choice of all. That choice being "to work or not to work." At this time in our society there are very few persons having this choice (some speculate that at a later date, many more will have this choice). Presently the largest group having this prerogative is that of educated married women. In spite of this fact, little has been done to work with this variable of women's employment orientation. The following is a discussion of how the author sees the previously developed personality concepts interacting with this variable of women's employment.

Importance of Persistence of Self

The persistence of the self concept over the period of the individual's life makes it the single best predictor of the individual's future behavior. Combs and Snygg (1959) stated:

Psychologists, for example, frequently find the self concept a useful construct for studying individuals, because it represents the most stable, important, and characteristic self perceptions of the individual. The self concept can be used as a convenient approximation of the personality of his subject. In this way the psychologist is able to achieve an amazingly accurate prediction of an individual's behavior in a wide variety of settings (pp. 127-128).

Though the individual's social roles may change throughout his life, his self concept will remain relatively stable. For example, the young

mother's self concept is consistent with the concept she had of herself while attending college. If the young woman was very socially inclined and very outgoing during her college years, she will most probably be very socially inclined and outgoing during the years she is a wife and mother. The change will not be in the self concept, or personality, but in the mode that the individual uses to meet her needs for social activities.

Hoyt and Kennedy (1958) and Wagman (1967) found significant relationships between freshmen women's personality and their perceptions of their post-college employment at various life cycle stages. Assuming that self concept is an approximation of personality and is persistent as indicated by Combs and Snygg (1959) and others, then a relationship should exist between in-college personality and a woman's perception of employment several years after leaving college. If this relationship does exist, then prediction of after-college employment orientation could be made if in-college personality was ascertained. In short, the importance of the persistence of self concept lies in the fact that (1) it is an approximation of personality which has stability, thus, in-college personality will be similar to after-college personality; and (2) it makes possible prediction of the individual's future behavior when a relationship exists between personality and employment orientation, then knowledge of in-college personality makes available information useful in predicting after-college employment orientation.

Ideal Self, Stability, and Employment

Although the ideal self may not be effective in changing behavior, it is used to gauge the relative worth of behavior. A woman forced to remain at home may tend to feel useless if "ideally" she values work for

herself. The reverse pattern may be even more true for the individual in our society. Nye and Hoffman (1963) pointed out that some women have personality patterns suited to employment, they should go to work to meet their needs. A society such as ours which values the woman's place in the home may handicap this woman because what she is as a person is not consistent with the ideal self that has been developed in her. She may reflect the bias of our culture by not accepting work as a legitimate aim for women.

If such a woman should seek employment while remaining convinced that it is "unlady-like" and undesirable (while employment is still in conflict with her ideal self), she may create other kinds of conflict. She will be forced to create a gap between her primary and secondary selves. Creating such a gap is detrimental to the stability of self and thus to the adjustment of the individual.

Needs and Employment Orientation

The film, THE MODERN WOMAN: AN UNEASY LIFE (Indiana University, 1968), indicates a growing number of women who have highly affluent husbands, satisfactory marriage relationships, children, and other benefits of upper middle class living, who are unsatisfied with their life styles. These women seem to find a certain fulfillment of needs in part-time or full-time employment outside the home. They express a need for employment and attendant benefits.

Landis (1965) supported the idea that women are employed because of satisfaction associated with employment rather than economic reasons. He stated that usually as much as 40 per cent of women's earnings go for taxes and additional amounts go for child care, extra clothing needed for

employment, transportation, and so forth. Employment offered opportunities to use skills and capacities, make social contacts, have their hair done, and offered a sense of work satisfaction.

Work brings status and independence (Columbia University Symposium, 1958). It meets those needs for esteem which may not always be met within the home. College women might be especially prone to this lack of fulfillment within the home because of many years of rewards associated with competition outside the home (Hoeflin, 1965; Simpson and Simpson, 1961). In some women, the need for esteem can be fulfilled within the home, perhaps through identification with husband or children, but in others there is a need for freedom and prestige of one's own (Nye and Hoffman, 1963).

A woman who meets her prestige or esteem needs through husband or children may still be employment orientated because of a need for self-actualization. Motherhood and its satisfactions are a passing cycle in a woman's life. Women must come to terms with self-actualization again after motherhood ceases to fulfill this need. Being a wife is no longer the full time task that it used to be due to our age of technological advancement (Ginzberg, 1966).

Some women may never meet their self-actualization needs through the roles of wife and mother. The home and family may meet their needs for love and nurturance, but they may still feel that they are not using their full potential and realizing their talents. They may feel these talents may be better utilized outside the home, while someone else might fulfill their positions within the home just as adequately (Hoffman, 1963; Hoeflin, 1965).

Risch (1967) pointed to the significance of Super's framework for

employment:

Super suggested that vocational choice is a process of seeking to implement a concept of oneself. To the extent that an individual is able to perform a role which is appropriate to his self concept, the individual achieves self-actualization (p. 2).

Self-actualization is seen as relative to self concept. Both are seen in respect to vocational choice.

Meir et al. (1967) in a study of vocational persistence of women dentists found that a number of needs interacted to keep women in the work field. This study tested a sample of 288 women over 50 years of age who had stayed employed for most of their life cycles on the following variables: (1) instrumentality versus expressivity, (2) intrinsic versus extrinsic needs, and (3) achievement orientation versus ascription orientation. Intrinsic needs and instrumentality yielded a multiple correlation of .547. Achievement orientation did not appear significant in this study. Meir et al. concluded:

It seems reasonable to expect that women who choose dentistry for intrinsic needs will tend to continue working. . . . Extrinsic needs can be met in other ways. . . . Since occupational choice is not based on one need alone, there may be interaction of a number of needs.

Intrinsic needs such as those of self-actualization, esteem and freedom appear to be interacting in the choice to be employed.

Simpson and Simpson (1961) in a research study of undergraduate college women came to a similar conclusion. They stated that career women gave more importance to intrinsic work features than non-career women who considered extrinsic features. They concluded that career women had a rather special set of values and influences which differed from those of non-career women whose values were security and conformance.

Change of employment orientation (as stated by college women) may

be due in part to understanding of self-actualizing and esteem needs. While in college the coed may need to conform to society's press for her to find an eligible partner. Simpson and Simpson (1961) state that 90 per cent of all female undergraduates would choose marriage to a career if they could choose. Finding a marriage partner fulfills her need for esteem among her peers and meets her needs for a continuing love relationship. After graduation, or after several years of marriage, these needs may be surpassed in the search for an identity which is one's own. This identity may have developed partially in college or may only begin to establish itself in the security of home and family. Seeking to be an individual rather than someone's wife or mother may lead to a need for outside employment. Outside employment may give proper recognition and prestige to one's abilities.

Frieden (1963) stated that many young women with satisfactory homes and healthy families questioned, "Who am I?" These women felt that they needed to meet some of their needs outside the home. It may be that by balancing home, family and work into an intricate pattern that the woman can best fulfill all her needs at once.

Personality Traits and Employment Orientation

Hoyt and Kennedy (1958) and Wagman (1967) studied undergraduate women in an attempt to delineate relationships between in-college personality and values with career and homemaking orientation of college students. Using the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule (EPPS) and a locally devised questionnaire, Hoyt and Kennedy found significant differences at the .01 level on four of the Edwards needs. The career group scored significantly higher on these three needs: achievement,

intraception, and endurance. The homemaking group scored higher on suc-
corance and on heterosexuality. Wagman's (1967) study using the Allport
Vernon Lindzey Study of Values found the career group scored significantly
higher at the .01 and .05 level on the Theoretical scale and lower on the
Religious scale. There were not significant differences between career
and homemaking oriented women on the remaining scales.

The Hoyt and Kennedy (1958) and Wagman (1967) studies pointed to a
definite relationship between employment orientation in college and per-
sonality or values. On the basis of understanding of the consistency of
personality, it seems warranted to propose that career orientation after
college would be related to in-college personality traits. However, as
noted earlier, there may be little correlation between in-college and
after-college career orientation.

Surette (1967) interpreted the Hoyt and Kennedy (1958) study as
meaning that career oriented women may be motivated by three independent
needs: (1) need to establish one's worth through competitive behavior,
(2) need to accomplish concrete goals, and (3) need to intellectually
know and understand. He interpreted Martin (1963) as saying that there
are differences in values for career oriented and homemaking oriented
women. The value more important to career oriented women was accomplish-
ment, while homemaking women indicated that they valued work in terms of
material satisfactions.

Sullivan (1967) pointed to a trend for freshman college women who
scored high on career interest scales to be students with a high need for
achievement. Nye and Hoffman (1963) also presented a link which ties
high achievement needs with employment orientation. They saw employment

as motivated by aspirations for upward mobility and also motivated by a desire for a sense of competence. Both of these were associated with the woman who had a high need for achievement.

Nye and Hoffman (1963) cited personality traits that may influence employment orientation: need for freedom and independence, need for social contact, the fear of aging and losing vitality, levels of anxiety tolerance and differences in capacity for performing and enjoying the housewife-mother role. Bernays (1955) supported this:

For many of us (women), outside work is a pleasant escape from the overwhelming muddle of running a home. Only in my office have I been a professional—trained for a job. In all my other lives—a beginner, a bewildered dolt who has bluffed and tried hard to do an average job as wife, mother and housekeeper.

Major Hypotheses

General null hypothesis one. Based upon the discussion of the relationship between self concept and employment, and upon the discussion of persistence of self concept, the first major hypothesis may be stated:

There is no relationship between in-college self concept and after-college employment orientation.

General null hypothesis two. Based upon the discussion of unique values held by employment orientated women and the relationship between values and self concept, and upon the discussion of the persistence of self, the second major hypothesis may be stated:

There is no relationship between in-college values and after-college employment orientation.

CHAPTER III

PROCEDURE AND METHOD

In the previous chapter, a theoretical framework for studying employment orientation of college educated women was developed. Two major determinants of after-college employment orientation were identified and two major hypotheses derived.

The purpose of this chapter will be to empirically define the hypothesis taken from the framework. In the first section the subjects and empirical measures will be described. The second section presents the middle range hypotheses. The third section will be a discussion of the methods used to analyze the data. The last section will be a discussion of limitations of this research.

Source and Collection of Data

Data for this study were taken from a longitudinal study⁴ of the Kansas Agricultural Experiment Station Project 341. The basic objective of this study was to evaluate the honors program begun by the College of Home Economics at Kansas State University. Hoffman (1959) made the following statement regarding the honors program:

⁴Organized Research Project 341 of Department of Family and Child Development. Kansas Agricultural Experiment Station. Titled in 1964: Comparisons of Home Economics Honors and Non-honors Students During Their Academic Years. Originally directed by Mrs. Leone Kell.

Designed to challenge superior home economics students by especially planned combinations of college courses, the emphasis has been placed upon enrichment, breadth, and depth of studies rather than "getting through faster" (p. 374).

From the study of the program have come information on the maturation of college girls (Kell and Kennedy, 1966) and life cycles (Metzger, 1967).

Research Design

The honors study used a treatment (honors students) control (non-honors students) experimental design. Honors girls scored in the upper 10 per cent of entering classes on the scholastic aptitude tests.⁵ Non-honors scored lower than the top ten per cent and were matched to honors students on the size of high school class, size of home town, religious preference, and father's occupation (Kell and Kennedy, 1966). Girls were selected using this process for four consecutive years beginning in the fall semester of 1958 and ending the fall semester of 1961. During the fall of 1958, three controls were chosen for each honors student. Thereafter (except in 1960 when one more control than honors student was chosen), an equal number of controls and honors students were chosen. The number of honors and controls are shown in Table 2.

The data collected while the girls were in college included biographic, personality, values, self attitudes, authoritarianism, career orientation, goals, experiences, personal reactions and so forth. Instruments used to collect this data are listed in Table 3. Data was collected on the honors girls' parents' self attitudes and child rearing philosophy. Data were again collected on the subjects in 1966 (see Table 4). A

⁵Scholastic aptitude tests used for this screen were the ACE in 1958 to 1960 and the ACT in 1961.

TABLE 2
HONORS AND CONTROLS BY YEARS OF MATRICULATION

	1958	1959	1960	1961	Subgroup Totals
Honors	6	6	14	11	37
Controls	18	6	15	11	50
Total	24	12	29	22	87

TABLE 3
COLLEGE DATA

Data	Instrument	Time ^a
1. Biographic	K.S.U. Counseling Center's Biographic Instrument	Fr.
2. Personality	California Psychological Inventory	Fr., Jr.
3. Values	Allport, Vernon, Lindzey	Fr., Jr.
4. Self attitudes	Adjustive Check List Kell-Hoefflin: I.C.S.B.	Fr. Fr.
5. Authoritism	F-Test	Fr., Jr.
6. Career Orientation	Career Check Test	Fr.
7. Goals, Experiences, Personal Reactions, Etc.	Hour Taped Interview	Fr., So., Sr.

^aData are incomplete for those subjects who dropped out of school or changed curriculums and did not wish to participate in this project.

TABLE 4
1966 FOLLOW-UP STUDY DATA

Data	Instrument	Time
1. Descriptive	Questionnaire	1966
2. Authoritism	F-Test	1966
3. Self Esteem	Rosenberg Instrument	1966
4. Self Attitudes	Adjustive Check List	1966

summary of the data collected on the 81 subjects who completed the 1966 questionnaire can be found in Metzger's (1967) unpublished master's thesis. Later in 1967, subjects were asked to complete the California Psychological Inventory.

Subjects

For the research of this thesis only those subjects who had completed the 1966 questionnaire could be used. This reduced the original sample of 87 to 83.⁶

In-college data. Of the 83 subjects, 76 were Kansas students during their college years. When picked, all the girls were single. Fifty-three of the college subjects were from towns with populations of 10,000 or less.

The subjects came from homes where the parents' education ranged from less than 9 years to over 16 years of formal education (see

⁶Only 81 of these follow-up study questionnaires were returned in time to be included in Metzger's unpublished master's thesis. Two additional questionnaires were available for this study.

Table 5). Most of the fathers' occupations were managerial; however, 22 were classified as farmers (see Table 6).

After-College Data. Of the women who completed the 1966 questionnaire, sixty-two had persisted to graduate from college. Six had dropped out but later returned; fourteen had dropped out and never returned. One subject had completed only one semester of college; all others completed one year or more.

Sixty-seven of the eighty-three were married (see Table 7). Forty-five per cent of these women had been married between three and four years. Less than half of the married subjects had children.

Fifty-six husbands had received a bachelor's degree or better, with 9 working toward or presently holding a doctorate. Approximately 30 per cent of their husbands had incomes of over \$8,500 (see Table 8).

TABLE 5
PARENTS' EDUCATIONAL LEVEL

Years of Education	Mother's		Father's	
	Frequency	Per cent	Frequency	Per cent
Less than 9 years	2	2.4	4	4.8
9-11 years	1	1.2	3	3.6
12 years	29	27.7	19	22.9
13-14 years	25	30.1	17	20.5
15-16 years	20	24.1	23	27.7
Unknown	2	2.4	2	2.4
Total	83	99.9	83	100.0

TABLE 6
OCCUPATIONS OF FATHERS

Category	Frequency	Per cent
Deceased or not working	4	4.8
Skilled	8	9.6
Farmers	22	26.5
Service	2	2.4
Clerical and Sales	4	4.8
Professional	42	50.6
Unknown	1	1.2
Total	83	99.9

TABLE 7
MARITAL STATUS OF RESPONDENTS

Marital Status	Frequency	Per cent
Single or engaged	15	18.1
Married	65	78.3
Divorced	1	1.2
Divorced and remarried	2	2.4
Total	83	100.0

TABLE 8
INCOME LEVELS OF HUSBANDS OF SUBJECTS

Income Level	Frequency	Per cent
Under \$4,499	14	20.8
4,500-6,499	13	19.4
6,500-8,499	20	29.9
8,500-10,499	10	14.9
10,500-12,499	5	7.5
Over 12,500	3	4.5
No response	2	3.0
Total	67	100.0

Sixty-seven per cent of the women lived in communities with populations of 15,000 or over. The largest number, 38.5 per cent, lived in a community of over 100,000 (see Table 9). The largest number of subjects, 25.9 per cent of the 87 original subjects, came from home towns of less than 1,000 people (see Table 10).

According to Metzger (1967), approximately half of the subjects were judged to be highly work-oriented, planning to work at all times or at all times except when their children were small (see Table 11). Metzger also found significance in job aspirations of subjects planning to work in the future and in the rationale given for future work plans (see Tables 12 and 13). No significant correlations were found between work orientation and personal status items such as number of children, age of children, husband's occupation or husband's income.

TABLE 9
 SIZE OF COMMUNITIES WHERE SUBJECTS RESIDE

Population	Frequency	Per cent
Farm	7	8.4
Rural, non-farm	6	7.2
Under 5,000	5	6.0
5,000-15,000	9	10.8
15,000-50,000	17	20.5
50,000-100,000	5	6.0
Over 100,000	32	38.6
Not reported	2	2.4
Total	83	99.9

TABLE 10
 SIZE OF COMMUNITIES WHERE ORIGINAL 87 SUBJECTS GREW UP

Population	Frequency	Per cent
Less than 1,000	22	25.9
1,000-2,500	17	20.0
2,500-10,000	16	18.8
10,000-25,000	12	14.1
Over 25,000	18	21.2
No response	2	---
Total	87	100.0 of those responding

TABLE 11
 EMPLOYMENT ORIENTATION OF SUBJECTS AS MEASURED BY TIMES
 IN LIFE CYCLE SUBJECTS EXPECT TO WORK

Times in Life Cycle	Frequency	Per cent
At no time	6	7.2
After marriage, before children	17	20.5
After children are 18 years	17	20.5
After children are between 5 and 12 years	26	31.3
At all times	17	20.5
Total	83	100.0

TABLE 12
 JOB ASPIRATIONS OF SUBJECTS PLANNING TO WORK IN FUTURE

Level of Employment Orientation	Same Job or Same Level of Job	Raise Level from Present Job	Total
After marriage, before children	12	1	13
Work after children are 18 years	13	3	16
Work after children are 5 to 12 years	14	12	26
Work at all times	11	5	16
Total	50	20	71 ^b

^bSix subjects did not report their job aspirations; six other subjects did not plan to work at any time.

TABLE 13
 RATIONALE GIVEN FOR FUTURE WORK PLANS OF SUBJECTS

Career Orientation Level	Rationale Given				Total
	Financial	Self-satis- faction	Financial and Self-satis- faction	Other	
Work after marriage before children	4	4	7	0	15
Work after children are 18 years	5	5	5	1	16
Work after children are 5 to 12 years	3	5	18	0	26
Work at all times	0	3	13	0	16
Total	12	17	43	1	73 ^C

^CFour of the subjects planning to work in the future did not respond.

For a more complete look at descriptive data on 81 of the 83 subjects used for this research see Metzger's unpublished master's thesis.

Operational Definitions

The major independent concept, personality, was discussed at the general level in the Conceptual Framework chapter. Two concepts, self and values, were derived. An operational definition is now needed whereby the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable, employment orientation, can be tested. This section will deal with operational definitions testing the following general null hypotheses:

General Null Hypothesis I. There is no relationship between a woman's in-college self concept and her after-college employment orientation.

General Null Hypothesis II. There is no relationship between in-college values and after-college employment orientation.

Concepts common to hypotheses

General concepts common to both hypotheses are: the college woman and employment orientation. Important concepts from null hypothesis I and II are those related to personality: self and values.

College woman is empirically defined as any woman participating for one semester or more in an accredited college or university. In this study 74.7 per cent of the women persisted to graduation. Seven and two-tenths per cent dropped out and returned later. With the exception of one subject, all girls had a year or more of college experience. No limitations were placed on marital status, persistence in home economics or similar variables.

After-college employment orientation (see Appendix A) was measured by response to this question from the 1966 questionnaire: "At what times in your life do you expect to work?" Possible answers included:

1. ___ At all times,
2. ___ Before marriage,
3. ___ After marriage before children,
4. ___ After children are 5 years old,
5. ___ After children are 12,
6. ___ After children are 18 and/or have left home,
7. ___ Other, please specify.

The question arises as to whether statement of one's employment orientation in a multiple choice situation such as the one used for this questionnaire is an accurate means for determining actual orientation. Perhaps a better means of determining employment orientation is measuring or

discussing actual employment. In an attempt to make the data more valid or find another and better measure of employment orientation, a Pearson Product Moment Correlation was run on items on the questionnaire which related to employment (see Appendix B). Few items correlated significantly with the measure of after-college employment orientation. After-college employment orientation as judged by the 1966 questionnaire correlated positively (.526) with desire to raise level of occupation and (.499) with reason for seeking employment. Both were significant at the .05 level of probability.

A Pearson Product Moment Correlation was run on the questionnaire items which related to actual employment. Being presently employed correlated positively with planning to work in the future (.341), with number of years married (.437), and with number of children (.531). However, it did not correlate significantly with after-college employment orientation. A rationale for the relationship between number of years married and number of children with actual employment could be found in the discussion of needs. Women who have been married longest and have already started their families may have satisfied those needs for love and nurturance which ranked quite high in priority. These women may be now looking for satisfaction of esteem needs. The relationship between actual employment and plans for work in the future is a hopeful one in that planning to work in the future is preliminary to asking during which time the subjects plan to work. However, the relationship between actual employment and times when subjects plan to work could not be established.

It is significant that after-college employment orientation correlated positively and significantly with desire to raise level of

occupation and reason for seeking employment. These correlations indicated that the women who stated they would work during the greater part of their life seek employment for reasons of personal satisfaction as well as economic remuneration and that they plan to do something significant in their area of work. Previous studies (Mahoney, 1961; Meir *et al.*, 1967) on women actually working, bear out the importance of these relationships. Meir *et al.* (1967) in a study on the persistence at work of women dentists in Israel pointed out that "it seems reasonable to expect that women who choose dentistry for intrinsic needs will tend to continue working. . . . Extrinsic needs can be met in other ways."

Although the empirical measure of after-college employment orientation was not supported by a correlation with actual employment, it was supported by other correlations of significance to this study. In addition, it was the only question which allowed the person to state when they plan to work, *i.e.*, those that were not presently employed could state their intentions. Therefore, the empirical measure of employment orientation chosen was the question asking during which times the subjects would choose to work.

A Pearson Product Moment Correlation was used to test the relationship of in-college employment orientation with after-college employment orientation. A coefficient of .037 was obtained for the total population of 83. An r value of .215 is needed for significance at the .05 level of probability with 81 degrees of freedom. A coefficient of .016 was obtained when only those 41 subjects who completed junior year testing were used. An r value of .308 is needed to be significant at the .05 level of probability with 39 degrees of freedom. There appears to be

no relationship between in-college and after-college employment orientation for these subjects.

Empirical measures of in-college personality were the California Psychological Inventory (Copyright 1956) and the Alport Vernon Lindzey Study of Values (Copyright 1951). The California Psychological Inventory or CPI is composed of 480 statements which are to be marked true or false according to whether the statement is true or false for that individual. The inventory yields 18 measures of personality which may be grouped into four categories: (1) measures of poise, ascendancy, and self assurance; (2) measures of socialization, maturity, and responsibility; (3) measures of achievement potential and intellectual efficient; and (4) measures of intellectual and interest modes (Gough, 1964).

Cronback (1959) pointed out that eleven of the scales were based on external criteria. He stated, "Each criterion locates extreme groups who presumably have some psychological similarity, and a scale is formed from items which discriminate these extremes." Four additional scales, as well as three control scales, are built into the test. The three controls check for persons "faking bad," "faking good," and giving only "highly popular" responses.

According to Gough (1957) the CPI was devised with two goals of personality assessment in mind: (1) to measure personality in normal individuals rather than the morbid or pathological, and (2) to be convenient and easy to use and "suitable for large-scale application." It is a test suitable for use in schools, colleges, businesses.

A criticism leveled at the CPI is that, "Despite the complex manner in which keys were developed, the test must be regarded as no more

than a tabulation of overt self-descriptions" (Cronback, 1959). Since those people who "fake bad" or "fake good" can be located through the three control keys, one might look at the CPI as being a measure of self concept. This type of measure is congruent with the emphasis placed on self concept as a measure of personality within the framework chapter.

The Study of Values (or AVL): A Scale for Measuring the Dominant Interests in Personality, Revised Edition 1951 was used to support the CPI and to test for relationship between values while in college and employment orientation in women. This instrument tends to be closely associated with college or college educated populations. The test consists of 120 questions, 20 of which refer to each of the six values: theoretical, economic, aesthetic, social, political, and religious. The values described are based on Spranger's Types of Men (Allport et al., 1951).

Of the 87 subjects in the study conducted by the Department of Family and Child Development, 83 continued to complete the 1966 questionnaire. All of the 83 subjects completed the freshman testing on the CPI and the AVL. This total sample could be used to test these middle range hypotheses:

Middle Range Null Hypothesis 1. There is no relationship between freshman CPI scores and after-college employment orientation scores.

Middle Range Null Hypothesis 2. There is no relationship between freshman AVL scores and after-college employment orientation scores.

These hypotheses do not, however, state any relationship between employment orientation and junior year scores. The total sample could

not be used to test for relationships because only 41 of 83 subjects completed all testing. The data obtained from these 41 subjects will be used to test these hypotheses:

Middle Range Null Hypothesis 3. There is no relationship between junior CPI scores and after-college employment orientation scores.

Middle Range Null Hypothesis 4. There is no relationship between junior AVL and after-college employment orientation scores.

From these middle range null hypotheses can be derived the empirical level null hypotheses which consist of stating the relationship or lack of relationship for the 18 freshman CPI scores, the 18 junior CPI scores, the 6 freshman AVL scores, and the 6 junior AVL scores with the after-college employment orientation score.

Methods of Data Analysis

The Pearson Product Moment Correlation analysis was selected to establish the relationship of each independent variable with each dependent variable. The assumption is made that a linear relationship exists between employment orientation and personality. Correlation was deemed most efficient because not only the form but the degree of relationship was needed for the research. In discussing correlation, Blalock (1960) stated:

Not only do we want to know the form or nature of the relationship between X and Y . . . , but also it is necessary to know the degree or strength of the relationship. Obviously, if the relationship is very weak there is no point in trying to predict Y from X. Sociologists are often primarily interested in discovering which of a very large number of variables are most closely related to a given dependent variable. In exploratory studies of this sort, regression analysis is of secondary importance (p. 285).

The coefficient of correlation will be used to test the assumption that a

linear relationship exists between employment orientation scores and selected personality scores. The .05 level of probability was selected for the test of significance.

Limitations

Before interpretation of the findings, a word of caution is needed regarding the limitations of this research. First, the sample was not randomly selected but rather represented a certain population of girls who entered Kansas State University as freshmen in Home Economics. Secondly, the subjects represent four different freshmen classes and some may not have been out of the college situation sufficiently long to really determine their feelings about employment. Third, the empirical measures may not be as adequate as necessary. The after-college employment orientation measure is one that has not been tested in other groups for reliability. Further, the correlation of the after-college employment orientation question with actual employment of the subject was low. A fourth limitation was the pragmatic nature of the question assessing after-college employment orientation. This measure may have been lacking in ability to assess total employment orientation. A fifth limitation was that the standardized tests were not chosen for this particular study, but rather were obtained in a larger research project with a number of different objectives.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

This chapter reports the analysis of data testing the relationship between the selected independent variables of personality and the dependent variable of employment orientation. The general null hypotheses being tested are:

- I. There is no relationship between a woman's in-college self concept and her after-college employment orientation.
- II. There is no relationship between in-college values and after-college employment orientation.

A Pearson Product Moment Correlation was computed to determine whether or not a linear relationship existed between independent and dependent variables. The computed correlation coefficient and its test for significance at the .05⁷ level of probability will be reported immediately following each empirical null hypothesis. The following discussion will list the two general level hypotheses, the four middle level, and the 48 empirical level hypotheses and state if the empirical level hypotheses support their respective middle and general level hypotheses (see Appendix C for a table of results).

⁷The degrees of freedom for the freshmen sample vary from 81 when the total sample of subjects is tested to 39 when those freshmen subjects who completed their junior year at Kansas State University are tested. The degrees of freedom for the junior sample is 39.

Relationship of Selected Factors with

Employment Orientation

Self Concept

General Null Hypothesis I. There is no relationship between a woman's in-college self concept and her after-college employment orientation.

Middle Range Null Hypothesis 1. There is no relationship between a woman's freshman year scores on the CPI and her after-college employment orientation.

Empirical Null Hypothesis 1. There is no relationship between after-college employment orientation and freshman year standard scores for dominance on the CPI.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with freshman year standard score on dominance was .192 for the total population of 83. An r value of .215 is needed to be significant at the .05 level of probability with 81 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. These data do not support the middle and general level hypotheses.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with freshman year standard score on dominance was .117 for the reduced population of 41.⁸ An r value of .308 is needed to be significant at the .05 level of probability with 39 degrees of freedom.

⁸Two samples were used to test the relationship between freshman scores and after-college employment orientation. The total sample of 83 women who completed both freshman and after college testing was used to test the relationship, and a reduced sample of 41 of these 83 subjects (those subjects who completed both freshman and junior testing) was used to test the relationship. Also, the junior scores of this reduced sample are used to test relationships of self concept and values with after-college employment.

Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. These data do not support the middle and general hypotheses.

Empirical Null Hypothesis 2. There is no relationship between after-college employment orientation and freshman standard scores for capacity for status on the CPI.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation and freshman year standard score on capacity for status yielded a coefficient of .191 for the total population. An r value of .215 is needed to be significant at the .05 level of probability with 81 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. These data do not support the middle and general hypotheses.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with freshman year standard score on capacity for status yielded a coefficient of .141 for the reduced population. An r value of .308 is needed to be significant at the .05 level of probability with 81 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted for this sample. These data do not support the middle and general hypotheses.

Empirical Null Hypothesis 3. There is no relationship between after-college employment orientation and freshman year standard scores on sociability.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with freshman year standard score on sociability yielded a coefficient of .158 for the total population. An r value of .215 is needed to be significant at the .05 level of probability with 81 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. The data do not support the middle and general hypotheses.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with freshman year standard score on sociability yielded a coefficient of .045 for the reduced population of 41. An r value of .308 is needed to be significant at the .05 level of probability. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. These data do not support the middle and general hypotheses.

Empirical Null Hypothesis 4. There is no relationship between after-college employment orientation and freshman year scores on social presence.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with freshman year standard score on social presence yielded a coefficient of .133 for the total population. An r value of .215 is needed to be significant at the .05 level of probability with 81 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. These data do not support the middle and general hypotheses.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with freshman year standard score on social presence yielded a coefficient of .063 for the reduced sample. An r value of .308 is needed to be significant at the .05 level of probability with 81 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. These data do not support the middle and general hypotheses.

Empirical Null Hypothesis 5. There is no relationship between after-college employment orientation and freshman year standard scores for self acceptance.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with freshman year standard score for self acceptance yielded

a coefficient of .168 for the total population. An r value of .215 is needed to be significant at the .05 level of probability with 81 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. These data do not support the middle and general hypotheses.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with freshman year standard score for self acceptance yielded a coefficient of .209 for the reduced sample of 41. An r value of .308 is needed to be significant at the .05 level of probability with 39 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. These data do not support the middle and general hypotheses.

Empirical Null Hypothesis 6. There is no relationship between after-college employment orientation and freshman year standard scores for sense of well being.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with freshman year standard score for sense of well being yielded a coefficient of .033 for the total population. An r value of .215 is needed to be significant at the .05 level of probability with 81 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. These data do not support the middle and general hypotheses.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with freshman year standard score for sense of well being yielded a coefficient of $-.308$ for the reduced population of 41. An r value of .308 is needed to be significant at the .05 level of probability with 39 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is refuted. These data do support the middle and general hypotheses.

Empirical Null Hypothesis 7. There is no relationship

between after-college employment orientation and freshman year standard scores for responsibility.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with freshman year standard score for responsibility yielded a coefficient of .202 for the total group. An r value of .215 is needed to be significant at the .05 level of probability with 81 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. These data do not support the middle and general hypotheses.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with freshman year standard score for responsibility yielded a coefficient of .047 for the reduced population of 41. An r value of .308 is needed to be significant at the .05 level of probability with 39 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. These data do not support the middle and general hypotheses.

Empirical Null Hypothesis 8. There is no relationship between after-college employment orientation and freshman year standard scores for socialization.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with freshman year standard score for socialization yielded a coefficient of .046. An r value of .215 is needed to be significant at the .05 level of probability with 81 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. The data does not support the middle and general hypotheses.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with freshman year standard score for socialization yielded a coefficient of .195 for the reduced population of 41. An r value of .308

is needed to be significant at the .05 level of probability and therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. These data do not support the middle and general hypotheses.

Empirical Null Hypothesis 9. There is no relationship between after-college employment orientation and freshman year standard scores for self control.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with freshman year standard score for self control yielded a coefficient of $-.006$ for the total population of 83. An r value of $.215$ is needed to be significant at the .05 level of probability with 81 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. The data does not support the middle and general hypotheses.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with freshman year standard score for self control yielded a coefficient of $-.382$ for the reduced population of 41. An r value of $.308$ is needed to be significant at the .05 level of probability. Thus, the null hypothesis is refuted at the .05 level of probability. The data does support the middle and general hypotheses.

Empirical Null Hypothesis 10. There is no relationship between after-college employment orientation and freshman year standard score for tolerance.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with freshman year standard score for tolerance yielded a coefficient of $.070$ for the total population. An r value of $.215$ is needed to be significant at the .05 level of probability with 81 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. These data do

not support the middle and general hypotheses.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with freshman year standard score for tolerance yielded a coefficient of $-.0113$ for the reduced population of 41. An r value of $.308$ is needed to be significant at the $.05$ level of probability with 39 degrees of freedom. Thus, the null hypothesis is not refuted and the middle and general level hypotheses are not supported.

Empirical Null Hypothesis 11. There is no relationship between after-college employment orientation and freshman year standard score for good impression.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with freshman year standard score for good impression yielded a coefficient of $.126$ for the total population. An r value of $.215$ is needed to be significant at the $.05$ level of probability with 81 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. The data does not support the middle and general hypotheses.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with freshman year standard score for good impression yielded a coefficient of $-.154$ for the reduced sample of 41. An r value of $.308$ is needed to be significant at the $.05$ level of probability with 39 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. The data does not support the middle and general hypotheses.

Empirical Null Hypothesis 12. There is no relationship between after-college employment orientation and communality score for freshman year.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment

orientation with freshman year standard score for communality yielded a coefficient of .015 for the total population. An r of .215 is needed to be significant at the .05 level of probability with 81 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. The data does not support the middle and general hypotheses.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with freshman year standard score of communality yielded a coefficient of .059 for the reduced population of 41. An r value of .308 is needed to be significant at the .05 level of probability. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. These data do not support the middle and general hypotheses.

Empirical Null Hypothesis 13. There is no relationship between after-college employment orientation and freshman year standard score for achievement via conformance.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with freshman year standard score for achievement via conformance yielded a coefficient of .090 for the total population. An r value of .215 is needed to be significant at the .05 level of probability with 81 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. The data does not support the middle and general hypotheses.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with freshman year standard score for achievement via conformance yielded a coefficient of $-.064$ for the reduced population of 41. An r value of .308 is needed to be significant at the .05 level of probability with 39 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. The data does not support the middle and general hypotheses.

Empirical Null Hypothesis 14. There is no relationship between after-college employment orientation and achievement via independence.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with freshman year standard score for achievement via independence yielded a coefficient of .111 for the total population. An r value of .215 is needed to be significant at the .05 level of probability with 81 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. These data do not support the middle and general hypotheses.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with freshman year standard score for achievement via independence yielded a coefficient of $-.097$ for the reduced population of 41. An r value of .308 is needed to be significant at the .05 level of probability with 39 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. The data does not support the middle and general hypotheses.

Empirical Null Hypothesis 15. There is no relationship between after-college employment orientation and freshman year standard score for intellectual efficiency.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with freshman year standard score for intellectual efficiency yielded a coefficient of .194 for the population as a whole. An r value of .215 is needed to be significant at the .05 level of probability with 81 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. These data do not support the middle and general hypotheses.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with freshman year standard score for intellectual efficiency

yielded a coefficient of .024 for the reduced sample of 41. An r value of .308 is needed to be significant at the .05 level of probability with 39 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. These data do not support the middle and general hypotheses.

Empirical Null Hypothesis 16. There is no relationship between after-college employment orientation and freshman standard scores for psychological mindedness.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with freshman year standard score for psychological mindedness yielded a coefficient of .116 for the total sample. An r value of .215 is needed to be significant at the .05 level of probability with 81 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. These data do not support the middle and general hypotheses.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with freshman year standard score for psychological mindedness yielded a coefficient of $-.140$. An r value of .308 is needed to be significant at the .05 level of probability with 39 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. These data do not support the middle and general hypotheses.

Empirical Null Hypothesis 17. There is no relationship between after-college employment orientation and freshman standard score for flexibility.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with freshman year standard score for flexibility yielded a coefficient of .178 for the total population. An r value of .215 is needed to be significant at the .05 level of probability with 81 degrees

of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted and the data do not support the middle and general hypotheses.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with freshman year standard score for flexibility yielded a coefficient of $-.045$ for the reduced sample of 41. An r value of $.308$ is needed to be significant at the $.05$ level of probability with 39 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. The data do not support the middle and general hypotheses.

Empirical Null Hypothesis 18. There is no relationship between after-college employment orientation and freshman standard scores for femininity.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with freshman year standard score for femininity yielded a coefficient of $.014$ for the total population. A correlation of $.215$ is needed to be significant at the $.05$ level of probability with 81 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted and the data do not support the middle and general hypotheses.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with freshman year standard score for femininity yielded a coefficient of $.011$ for the reduced sample of 41. An r value of $.308$ is needed to be significant at the $.05$ level with 39 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. These data do not support the middle and general hypotheses.

Middle Range Null Hypothesis 3.⁹ There is no relationship between

⁹Middle Range Null Hypothesis 2 follows General Null Hypothesis 3.

a woman's junior year scores on the CPI and her after-college employment orientation.

Empirical Null Hypothesis 19. There is no relationship between after-college employment orientation and junior standard scores for dominance.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with junior year standard scores for dominance yielded a coefficient of $-.061$. Since junior scores are available for only 41 of the subjects, 39 degrees of freedom will be used throughout this section on Middle Range Null Hypothesis 3. An r of $.308$ is needed to be significant at the $.05$ level with 39 degrees of freedom. Thus, the null hypothesis is not refuted. These data do not support the middle and general hypotheses.

Empirical Null Hypothesis 20. There is no relationship between after-college employment orientation and junior standard scores for capacity for status.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with junior year standard scores for capacity for status yielded a coefficient of $.084$. An r of $.308$ is needed to be significant at the $.05$ level of probability with 39 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. These data do not support the middle and general hypotheses.

Empirical Null Hypothesis 21. There is no relationship between after-college employment orientation and junior standard scores on the CPI for sociability.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment

orientation with junior year standard scores for sociability yielded a coefficient of $-.166$. An r of $.308$ is needed to be significant at the $.05$ level of probability with 39 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. The data does not support the middle and general hypotheses.

Empirical Null Hypothesis 22. There is no relationship between after-college employment orientation and junior standard scores for social presence.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with junior year standard scores for social presence yielded a coefficient of $-.263$. An r value of $.308$ is needed to be significant at the $.05$ level of probability with 39 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. These data do not support the middle and general hypotheses.

Empirical Null Hypothesis 23. There is no relationship between after-college employment orientation and junior standard scores for self acceptance.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with junior year standard scores for self acceptance yielded a coefficient of $.172$. An r of $.308$ is needed to be significant at the $.05$ level of probability with 39 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. These data do not support the middle and general hypotheses.

Empirical Null Hypothesis 24. There is no relationship between after-college employment orientation and junior standard scores for sense of well being.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with junior year standard scores for sense of well being yielded a coefficient of $-.296$. An r of $.308$ is needed to be significant at the $.05$ level of probability with 39 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. These data do not support the middle and general hypotheses.

Empirical Null Hypothesis 25. There is no relationship between after-college employment orientation and junior standard scores for responsibility.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with junior year standard scores for responsibility yielded a coefficient of $.046$. An r of $.308$ is needed to be significant at the $.05$ level of probability with 39 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. The data does not support the middle and general hypotheses.

Empirical Null Hypothesis 26. There is no relationship between after-college employment orientation and junior standard scores for socialization.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with junior year standard scores for socialization yielded a coefficient of $.061$. An r of $.308$ is needed to be significant at the $.05$ level of probability with 39 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. These data do not support the middle and general hypotheses.

Empirical Null Hypothesis 27. There is no relationship between after-college employment orientation and junior

standard scores for self control.

The correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with junior year standard scores for self control yielded a coefficient of $-.156$. An r of $.308$ is needed to be significant at the $.05$ level of probability with 39 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. These data do not support the middle and general hypotheses.

Empirical Null Hypothesis 28. There is no relationship between after-college employment orientation and junior standard scores for tolerance.

The correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with junior year standard scores for tolerance yielded a coefficient of $-.045$. An r of $.308$ is needed to be significant at the $.05$ level of probability with 39 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. These data do not support the middle and general hypotheses.

Empirical Null Hypothesis 29. There is no relationship between after-college employment orientation and junior standard scores for good impression.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with junior year standard scores for good impression yielded a coefficient of $-.067$. An r of $.308$ is needed to be significant at the $.05$ level of probability with 39 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. The data do not support the middle and general hypotheses.

Empirical Null Hypothesis 30. There is no relationship between after-college employment orientation and junior

standard scores for communality.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with junior year standard scores for communality yielded a coefficient of .071. An r value of .308 is needed to be significant at the .05 level of probability with 39 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. The data does not support the middle and general hypotheses.

Empirical Null Hypothesis 31. There is no relationship between after-college employment orientation and junior standard scores for achievement via conformance.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with junior year standard scores for achievement via conformance yielded a coefficient of $-.164$. An r value of .308 is needed to be significant at the .05 level of probability with 39 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. These data do not support the middle and general hypotheses.

Empirical Null Hypothesis 32. There is no relationship between after-college employment orientation and junior standard scores for achievement via independence.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with junior standard scores for achievement via independence yielded a coefficient of $-.255$. An r of .308 is needed to be significant at the .05 level of probability with 39 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. These data do not support the middle and general hypotheses.

Empirical Null Hypothesis 33. There is no relationship

between after-college employment orientation and junior standard scores for intellectual efficiency.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with junior year standard scores for intellectual efficiency yielded a coefficient of $-.293$. An r of $.308$ is needed to be significant at the $.05$ level of probability with 39 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. The data does not support the middle and general hypotheses.

Empirical Null Hypothesis 34. There is no relationship between after-college employment orientation and junior standard scores for psychological mindedness.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with junior year standard scores of psychological mindedness yielded a coefficient of $-.069$. An r of $.308$ is needed to be significant at the $.05$ level of probability with 39 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. The data does not support the middle and general hypotheses.

Empirical Null Hypothesis 35. There is no relationship between after-college employment orientation and junior standard scores for flexibility.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with junior year standard scores for flexibility yielded a coefficient of $-.294$. An r value of $.308$ is needed to be significant at the $.05$ level of probability with 39 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. The data do not support the middle and general hypotheses.

Empirical Null Hypothesis 36. There is no relationship between after-college employment orientation and junior standard scores for femininity.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with junior year standard scores for femininity yielded a coefficient of .060. An r value of .308 is needed to be significant at the .05 level of probability with 39 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. These data do not support the middle level and general level hypotheses.

Values

General Null Hypothesis II. There is no relationship between in-college values and after-college employment orientation.

Middle Range Null Hypothesis 2. There is no relationship between after-college employment orientation and freshman scores on the Alport Vernon Lindzey Study of Values.

Empirical Null Hypothesis 37. There is no relationship between after-college employment orientation and freshman scores on theoretical values.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with freshman score on theoretical values yielded a coefficient of .324. An r value of .215 is needed to be significant at the .05 level of probability with 81 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is refuted. The general and middle hypotheses are supported by this data.

When the total population was reduced to 41, the computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with freshman

score on theoretical value yielded a coefficient of .018. An r of .308 is needed to be significant at the .05 level of probability with 39 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. The data does not support the middle and general hypotheses.

Empirical Null Hypothesis 38. There is no relationship between after-college employment orientation and freshman scores on economic values.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with freshman score on economic values yielded a coefficient of .048. An r of .215 is needed to be significant at the .05 level of probability with 81 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. The data do not support the middle and general hypotheses.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with freshman score on economic values yielded a coefficient of $-.049$ for the reduced sample of 41. An r value of .308 is needed to be significant at the .05 level of probability with 39 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. The data do not support the middle and general hypotheses.

Empirical Null Hypothesis 39. There is no relationship between after-college employment orientation and freshman scores on aesthetic values.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with freshman score on aesthetic values yielded a coefficient of .027. An r of .215 is needed to be significant at the .05 level of probability with 81 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. The data does not support the middle and general

hypotheses.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with freshman score on aesthetic values yielded a coefficient of $-.065$ for the reduced sample. An r value of $.308$ is needed to be significant at the $.05$ level of probability with 39 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. The data do not support the middle and general hypotheses.

Empirical Null Hypothesis 40. There is no relationship between after-college employment orientation and freshman scores on social values.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with freshman score on social values yielded a coefficient of $.034$ for the total population. An r value of $.215$ is needed to be significant at the $.05$ level of probability with 81 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. The data do not support the middle and general hypotheses.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with freshman score on social values yielded a coefficient of $-.067$ for the reduced sample. An r value of $.308$ is needed to be significant at the $.05$ level of probability with 39 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. The data do not support the middle and general hypotheses.

Empirical Null Hypothesis 41. There is no relationship between after-college employment orientation and freshman scores on political values.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment

orientation with freshman score on political values yielded a coefficient of .238 for the total population. An r value of .215 is needed to be significant at the .05 level of probability with 81 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is refuted. The data supports the middle and general hypotheses.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with freshman scores on political values yielded a coefficient of $-.008$ for the reduced sample of 41. An r value of .308 is necessary for significance at the .05 level of probability with 39 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. The data do not support the middle and general hypotheses.

Empirical Null Hypothesis 42. There is no relationship between after-college employment orientation and freshman scores on religious values.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with freshman score on religious values yielded a coefficient of .055 for the total population. An r value of .215 is needed to be significant at the .05 level of probability with 81 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. The data do not support the middle and general hypotheses.

For the reduced sample of 41, the computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with freshman scores on religious values yielded a coefficient of .018. An r value of .308 is needed for significance at the .05 level of probability with 39 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. The data do not support the middle and general hypotheses.

Middle Range Null Hypothesis 4. There is no relationship between after-college employment orientation and junior scores on values.

Empirical Null Hypothesis 43. There is no relationship between after-college employment orientation and junior scores on theoretical values.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with junior year theoretical value scores yielded a coefficient of .254 for the reduced sample of 41 for which there were junior scores. An r value of .308 is needed to be significant at the .05 level of probability with 39 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. These data do not support the middle and general hypotheses.

Empirical Null Hypothesis 44. There is no relationship between after-college employment orientation and junior scores on economic values.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with junior year economic values yielded a coefficient of -.112 for the reduced sample of 41. An r value of .308 is needed to be significant at the .05 level of probability with 39 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted and the data does not support the middle and general hypotheses.

Empirical Null Hypothesis 45. There is no relationship between after-college employment orientation and junior scores on aesthetic values.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with junior year aesthetic values yielded a coefficient of .102 for the sample of 41. An r value of .308 is needed to be significant

at the .05 level of probability with 39 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. These data do not support the middle and general hypotheses.

Empirical Null Hypothesis 46. There is no relationship between after-college employment orientation and junior scores on social values.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with junior year social values yielded a coefficient of $-.176$. An r value of $.308$ is needed to be significant at the .05 level of probability with 39 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. These data do not support the middle and general hypotheses.

Empirical Null Hypothesis 47. There is no relationship between after-college employment orientation and junior scores on political values.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with junior year political values yielded a coefficient of $-.031$ for the sample of 41. An r value of $.308$ is needed to be significant at the .05 level of probability with 39 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. These data do not support the middle and general hypotheses.

Empirical Null Hypothesis 48. There is no relationship between after-college employment orientation and junior scores on religious values.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with junior year scores for religious values yielded a coefficient of $-.077$ for the sample of 41. An r value of $.308$ is needed to be

significant at the .05 level of probability with 39 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not refuted. These data do not support the middle and general hypotheses.

Relationship of Findings to Middle and
General Level Concepts

The Self

The concept of personality as measured by the CPI was drawn from the general level hypothesis concerning self. Two middle level hypotheses were derived, one dealing with personality as exhibited in freshmen and the other personality as exhibited in the junior. Therefore, 54 empirical measures were examined. Eighteen measures were examined for the total group of freshmen; with eighteen examined for the reduced sample of 41 freshmen who later completed the measures given the junior year. Eighteen other empirical measures were examined for the junior year of the 41 subjects.

None of the correlation coefficients for the total freshman population of 83 proved to be significant at the .05 level of probability. Two of the freshman scores for the reduced population of 41 were significant. The significant relationships were both negative:

Freshman sense of well-being with after-college employment orientation.

Freshman self control score with after-college employment orientation.

For the 18 empirical level hypotheses concerning junior scores, only the one population (the reduced sample of 41) was examined. None of

the correlation coefficients proved to be significant at the .05 level of probability.

In summary, there were empirical supports to refute two of the 54 empirical null hypotheses stating relationships between self and the dependent concept of employment orientation.

Values

The concept of values measured by the Alport Vernon Lindzey was drawn from the general level hypothesis concerning values. Two middle level hypotheses were derived, one dealing with values exhibited in freshmen, and the other with values exhibited in juniors. Six empirical measures were examined for the total sample of freshmen (83); six empirical measures were examined for the reduced freshman sample of 41; and six empirical measures were examined for those 41 subjects who completed the junior year testing.

Two of the six measures of freshman values were significant at the .05 level for the population as a whole. The significant relationships were:

Theoretical values with after-college employment orientation,
Political values with after-college employment orientation.

For the reduced sample of 41, there were no significant relationships at the .05 level of probability during the freshman year.

For the six empirical level hypotheses concerning junior value scores, only one population, that of the 41 continuing through the junior year was examined. No significant relationships at the .05 level of significance were found.

In summary, there were empirical supports to refute two of the 18

empirical measures stating relationships between values and after-college employment orientation.

Additional Findings

At the .10 level of probability, several additional significant relationships were found. For the total population, coefficients significant at the .10 level were those for dominance, capacity for status, responsibility, and intellectual efficiency. For the reduced population of 41, no additional coefficients significant at the .10 level for freshman scores were found. However, social presence, and sense of well-being were significantly correlated with employment orientation at the .10 level for the junior year scores of the 41.

Although no rationale was developed for a relationship between a woman's after-college employment orientation and her parent's perception of her after-college employment orientation while she is a freshman in college, a relationship of significance at the .05 level of probability was found. The computed correlation coefficient for the total group for the relationship between a young woman's after-college employment orientation with her father's perception of her after-college plans (father's perception score was obtained during the young woman's freshman year) yielded a coefficient of .295. The computed correlation coefficient for the relationship between a woman's after-college employment orientation and her mother's perception of her after-college plans (mother's perception score was obtained during the young woman's freshman year) yielded a coefficient of .306. An r value of .215 is needed for the coefficients to be significant at the .05 level.

When the population was reduced to 41, the computed correlation coefficient for a young woman's after-college employment orientation with her father's perception of her after-college plans yielded a coefficient of .292. The computed correlation coefficient for a young woman's after-college employment orientation with her mother's perception of her after-college plans yielded a coefficient of .270 for the reduced population. Although neither score is significant at the .05 level, both are significant at the .10 level with the necessary coefficient for significance with 41 degrees of freedom being .261.

No significant relationships were found between the young woman's in-college employment orientation and either parent's perception of her after-college plans for either the total group or the reduced sample.

Significant relationships were found between freshmen scores on the CPI and freshman scores on the AVL at the .05 level of probability. Significant relationships existed between junior scores on the CPI and junior scores on the AVL at the .05 level of probability. No significant relationships existed between freshman scores on either measure and the junior measures.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

Discussion of Correlation Findings

Two major concepts were derived from the Conceptual Framework chapter as being related to employment orientation. These concepts were self and values. The discussion of the correlation findings will be presented for each of these concepts.

The Self

It was reported in the Findings Chapter that of the 18 freshman empirical measures, none were significant at the .05 level of probability for the population of 83. At the .10 level of probability, significant coefficients were found for dominance, capacity for status, responsibility, and intellectual efficiency. Those items found significant at the .05 level of probability for the population of 41 were sense of well-being and self control. No items were significant at the .10 level of probability for the reduced freshman group.

While the larger group indicated positive relationships at the .10 level of probability between selected CPI items and after-college employment orientation, the smaller group had negative relationships at the .05 level of probability between selected CPI items and after-college employment orientation. None of the same items related to self appeared to be significant for both groups.

Focusing on the significance level of .05, which was chosen for this study, questions arise as to what these negative relationships might mean. As the score for after-college employment orientation goes up indicating someone who chooses to work during most of her life cycle stages, the score for sense of well-being goes down. According to Gough (1964, p. 10) the sense of well-being scale was developed to:

. . . identify persons who minimize their worries and complaints, and who are relatively free from self-doubt and disillusionment.

Persons with low scores on this scale tend to be seen as:

Unambitious, leisurely, awkward, cautious, apathetic, and conventional; as being self-defensive and apologetic; and as constricted in thought and action (Gough, 1964, p. 10).

The self control scale was developed to:

. . . assess the degree and adequacy of self-regulation and self-control and freedom from impulsivity and self-centeredness (Gough, 1964, p. 10).

Persons with low scores on this scale tend to be seen as:

Impulsive, shrewd, excitable, irritable, self-centered, and uninhibited; as being aggressive and assertive; and as over-emphasizing personal pleasure and self-gain (Gough, 1964, p. 10).

Obvious contradictions can be found in the descriptions of persons with low scores on sense of well-being and self control. The major item that the two measures have in common seems to be emphasis on self-concern. A rationale for these two measures being significant might be built on the basis of self-concern. Compatible descriptive phrases from these scales are those referring to overemphasis of personal pleasure and being self-defensive. A defensive person tends to be very concerned with protecting himself even at the expense of others and may stress his own personal pleasure in life. However, the over-all description of each scale does not seem to emphasize the similarities between the scales but the

differences. A possible rationale for this incongruence is that the smaller group of 41 may have within it subgroups, i.e., the smaller group may have women motivated by lack of self control and others motivated by a need for sense of well-being. One may seek employment because she lacks the ability to find her sense of well-being within the family setting or within herself and needs the structures associated with employment to be satisfied, while the other may seek employment because it offers her a stage for her uninhibited and aggressive actions (which may be somewhat creative).

Separated from the profile as a whole, these items cannot give an adequate idea of whether these traits dominate the personality of the highly employment oriented woman or are merely traits which find more expression in the highly employment oriented woman than the woman who does not include employment in her life plans. Thus, the woman who plans to work at all times in her life may be low on these scales in comparison to the woman who does not plan to work, but still be in an average range of scores on these traits.

However, it is noteworthy that one of the two significant scales, the sense of well-being scale, is that one which is used to detect the person who is "faking bad." Gough (1964, p. 16) pointed out that:

One of the purposes of the Wb (sense of well-being) scale is to identify persons who are unduly exaggerating their worries and problems, unduly minimizing their well-being. Psychiatrically ill persons score below average on Wb, as they ought, but the exceptionally low scores are found among persons attempting to 'fake' the test.

It would be quite unusual for this population to be "faking" bad. Most probability a perusal of the data would yield a picture of medium scores, perhaps, medium-low scores, with no significance for the "faking" bad

test.

Only two of the empirical measures for the freshman year proved to be significant at the .05 level of probability and these two correlations were obtained in the reduced sample of 41. Although this is not as significant as might be hoped, these two measures do support the middle level hypothesis which states a relationship between after-college employment orientation and the concept of self as measured by the freshman CPI.

The computed correlation coefficient of after-college employment orientation with junior year CPI scores yielded no significant coefficients at the .05 level of probability for any of the CPI scales. Three coefficients were significant at the .10 level, social presence, flexibility, and sense of well-being (all negatively correlated with employment orientation). Although, a discussion of these measures is not appropriate since only the .05 level of probability was accepted for the purposes of this study, the repetition of the sense of well-being scale in the junior year as well as the freshman year for the reduced sample of 41 indicates some need for further research with this scale.

The middle level hypothesis which states a relationship between after-college employment orientation with the concept of self as measured by the junior year CPI scores was not supported by these data. Thus only one of the two middle level hypothesis derived from the general level hypothesis stating a relationship between self concept and after-college employment orientation was supported.

Values

Of the six value scores, only two were significant at the .05 level of probability for the freshman year for the total population of 83. A

significant relationship existed between employment orientation and value items for theoretical and political orientation. When the correlations for the reduced sample of 41 were run, no significant relationships at the .05 level of probability were found. No significant relationships at the .10 level of probability was found for either group.

It might be concluded that for the freshman group of 83, interest in power (political value) and discovery of truth, i.e., the aim of order and systematization (theoretical value) are related to high employment orientation after college. These two empirical measures support the middle level hypothesis which states a relationship between after-college employment orientation and freshman year value scores. These findings are consistent with Surette's (1967) interpretation of two of the needs which Hoyt and Kennedy (1958) cited as related to high employment orientation: (1) the need to establish one's worth through competitive behavior, and (2) need to intellectually know.

For the junior year, only one population, that of the 41 subjects, was examined for significant relationships. There were no significant relationships between after-college employment orientation and junior year value scores at either the .05 level or .10 level of probability.

The AVL yielded fewer significant relationships than did the CPI. Only one group had significant correlations for after-college employment orientation and that was the total group of 83 for the freshman year; however, these results were substantially similar to results of other researchers. No comparisons can be made between the total group and the group of 41 on the basis of this instrument. No comparisons can be made between junior and freshman year.

Only one middle level hypothesis stating the relationship between after-college employment orientation and values was supported.

Additional Findings

Perhaps the most interesting of the additional findings was the relationship between the parents' perception of the subjects after-college employment and the actual after-college employment orientation of the subject. These findings indicate that the measures of employment orientation for in-college and after-college are not incompatible (the parents' scores for their perception of the daughter's after-college employment orientation were taken from the same instrument used to test the daughter's in-college employment orientation). Moreover, these findings are supportive of the hypothesized relationship between employment orientation and needs. The parents, having more perspective than their offspring, can foresee the possibility that marriage will not be sufficient to fulfill the daily lives of their daughters. Meanwhile, the daughter is most concerned with her immediate need of finding a suitable marriage partner and does not foresee future needs beyond husband and family.

Conclusions

The general level null hypotheses stating a relationship of self concept and values with after-college employment orientation were supported by two of the four middle level hypotheses. In both cases where the middle level hypotheses were supported, the data was taken from the freshman year of college. In the case of the CPI freshman scores, the reduced sample of 41 yielded correlation coefficients which supported the middle level hypothesis, while in the case of the AVL, the total population

of 83 yielded the significant correlations.

The data supporting the general level hypothesis stating a relationship between personality and after college employment orientation seems rather sparse when only four out of 72 possible correlations coefficients are significant at the .05 level of probability. However, it is significant to the study that these four measures were taken from the 48 measures of the freshman year of college. A rationale for why the freshman scores were more significant than junior scores might be that the students who participated in this study became more aware of the test procedures and may have given less accurate accounts of themselves during the junior year.

Possible Reasons for Findings

The following discussion will focus on possible reasons that may have resulted in the lack of significant relationships between the dependent concept, employment orientation, and the selected independent concepts.

One possible reason for the lack of results could be the operational measures of employment orientation. As was reported in the Procedure and Method chapter, these measures were chosen because they forced the subject to state specifically during what kinds of circumstances and life cycle she might choose to work. A more subtle questionnaire with additional questions to cross validate the employment orientation questions might be more effective.

A second possible reason was the sample size and consistency. The sample was a small one and many of the subjects had not been out of college

long enough to establish themselves in communities or in a pattern of living. Less than half of the subjects had children and the majority had been married less than 4 years.

A third possibility is that the conceptual framework was not correct or adequate.

Suggestions for Further Research

First, this research raises some question about the change which takes place in women during college. Why should the freshmen scores correlated more closely than the junior score with after-college employment orientation?

Second, this research points to a need to use the same measure of employment in-college and after-college. This would mean revision of both empirical measures used in this study because neither is comprehensive enough to cover both the needs of the woman in-college and after-college.

Third, this research defined employment orientation operationally in terms of planning to work during the most life cycle stages. This operational definition leaves many subjects who might choose to work if outside pressures were not so great without a way of indicating this desire. A better definition of employment orientation needs to be developed to cover more subtle needs.

Fourth, this study reflects the need for more study of the relationship between parental attitudes and daughter's future employment.

Fifth, further research comparing the 41 subjects who completed the study to the 42 who did not complete the study would be profitable.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY

Educated American women are questioning whether a woman's only place is in the home; many feel their lives would be more complete if they were employed outside the home. Research indicates that a greater percentage of wives and mothers are working today than in 1948. Some research indicates a relationship between selected variables of personality and high employment orientation in women. However, no research studies were found which focused on the relationship between in-college personality and after-college employment orientation. Acknowledgment of such a relationship would aid professionals in counseling employment oriented young women.

An overview of personality was conceptualized based mainly on developmental and self theories. This conceptual framework assumes that personality is consistent and stable and that it is a motivator of behavior. From the conceptual framework two general level independent concepts were identified as possible determinants of college women's employment orientation. These concepts were: the self and values. The two general hypotheses expressing the relationship of these concepts to employment orientation were as follows:

General Null Hypothesis I. There is no relationship between a woman's in-college self concept and her after-college employment orientation.

General Null Hypothesis II. There is no relationship between a woman's in-college values and her after-college employment orientation.

The data for this research were obtained from Project No. 371 of the Kansas State University Agricultural Experiment Station. The subjects were women who scored in the upper ten percent of the entering freshmen on the scholastic aptitude who majored in home economics and those girls who were matched to the honors girls and were majoring in home economics. These girls did not represent a random sample.

The self concept was measured by the California Psychological Inventory given to the subjects during their freshman and junior years. The purpose of the test was to measure different aspects of the individual's self concept.

Values were measured by the Alport Vernon Lindzey Study of Values given to subjects during their freshman and junior years. The purpose of the test was to determine which of the six values (theoretical, economic, aesthetic, social, political and religious) were held by those subjects who were highly employment orientated.

Employment orientation was measured by two locally devised and coded checklists. These empirical measures made the subjects choose those times in their lives when they would prefer to be employed outside the home.

Five limitations of this study were identified. These were: first, that the sample was not a randomly selected; second, that not all subjects had not been out of the college situation a sufficiently long time to have developed attitudes toward employment as related to marriage and a family. Thirdly, the empirical measures had not been tested for

reliability with other samples; fourth, that the measures were very pragmatic. Fifth, that the standardized measures were not chosen for this particular study, but for a larger project.

A Pearson Product Moment correlation coefficient was computed to establish the relationship of the dependent variable, employment orientation, with the independent variables. The .05 level of probability was chosen to determine if the level was significant. Significant relationships between employment orientation and self concept were:

1. After-college employment orientation with freshman sense of well-being score.
2. After-college employment orientation with freshman self control score.

Significant relationships between employment orientation and values were:

1. After-college employment orientation with theoretical values.
2. After-college employment orientation with political values.

No significant relationship was found between in-college and after-college employment orientation.

Additional findings of significance included the fact that the mothers' and fathers' scores for perception of their daughters' after-college employment taken while the daughters were freshmen correlated at the .05 level of significance with the daughters' after-college employment orientation. Scores on the freshmen tests, the Alport Vernon Lindzey and California Psychological Inventory, correlated at the .05 level; scores on the junior tests for these measures also correlated at the .05 level. There was no significant relationship between freshman year scores and junior year scores on the California Psychological Inventory; nor was there a significant relationship between freshman and junior scores on

the Alport Vernon Lindsey.

This research indicated a need for a better definition of employment orientation that would include those women who would like to be employed outside the home but cannot be. A follow-up study of the subjects of this study would be beneficial in determining whether the women gave accurate accounts of the times during their lives when they would be employed. Further research is indicated into the relationship of parents' attitudes about employment for women and the employment of their daughters.

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APPENDIX A

FRESHMAN EMPLOYMENT ORIENTATION

CHECKLIST

(Coded)

Number from one (1) to nine (9), one denoting least interest in a career, and nine denoting most interest in a career.

- 9 I intend to be a career woman; I would not consider giving up a career for marriage.
- 8 I may get married eventually, especially if I don't have to give up my professional career.
- 6 I intend to work at least 5 years after college; then I may be willing to quit if I get married.
- 7 I plan to combine work and marriage for an indefinite length of time.
- 1 I feel very undecided on the question of whether a career or marriage would be more desirable to me.
- 4 I expect to work for a time after college, and then get married; but I'd be willing to alter those plans if the right man came along.
- 5 I plan to combine work and marriage for a few years, and then quit my job.
- 3 I expect to get married and do not plan on working in a career at all; but I hope to be qualified, through my studies, for a job in case my marriage plans don't work out.
- 2 I definitely do not expect to work in any professional job (one that requires college training) after my college studies are completed.

If you feel that none of these statements adequately expresses how you feel, or if you would like to qualify your answer in some way, please state your feelings below.

AFTER-COLLEGE EMPLOYMENT ORIENTATION
QUESTION AND CODE (Taken from
1966 Questionnaire)

23. At what times in your life do you expect to work?

1. 7 At all times.
2. 2 Before marriage.
3. 3 After marriage, before children.
4. 6 After children are 5 years old.
5. 5 After children are 12.
6. 4 After children are 18 and/or have left home.
7. _____ Other, please specify. (Those specified were: In case of husband's disability which was coded 1 and not applicable because not planning to work at all which was coded 0.)

APPENDIX B

TABLE 14
ITEM WITH TIMES WHEN EXPECT TO WORK

Item	Correlation
Persisted to graduation	-0.2027
Honors vs. non-honors	-0.2557
Year began	0.0011
Career orientation	0.7886
Size of community	-0.0650
Marital status	0.1331
Years married	-0.0859
Number of children	-0.0232
Age of oldest child	0.0872
Age of second child	-0.0592
Age of youngest child	0.0266
Husband's occupation	-0.0911
Husband's education	-0.0075
Husband's income	-0.0912
Subject's income	0.1155
Number of jobs held	0.1383
Subject's satisfaction with work	-0.0180
Job since marriage	-0.1001
Job since children born	0.0048
Presently employed	-0.1062
Present occupation	-0.0239
Part-time work	0.1281

TABLE 14--Continued

Item	Correlation
Work in future	-0.6186
Type of future work	0.5256
Reason for future work	0.4487
When expect to work	1.000
Adjective checklist	-0.0687
College work since K-State	-0.0142
Curriculum enrolled in	-0.1343
Advanced degree	-0.0206
Degree earned	-0.1958
Present work toward degree	0.0838
Degree working for	-0.2366
Plan further training	0.1759
When get further training	-0.2401
Area study in	0.1994
Desire to earn advanced degree	0.1774
Satisfaction with training	-0.2244
Schooling desired	0.0421
Satisfaction with undergraduate major	0.2556
Dissatisfaction, change major	-0.1736
# children planned	-0.1256
Satisfaction of prospective life picture	-0.0437
Organizations participation	0.0915
Volunteer work	0.0301

TABLE 14--Continued

Item	Correlation
Self-esteem test	-0.0754
Unfavorable adjective checklist	0.0295
Freshman F test	0.0202
Freshman 1st priority goal	-0.0492
Freshman 2nd priority goal	-0.1127
Freshman 3rd priority goal	0.0679
Senior 1st priority goal	-0.1550
Senior 2nd priority goal	0.0610
Senior 3rd priority goal	0.0208
Current 1st priority goal	-0.0501
Current 2nd priority goal	-0.0606
Current 3rd priority goal	-0.1174
# favorable adj. freshman	-0.0257
# favorable adj. freshman	0.0049
Changed major to	0.1162

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APPENDIX C

TABLE 15
CORRELATIONS OF ITEMS WITH AFTER-COLLEGE EMPLOYMENT ORIENTATION

Correlation Variable	Population		
	Total Sample (83)	Reduced Freshman Sample (41)	Reduced Junior Sample (41)
California Psychological Inventory:			
Dominance	.192*	.117	-.061
Capacity for status	.191*	.141	-.084
Sociability	.158	.045	-.166
Social presence	.133	.063	-.263*
Self acceptance	.168	.209	.0171
Sense of well-being	.033	-.308**	-.296*
Responsibility	.201*	.047	.046
Socialization	.046	-.195	.061
Self control	-.006	-.382**	-.156
Tolerance	.070	-.113	-.045
Good impression	.126	-.154	-.067
Communality	.015	.059	.071
Achievement via conformance	.090	-.064	-.164
Achievement via independence	.111	-.097	-.245
Intellectual efficiency	.194*	.024	-.293*
Psychological mindedness	.116	-.140	-.069
Flexibility	.177	-.045	-.294*

**Significant at .05 level.

*Significant at .10 level.

TABLE 15—Continued

Correlation Variable	Population		
	Total Sample (83)	Reduced Freshman Sample (41)	Reduced Junior Sample (41)
Femininity	.014	.011	.060
Alport Vernon Lindzey:			
Theoretical value	.324**	.018	.254
Economic value	.048	-.049	-.112
Aesthetic value	.027	-.065	.102
Social value	.034	-.076	-.176
Political value	.238**	-.008	-.031
Religious value	.055	.018	-.067

**Significant at .05 level.

*Significant at .10 level.

RELATIONSHIP OF IN-COLLEGE PERSONALITY WITH
AFTER-COLLEGE EMPLOYMENT ORIENTATION

by

CHERYL ANN CLARK BROWN

B. S., Kansas State University, 1966

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The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship of measures of in-college self concept and in-college values with after-college employment orientation.

Two general level null hypothesis were stated:

1. There is no relationship between a woman's in-college self concept and her after-college employment orientation.
2. There is no relationship between a woman's in-college values and her after-college employment orientation.

The population was drawn from 87 women who participated in a study of the Honors Program of the College of Home Economics at Kansas State University. A follow-up study of these subjects was completed in 1966. Eighty-three of the subjects completed the California Psychological Inventory (the measure chosen for self concept), the Alport Vernon Lindzey Study of Values (the measure chosen for values), and the 1966 Follow-up Study (the measure of after-college employment orientation).

The total population of 83 subjects was used to test the relationship between freshman in-college variables and after-college employment orientation. A population of 41 who had completed junior testing was drawn from the 83 subjects and used to retest the freshman in-college variables and test the junior in-college variables with after-college employment orientation.

A Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was selected to establish the relationship of each of the independent variables (self concept and values for both freshman and junior years) with the dependent variable (after-college employment orientation). The .05 level of probability was selected for the test of significance.

Four significant relationships were found: they were all for the freshman year. Significant relationships existed at the .05 level of probability for: (1) Theoretical values with after-college employment orientation for the total freshman population of 83, (2) Political values with after-college employment orientation for the total freshman population of 83, (3) Sense of well-being with after-college employment orientation was a negative correlation for the reduced freshman population of 41, and (4) Self control with after-college employment orientation was a negative correlation for the reduced population of 41. Additional findings indicated a relationship at the .05 level of significance for the parents' perception of after-college employment orientation with after-college employment orientation of the subject.

Limitations of this research include: (1) the sample was not randomly taken, (2) not all subjects had established themselves in after-college patterns of life, (3) the empirical measures of employment had not been used frequently enough to verify validity, (4) employment orientation was defined in a pragmatic, limited sense, and (5) the standardized tests were not selected for this research but for a larger project.

A great need for further research into in-college predictors of after-college employment orientation is evident. Implications and suggestions for future research in this area were presented.