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**A STUDY OF COLLEGE WOMEN'S ATTITUDES
TOWARD THE FEMININE ROLE**

by

Dorinda Duncan Trader

**A Dissertation Submitted to
the Faculty of the Graduate School at
The University of North Carolina at Greensboro
in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Philosophy**

**Greensboro
1972**

Approved by


Dissertation Adviser

APPROVAL PAGE

This dissertation has been approved by the following committee of the Faculty of the Graduate School at The University of North Carolina at Greensboro.

Dissertation
Adviser

Robert D. Helmer

Oral Examination
Committee Members

Carl M. Cochran

Helmer Canaday

Kimber Smith

Rebecca M. Smith

April 5, 1972
Date of Examination

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

With the recent revival of women's liberation movements, woman's place in American society and the "role" she should play are subjects of considerable debate and discussion.

American culture has undergone rapid technological and social change during the twentieth century, and women's roles have been affected by the change. Komarovsky (1950) believed that women have become a "social problem" because technological and social changes since the Industrial Revolution have upset the old equilibrium without as yet replacing it with another. This situation results in contradictory practices and beliefs with some old attitudes persisting in the face of new realities which have long since rendered such practices, beliefs, and attitudes meaningless.

Myrdal and Klein (1956) stated that:

At this point in our social history women are guided by two apparently conflicting aims. On one hand, they want, like everybody else, to develop their personalities to the full and to take an active part in adult social and economic life within the limits of their individual interests and abilities. On the other hand, most women want a home and a family of their own. At one time when most social and economic life was carried on at home these aims did not conflict with each other. They appear to do so today [p. xii].

Despite the large amount of theorizing, few research studies have been concerned with women's attitudes of the feminine role and with an examination of background factors which may be related to these attitudes. Therefore, a study which attacks these questions will have significant implications, not only for women themselves, but also for the family and other societal institutions. Evidence of the views which women actually hold toward the female role might further define the contradictions and inconsistencies. It might also help to clarify male-female role relationships and ultimately lead to a better understanding of marital relationships.

Since there are also inconsistencies in expectations and attitudes which make it difficult for some women to attain satisfaction in their lives, there is a need for a study which will also examine the relationship between certain cultural forces and personality factors as they affect the perception of the female role.

Purpose of the Study

One purpose of this study was to determine whether the attitudes of both black and white college women toward the feminine role would be more modern or traditional in their own feminine role concepts, ideal feminine role concepts, and perceptions of men's ideal woman. A second purpose was to compare the three role concepts as they relate to these seven factors in the students' background and experience:

1. Social class position
2. Marriage and career expectations (future plans)

3. Position in family
4. Dominance of parents
5. Closeness to parents
6. Happiness of parents' marriage
7. Personal adjustment

Clarification of Terms Used

Self-Concept. Briefly, self-concept is that system of central meanings which the individual has about himself and his relation to the social world about him. Another more elaborate definition is as follows:

Self-concept or self-structure may be thought of as an organized configuration of perceptions of the self which are admissible to awareness. It is composed of such elements as the perceptions of one's characteristics and abilities; the percepts and concepts of the self in relation to others and to the environment; the value qualities which are perceived as associated with experiences and objects; and the goals and ideals are perceived as having positive and or negative values [Rogers, 1951, p. 131].

Role. Role implies interaction between two or more members of a social situation.

As Steinmann (1957) put it:

In order to communicate, the interacting individuals have to establish a common frame of reference. This they do by reacting with an internally consistent series of responses to a given situation. Their behavior is expected by others in that situation who in turn react with a similarly consistent series of responses. Thus, a role is both a mode of behavior and a mode of perceiving and interpreting the behavior of others. It encompasses both the behaving organism and the expectancies which the perceiving organism has regarding this behavior [p. 283].

Feminine Role. As defined in this study, the feminine role is the result of interaction between cultural and psychological factors. On the cultural level it is the behavior expected of a woman or the behavior she considers fitting her position as a woman. On the psychological level it is the inner attitude toward this behavior and the personality needs of the individual which may determine the way she interprets and carries out cultural expectations.

The concept of the feminine role is further defined as the result of a woman's attitude and orientation toward fulfillment in life. She may fulfill herself by developing her own potentialities, or she may fulfill herself through the intermediary of people in her life. These attitudes and orientations are not mutually exclusive. They coexist in varying degrees in each person (Fand, 1955).

Traditional and Modern Concepts of the Feminine Role. The traditional concept of the feminine role is that concept held by the woman who conceives of herself as the "other," the counterpoint of the man and children in her life. She realizes herself indirectly by fostering their fulfillment. She performs a nurturing role. Her achievement is to help others achieve. She fulfills herself by proxy (Fand, 1955).

The modern concept of the feminine role is that concept held by a woman who embraces the achieving orientation of the American culture. She strives to fulfill herself directly by realizing her own potentialities. She performs an achieving role. She fulfills herself through her own accomplishments.

In this study the woman who holds the traditional concept of the feminine role also will be referred to as other-oriented; the woman who holds the modern concept, as self-oriented.

Between these two extremes are women who are more or less other- or self-oriented. Women of either category may be housewives or career women, married or single. It is not their statuses alone which distinguish them; it is their philosophies, their systems of values, and their ultimate goals in life.

Operationally defined, traditional or modern attitudes toward the feminine role refer to the respondents' scores on the Kammeyer Scale of Attitudes Toward Feminine Role Behavior (See Appendix A) which was used in this study.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The Impact of Culture on the Feminine Role

The impact of culture on the feminine role has a vast literature. Anthropologists such as Mead (1935, 1949), Kardiner (1945, 1954), DuBois (1944), and Linton (1938, 1947) discussed different cultural systems in terms of age, sex, occupation, group membership, and family and how these organizational systems shape the individual.

Parsons (1942) in writing on "Age and Sex in the Social Structure of the United States" pointed out that in our society there is no sharp differentiation between the sexes in early childhood. "It is at the point of emergence into adolescence that there first begins to develop a set of patterns and behavior phenomena which involves a highly complex combination of age grading and sex role elements (p. 365)." This differentiation of sex roles continues into adulthood.

Cottrell (1947) focused on the degree of adjustment an individual is expected to make as he functions in a given role in a given culture. He pointed to the importance of:

1. The clarity with which the roles are defined.
2. The consistency between what is verbally given and what is demonstrated in practice.
3. The degree of compatability between the various roles assigned to one and the same individual.
4. Whether the prescribed role is or is not instrumental in permitting the individual to realize the dominant goals set by his subcultural group.
5. Whether the individual has had sufficient opportunities to learn the role that is expected of him through identification and rehearsals.

Fand (1955) said that where the feminine role is concerned hardly any of these conditions are fulfilled.

Not only is this role not clearly defined, but it is the topic of overt controversy. While the virtues of domesticity are upheld on a verbal level, social practice confers all the prestige upon the man's achievement-oriented role. The role of wife and mother, with very few exceptions, is incompatible with an occupational role, and does not allow the individual woman to realize the dominant goal set by our culture. As for learning the feminine sex role, while the girl is offered opportunities to engage in feminine activities, she is also encouraged to take part in masculine activities and to enter into competition with boys, thus rehearsing aspects of the masculine role as well [p. 16].

Kluckhohn (1954) stated that the dominant value orientation of our society is expressed in the man's occupational role whereas

... the behavior expected of women in the wife-mother role is relative to value orientations which are markedly different from the dominant American value. The man is expected to be independent, whereas, from the woman ... we all expect a subordination of individualistic goals to those of the family as a group. Man's occupational role is also an action-oriented one ... while in woman's role it is expected that much attention will be given to all those things intellectual, aesthetic, and moral which busy men define as the nice, but non-essential embroidery of American life [p. 356].

Horner (1970) also pointed out that women as well as men in our society are immersed in a culture that rewards and values achievement and that stresses self-reliance, individual freedom, self-realization, and the full development of individual resources. However, despite the prevalence of these values in most middle-class American homes, femininity and individual achievement continue to be viewed as two desirable but mutually exclusive ends. Because of these cultural attitudes toward appropriate sex role, the horizons for women have been limited.

Several years ago Komarovsky (1946) published a study in which she discussed the contradictory sex roles which the culture provides for the American college girl. Komarovsky (1946) labeled the two general sex roles available to the American college girl as "feminine" and "modern." According to her, the goals set by each role are mutually exclusive and the fundamental personality traits each evokes are at some points diametrically opposed. She further described the feminine role as having a number of variants (the "good sport," the

"glamour girl," the "young lady," the "domestic home girl," etc.) which have a common core of attributes defining proper attitudes toward men, family, work, love, and a set of personality traits often described with reference to the male role as not as dominant or aggressive as men or more emotional and sympathetic than men. The "modern" role partly obliterates the differentiation in sex. It demands of women much the same virtues, patterns of behavior, and attitudes that it does of the men of corresponding age. When a girl is in college, the conflict between the two roles apparently centers about academic work, social life, vocational plans, excellence in specific fields of endeavor, and a number of personality traits.

Wallin (1950) repeated Komarovsky's study using a questionnaire technique. The findings of the two studies agreed. Wallin, however, did not find that the college females were as seriously disturbed by conflict as Komarovsky did.

Studies of Feminine Role Perceptions

Fand (1955) studied the feminine sex role as perceived by 85 freshmen college women in a School of Home Economics. A rating inventory was administered for the subjects to respond to for themselves, their ideal woman, the average woman, and men's ideal woman. As a group these college women saw the feminine sex role as combining approximately equal amounts of traditional ("other-oriented") and modern ("self-oriented") elements. They perceived the ideal woman as having an attitude very similar to their own. The average woman was seen as significantly more other-oriented than themselves or their

ideal woman. Men's ideal woman was seen as highly other-oriented and thus different, not only from themselves and their ideal woman, but also from the average woman. Clinical analysis of representative cases supported Fand's hypothesis that the choice each woman makes between a traditional (other-oriented) or progressive (self-oriented) concept of the feminine role -- or combinations thereof -- depends upon her self-concept.

Steinmann (1963) added to the literature on feminine role perception by studying 51 middle-class American college girls and their mothers and fathers. She used the Feminine Role Rating Inventory devised by Fand, a personal data form, and interviews with selected subjects. In addition to using the inventory under the same response conditions as Fand did, she added forms for both mothers' and fathers' expectations for the daughters. For an investigation of the fathers' concepts of the feminine role, the rating inventory consisted of two forms: concept of the Average Woman and concept of Men's Ideal Woman.

Steinmann (1963) also found that these daughters, mothers, and fathers considered the feminine role to be made up of approximately equal amounts of other-oriented and self-oriented elements. Both the mothers' and daughters' concepts of the average woman and men's ideal woman, however, were significantly more other-oriented than their own or ideal concepts. Although the fathers in this study perceived the feminine role, for both the average woman and their ideal woman as made up of equal amounts of self- and other-oriented elements, they saw the ideal woman as significantly more other-oriented than the average woman.

Data presented by Steinmann and Fox (1966) on "Male-Female Perceptions of the Female Role in the United States" further supported the findings from the two previous studies. Most women delineated a self-perception relatively balanced between strivings for self-realization, development, and achievement through their own potentialities -- that is, extra-family strivings -- and self-realization and fulfillment by indirection through permissive nurturing and other-achieving or intra-family strivings. Their ideal woman was slightly more active than their self-perceptions. Women saw men's ideal woman as significantly more accepting and permissive than their own self-perceptions of a subordinate role in both personal development and women's place in the family structures. Men, on the other hand, delineated an ideal woman relatively balanced between active and permissive elements. The authors go on to state that both the men and women are ambivalent and contradictory in their attitudes of what each expects of the other.

Another study on the self-concept of 75 college women compared with their concept of the ideal woman and men's ideal woman (Steinmann, Levi, and Fox, 1964) also used the Fand Inventory of Feminine Values. Results indicated that the group was equally balanced between passive (traditional) and active (modern) elements of the female role. Scores on the ideal form, however, indicated that they preferred to be more active than they actually were. The mean score for the group on the men's ideal form was significantly higher on the positive end,

reflecting the strength of the passive image these college women believe that men desire. These data all suggest some intrapsychic conflict, for the women's self-concept was not the same as that which she thinks she should have.

The findings of Kalka's (1967) investigation of feminine role concepts of freshman and senior college women using the Fand inventory also agreed with those findings of other studies cited (Fand 1955; Steinmann 1963). The total group's own concepts of the feminine role did not differ a great deal between other-orientation and self-orientation. Its concept of the ideal woman was slightly more other-oriented; and its concept of men's ideal woman was a great deal more other-oriented.

When Kalka (1967) compared the feminine role perceptions of her subjects both in terms of classification and enrollment in the colleges of home economics and arts and sciences, some differences were found. Seniors were more other-oriented in their own-self concepts than freshmen. Freshmen enrolled in home economics were more other-oriented in their concepts of the ideal woman.

Meyer (1966) investigated expectations for the feminine role among 142 women and 99 men at midwestern Catholic institutions of higher learning. Two of the instruments used in the study (a Feminine Role Rating Inventory and a Feminine Stereotype Scale) were administered to the women's samples under three response conditions of Self, Women in General, and Men's Ideal Woman. It was found that feminine self-conceptualizations were normally distributed along a nurturant self-fulfillment continuum.

Background Factors Influencing Women's Roles

Racial Background

Steinmann and Fox (1970) investigated attitudes toward women's family role among black and white male and female undergraduates. The authors stated that their study was an attempt particularly to determine whether black college women held to the previously established patterns of sex-role perceptions among women; that is, whether they believed men desired strongly family-oriented women. The mean scores for black women's self-perceptions and perceptions of the ideal woman on the Maferr Inventory of Female Values (the revised Fand Inventory) used in this study were not significantly different from white women's mean scores. Both black and white women's self-perceptions and ideal perceptions could be described as having elements of both extra-family, self-achieving strivings, and intra-family, other-achieving strivings. Both means, though, were slightly more self-achieving or extra-family in orientation.

In Steinmann and Fox's (1970) study, however, the black woman's perception of men's ideal woman was "dramatically" different from previously observed findings. The black college woman considered men as wanting a woman balanced between self-actualizing and other-orientedness rather than a strongly traditionally oriented woman. Black professional women had previously been found to perceive men's ideal woman as more traditionally oriented. The perception of men's ideal woman by black men was also closer to that of black women than had been obtained for other subjects in previous research of this type.

No significant differences were found between black women's perceptions of men's ideal woman and black (or white) males' perceptions of the ideal woman. The usual significant differences were found between the white female's perception and the male's perception of men's ideal woman. There were no differences between white and black male students' perceptions of their ideal woman.

The authors go on to point out some of the possible explanations and implications of the perception of men's ideal woman by black undergraduates. One of these explanations may be that black youth in today's society has more exposure to the reality of the working mother than white youth has. Black young men and women still recognize this as an area of conflicts. It may also be possible that racial differences in sex-role perceptions may be the result of the increased general social sensitivity of black Americans.

However, one of the hypotheses tested by Steinmann and Fox (1966) in their earlier study which gave some indication that race is not a significant factor in perception of the female role was stated as follows:

[that]despite differences in socioeconomic class, ethnic, or racial background, level of education, occupation or professional status, American women share certain values in relation to their roles in and out of the family, and that specifically they share a perceived conflict between the level of activity and independence they would like and the much lower level of activity they believe men would prefer them to have [p. 265].

Their data supported this hypothesis. Steinmann (1968) also indicated that this basic hypothesis has withstood the test of time in terms of the large numbers of women sampled and their diverse origins.

Social Class Background

Differences in social class have been found to be important in feminine role perceptions. Rabban (1950) pointed out that lower class mothers are more acceptant of the traditional feminine role for themselves than are middle class mothers, and they actively teach and initiate their daughters into the culture's definition of appropriate sex behavior.

Another study by Ort (1952) has shown that there are a significantly higher number of role conflicts in the middle class than there are in the lower class.

Komarovsky's (1964) study of blue-collar marriages also supported this difference in class attitudes. She stated that the working class housewife does not suffer the frustrations said to be at the root of the college woman's discontent. Her typical respondent was the wife of a semi-skilled worker who accepted housewifery as a natural role for women and who exhibited a more favorable attitude toward housekeeping. There was hardly a trace of the low prestige that educated urban women sometimes attach to their role.

Cavan (1953) has also noted that the social situation to which the family is now adjusting itself is dominated by four interrelated processes: mechanization, mobility, urbanism, and industrialization --

all of which are still growing rapidly. Middle class families are most involved in the issues of family life occasioned by social changes. Therefore, it might be expected that the attitudes of women from middle class backgrounds would be less traditional in terms of the feminine role.

In Fand's (1955) study the parents' education and economic level proved to be a differentiating factor in the concept that the college girls had of their feminine sex roles. It appeared that the lower the parents' educational and economic level, the more other-oriented the subjects.

Marriage and Career Expectations

Steinmann (1957) pointed out that work aspirations after college and reasons for continuing work after marriage were significant factors in college females' perceptions of the feminine role. She found that girls who planned to go into secretarial work were more other-oriented (family) than girls who planned to go into teaching, research, social work, or other professions. Girls who planned to teach were significantly more self-oriented than all the other groups, except those indicating choice of other professions. Although there were no significant differences in feminine role perception when the girls were grouped according to their desire to continue or not to continue work after marriage, the reasons for continuing work were important. Girls who wanted to continue work after marriage either for financial reasons or as a means of self-expression had a significantly more

other-oriented score than those girls who wanted to continue work for both financial reasons and as a means of self-expression.

Porter (1967) explored the sex role concepts of women in the senior class of a private eastern university to determine the relationship between attitudes about sex role and plans for marriage, work, and graduate school as well as between goals held during the college years.

The adoption of sex-role attitudes was found appropriately related to other attitudes and to behavior. Self-oriented women felt more strongly about pursuing graduate study, and planned to enter graduate school to a greater extent than did women who were not self-oriented. They were also less interested in finding husbands. Conversely, other-oriented subjects were interested in finding spouses and in working upon graduating from college [p. 1903].

Several studies (Hoyt and Kennedy, 1958; Wagman, 1965; Rand, 1968) have established differences between career and homemaking-oriented college women in interests, personality, ability, and values. These studies have implied that career-oriented women were more masculine in the studied characteristics, and homemaking-oriented, more feminine. These women differed on characteristics generally considered by the culture to be more appropriate to one sex than the other. The greater achievement, dominance, endurance, and independence found to typify career-oriented women are generally considered masculine personality characteristics; whereas the nurturance, succorance, empathy, understanding, sociality, heterosexuality, and closer family relationships found to typify homemaking-oriented women are generally considered feminine personality characteristics.

In comparing career-oriented and homemaking-oriented groups of women in terms of interests and personality traits, Hoyte and Kennedy (1958) further suggested that homemaking-oriented women had extrinsic job motivation and interests similar to women in occupations requiring little educational training. Career girls seemed to have had intrinsic job motivation and interests similar to women in occupations dominated by men and requiring educational training beyond four years of college.

On the basis of her study Rand (1968) stated that it was reasonable to conclude that the career-oriented freshman woman deviated from the traditional feminine role and had defined her role to include behaviors appropriate to both sexes. The homemaking-oriented freshman woman appeared to adhere closely to the traditional feminine role.

Rappaport, Payne, and Steinmann (1970) compared the female role perceptions of the feminine sex role held by married and single college women. An analysis of the scores obtained on three forms (Self, Ideal Woman, and Men's Ideal Woman) of the Inventory of Female Values yielded the following results: (a) married college women perceived themselves as significantly more self-achieving than did single college women; (b) married college women also perceived their ideal woman as even more self-achieving than they themselves were; (c) both married and single college women perceived men's ideal woman as intrafamilial or other-oriented.

In the light of the present findings, it appears that single college women were preserving the traditional female stereotype, whereas the married students were accepting for themselves the value of self-achievement. The single students indicated on the inventories that their main goal in life was to

fulfill the role of wife and mother. These married women, having already secured a husband and having decided to remain in college instead of bearing children, were less influenced by traditional stereotypes regarding femininity and more concerned with personal growth and development outside the family context. The data suggests further that while these select married women were capable of rejecting traditional stereotypes for themselves and their ideal woman, they still attributed this intrafamilial and domestic orientation to man's ideal woman. These findings also support earlier findings of a discrepancy between women's self-perceptions and their perception of how they think men would like them to be [p. 442].

Other Background Factors

Some studies have related other background factors to perception of the feminine role. These factors were birth order or position in the family, dominance of parents, closeness to parents, and happiness of parents' marriage.

Steinmann (1963) found that middle children were significantly more self-oriented than both the youngest and the oldest children were. On the other hand, only children were significantly more other-oriented than were both the youngest and the middle children. Fand (1955) also found that position in the family appeared to be a differentiating factor in the way a girl perceived her feminine sex role. The oldest children were more other-oriented than the others were. The youngest children were on the self-oriented side. Only the middle children were more self-oriented than the youngest children. Only children came next to the oldest children in other-orientation.

On the Fand Feminine Role Rating Inventory, Steinmann (1963) also found a significant difference between the mean scores of the girls who felt the dominant figure in their family was their mother

and those who answered that their parents were equally dominant. Those girls who considered their mother the more dominant figure had a significantly more other-oriented score than those girls who thought their parents to be equally dominant.

In this same study Steinmann (1963) also found that girls who were equally close to both parents had a mean own-self score that was other-oriented. Those girls who were close to neither parent had a mean own-self score that was self-oriented. The difference between these means was significant, indicating that those girls who said they felt equally close to both parents were significantly more other-oriented than those who were close to neither parent.

Both Fand (1955) and Steinmann (1963) found that the happiness of parents' marriages was an important factor in perception of the female role. In the Fand (1955) study the mean score on the role rating inventory was somewhat more other-oriented for those girls who rated their parents' marriages as average in happiness. The subjects who rated their family life as unhappy were described as having a slightly vindictive attitude. The subjects who rated their family life as happy had an average score of 1.49, which approaches the average score of the whole sample and also the zero point of balance between self- and other-orientation. Steinmann (1963) found that girls who rated their parents' marriage as happy had a significantly more other-oriented score than the girls had who rated their parents' marriage as average.

Personal Adjustment and Role Conception

The impact of inner conflict on the feminine role has been stressed by psychologists (Thompson, 1949) and psychiatrists (Horney, 1950; Deutsch, 1944) as well as by philosophical commentators on human nature (Beauvoir, 1953). Horney (1950) has said that the conflict is essentially one between the need for self-realization and the need for belonging, the need for being unique and the need for being involved, and the need to be dominant and the need to be dependent.

Thompson (1949) has stated that a woman is divided:

She has to cope with emotional pressures not only from society as a whole, but from individuals most important to her. One of the most significant of these pressures is the attitude of a prospective husband who has his own traditions and views and wishes for his future wife and, since he is often confused in his attempt to adjust to the new ways of life, may interpret the woman's struggle to find a place for herself as evidence of lack of love or a slur on his manhood [p. 151].

Binger (1961), in discussing emotional disturbances among college women, attributes major importance to the incompatibility between female role and success in a college setting.

In Porter's (1967) study of sex role concepts of college women, one objective was to relate these concepts to the subjects' psychological well-being. Psychological well-being was assessed with the Elation-Depression and Ego Strength Scales. The prediction, however, that women who were extremely self- or other-oriented would obtain lower scores on the Elation-Depression and Ego Strength Scales was not confirmed. There was a negative correlation between some of

the self-oriented factors and age, and the possibility that certain aspects of the self-orientation were related to immaturity was considered. The self-oriented composite score was also negatively related to hedonic level (happiness) during the junior level.

Fand (1955) assumed that the self-concept of a woman has a great bearing on her interpretation of the feminine sex role. A woman who considers herself to be an adequate individual and accepts herself without feeling compelled to seek reassurance for her basic anxiety in her human relations is likely to have a flexible concept of the feminine role, combining to some degree both nurturing and achieving elements. A woman whose personality has developed under unfavorable conditions and whose self-concept is warped is likely to be rigid in her interpretation of the feminine role. In her need to find reassurance and to combat her feeling of personal unworthiness, she will adhere to the pattern of behavior which relieves her basic anxiety. The solution to her problem may be in completely identifying with the man in her life at the price of losing her individuality or rebelling against any form of dependency and aggressively competing with men by achieving in "their world." Fand did not use projective techniques, personality inventories, or other methods to get at the "objective self," but she did obtain support for this assumption from the case material of her subjects.

Although various research studies have been concerned with women's attitudes toward the feminine role, a more definitive study in this area would be a significant contribution to the literature.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

The purpose of this study was to compare black and white college women in terms of their self-concepts of the feminine role, their concepts of the ideal feminine role, and their concepts of men's ideal woman, and to examine the relationship of these attitudes to certain factors in the background and experience of these subjects.

Hypotheses

The major hypotheses for this research were as follows:

Hypothesis I. More college women will hold a more modern view than a traditional view of their own feminine sex roles.

It seems logical to assume that technological advances in this society would also be reflected in a more modern attitude toward woman's role. A study by Kirkpatrick (1936) compared male and female college students in regard to attitudes toward feminism. In every case in the study the students' mean score on a Belief-Pattern Scale for Measuring Attitudes Toward Feminism was higher than the mean score of their parents.

Hypothesis II. More college women will hold a more traditional view than a modern view of the ideal feminine sex role.

Much has been written about confusion, inconsistencies, and contradictions in sex role (Komarovsky, 1946; Thompson, 1950). Therefore, even though many women have adopted a modern view, evidence of some conflict may be reflected in their perceptions of the ideal woman as still traditional. Research evidence in regard to this is not clear. There is some evidence to indicate that perception of own-sex role and ideal woman are quite similar; hence, no conflict or confusion (Steinmann, 1963). There is also evidence, however, that "ideally" women would like to be more active and self-assertive than they actually are (Steinmann, 1968; Rappaport, et al., 1970).

Hypothesis III. College women will perceive men's ideal woman as more traditional than modern.

Several studies dealing with male-female role perceptions have shown that even though women may see themselves as more self-oriented or modern, they still feel that men prefer them to be more traditional (Steinmann and Fox, 1966; Steinmann, 1968).

One study (Steinmann and Fox, 1970), however, did show that black college undergraduates, unlike black professional women, white undergraduates and white women generally, did not attribute strong family strivings to men's ideal woman. The black college women considered men wanting a woman balanced between self-actualizing and family-oriented goals (Steinmann, and Fox, 1970).

Hypothesis IV. Race will not be a significant distinguishing factor in the concepts of own-self, ideal woman, and perception of men's ideal woman among these college women.

Some indication that race is not a significant factor in female role perceptions is based on one of the hypotheses tested by Steinmann and Fox (1966) that "despite differences in socioeconomic class, ethnic or racial background, level of education, occupation or professional status, American women share certain values in relation to their roles in and out of the family ... (p. 265)." The data obtained by Steinmann and Fox (1966) supported this hypothesis.

The remainder of the hypotheses are stated in terms of the influence of selected background factors on attitudes toward the feminine role. These hypotheses were tested, however, for all three measures of attitudes toward the feminine role (self-concept, ideal woman, and men's ideal woman).

Hypothesis V. College women of both races from working class background will have a more traditional attitude toward the feminine role than those women from middle class backgrounds will have.

In whatever has been written about female unrest, discontent, and disillusionment, the writers in general are speaking of middle class white women who are unhappy in traditional roles.

Cavan (1953) has also noted that middle class families are most involved in the issues of family life occasioned by social change. Therefore, it might be expected that middle class females would have less traditional attitudes toward the feminine role than those females from working class backgrounds. Empirical evidence also exists to indicate the greater role conflict and less acceptance of the traditional female role by middle class females (Fand, 1955; Ort, 1952; Rabban, 1950; Komarovsky, 1964).

Hypothesis VI. College women of both races who are planning for a job, career, or profession will have a more modern or self-oriented attitude toward the female role than those women who are planning only for marriage will have.

Several studies have indicated that women who are planning for a particular kind of job or career or for graduate study are more self-oriented than those who are planning only for marriage (Porter, 1967; Steinmann, 1963).

Other studies have also revealed differences in achievement motivations, interests, and other personality characteristics between career-oriented and homemaking-oriented females (Hoyt and Kennedy, 1958; Rand, 1968).

Hypothesis VII. Position in the family is a significant factor in the perception of the feminine role by college women of both races. Oldest and only children will be significantly more other-oriented (traditional) than those children occupying other positions in the family.

Steinmann (1963) found that middle children were significantly more self-oriented than both the youngest and oldest children were. On the other hand, only children were significantly more other-oriented than were both the youngest and the middle children.

Fand (1955) also found that position in the family constellation was important in the choice of a feminine role.

Hypothesis VIII. College women of both races from homes where the mother is the dominant figure will be more other-oriented (traditional) in their attitudes toward the feminine role.

Some evidence exists to show that girls who considered their mother the more dominant figure had a significantly more other-oriented score than those girls who thought their parents to be equally dominant (Steinmann, 1963).

Hypothesis IX. College women of both races who are equally close to both parents will be more other-oriented than those women who are close to only one parent or close to neither parent.

Closeness to parents was found to be a differentiating factor in the way a girl perceived the feminine role in Steinmann's (1963) data.

Hypothesis X. College women of both races who judge their parents' marriages as happy will be more traditional in their attitudes toward the feminine role.

A similar hypothesis was supported in both the Fand (1955) and Steinmann (1963) studies.

Hypothesis XI. College women of both races who show good personal adjustment will have a flexible concept of the feminine role, combining both nurturing (other) and achieving (self) elements.

Fand's (1955) case material supported the assumption that the self-concept of a woman has a great bearing on her interpretation of the feminine role. She stated that a woman who feels herself to be an adequate individual and accepts herself is likely to have a flexible concept of the feminine role, combining both other-oriented and self-oriented elements.

Measuring Instruments

With the exception of the personal data questionnaire, instruments which have been used in previous studies were available to measure the variables of this study. The various measuring instruments were combined to form a single questionnaire. Each measuring instrument used in the study is described below.

Attitudes Toward Feminine Role

To determine attitudes toward the feminine role, a scale developed by Kammeyer (1964) was used. Attitudes toward the normative role are described as attitudes toward the proper kinds of behavior for women in various spheres of life.

In 1961 Kammeyer presented eight items concerned with feminine role behavior in a structured questionnaire form to 209 unmarried girls on a state university campus. However, only five items could be included in the final scale.

The primary task was to develop a set of statements about feminine role behavior which would meet the criteria of an attitude scale, in this case, the Guttman scaling technique. The resultant scale would provide an ordinal measure of attitudes toward feminine role behavior. As so conceived, the subjects falling at one extreme on the scale would hold the most modern attitudes toward feminine role behavior, and the subjects at the opposite extreme would hold the most traditional attitudes [Kammeyer, 1964, p. 296].

The five items making up the scale were presented in rank order from the most frequently endorsed to the least frequently endorsed. For those items, the response categories "agree," "agree somewhat," "disagree somewhat," and "disagree" were employed.

The five items of the scale are:

1. In marriage, the major responsibility of the wife is to keep her husband and children happy.
2. One of the most important things a mother can do for her daughter is prepare her for the duties of being a wife.
3. In marriage, the husband should make the major decisions.
4. For a college girl, social poise is more important than grade point average.
5. English is a better major for a college girl than economics [Kammeyer, 1964, p. 297].

Scale types on the feminine role behavior scale were from 0 to 5. Subjects in scale type 5 agreed with all items; subjects in scale type 4 agreed with all items except one, and so on. Subjects agreeing with none of the items were classified as scale type 0. The scale was cut between scale types 2 and 3; the top 3 scale types (3, 4, 5) being characterized as endorsing the traditional feminine role; the other types (0, 1, 2) as endorsing the modern role.

Validity. Two scales were developed by Kammeyer (1964) and used in his study. The one which has been described was concerned with feminine role behavior. The other was concerned with female personality traits. Strauss (1969) stated that there was evidence of construct validity. In this study (Kammeyer, 1964) the two scales were related. The degree of association between the two attitudes as measured by Yule's Q was .59.

Reliability. The coefficient of reproducibility was .93 in Kammeyer's (1964) study, and this was used as an indication of reliability. This was also Criterion I for an acceptable Guttman scale. The scale also met the other criteria for a Guttman scale.

Administration of the Scale. The Kammeyer scale was administered as three separate forms (or under three different response conditions as follows: Form A, which measured the self-concept of the feminine role; Form B, which measured the concept of the ideal woman's role; and Form C, which measured the concept of men's ideal woman.

The scales and instructions for each form are in Appendix A.

The Adjective Check List

The Adjective Check List (ACL) is a standardized, 300-adjective list devised by Gough (1965). Need Scales, representing 15 of the dispositions within Murray's (1938) need-press system, were devised for the ACL by Heilbrun (1965). There are 9 other scales and indices currently available for use with the ACL (Gough and Heilbrun, 1965).

The Personal Adjustment Scale of the ACL was the most important one for this study. The Personal Adjustment Scale was devised from an item analysis with subjects rated higher and lower on personal adjustment and personal soundness.

The scale seems to depict a positive attitude toward life more than an absence of problems and worries. The attitudinal set is one of optimism, cheerfulness, interest in others, and a readiness to adapt. The high scoring subject is seen as dependable, peaceable, trusting, friendly, practical, loyal, and wholesome. ...

The subject low on the personal adjustment scale sees himself as at odds with other people and as moody and dissatisfied. This view is reciprocated by observers, who describe the low scorer as aloof, defensive, anxious, inhibited, worrying, withdrawn, and unfriendly. What appears to begin as a problem in self-definition eventuates as a problem in interpersonal living [Gough and Heilbrun, p. 7].

Validity. Research and technical information on the validity of the ACL was to be found in studies cited in the bibliography of the Manual.

The authors presented tables of the correlation between scales of the ACL, the California Psychological Inventory (CPI), and the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI). The number of adjectives checked showed an expected relationship to Hypomania on the MMPI, and the expected negative relationship with Depression on the same inventory. Positive correlations with CPI's Self-acceptance and Sociability scales were also in the anticipated direction. Personal adjustment was shown to correlate negatively with eight of the ten psychopathological dimensions on the MMPI.

Intercorrelations among standard scores on the scales of the ACL for males and females were also presented. Most of these correlations were low enough to indicate independence among the scales.

Reliability. Evidence on the reliability of the ACL came from test-retest reliability of the list of words, test-retest reliability of scales, and agreement among judges.

Test-retest reliability coefficients of the list of words, given six months apart to a sample of 100 men, varied from .01 to .86 with a mean of .54. This mean is not high and "... suggests that the self-image as projected in ACL responses is perhaps not as stable as that found in self-report inventories using items and questions (Gough and Heilbrun, 1965, p. 12)."

Test-retest reliability coefficients of the scales, administered to four samples over varying periods of time (10 weeks, 6 months, 5 1/2 years), appeared to be quite adequate over the 10 week interval of time. "These reliability coefficients for 56 college males and 23 females tested 10 weeks apart ranged from .90 to .45 (Gough and Heilbrun, 1965, pp. 12-13)."

Five inter-group reliability coefficients measuring agreement among judges on five cases were .70, .63, .61, .75, and .61. "These values are satisfactory and indicate that the ACL can be used by trained observers to describe others with adequate reliability (Gough and Heilbrun, 1965, p. 13)."

Administration and Scoring. The ACL was administered as a group test. The printed directions on the test were read aloud to the subjects. The IBM 1230 Answer Sheets (with the adjectives on them) were used in this study.

Personal Data Questionnaire

In order to obtain more specific knowledge of the subjects' backgrounds the investigator designed a personal data questionnaire. By means of these questionnaires an indication of each subjects' family setting, educational background, and economic status was computed. (See Appendix A).

Subjects

The selection of subjects was limited to junior and senior college women in order to obtain a relatively homogeneous sample with respect to level of maturity. All of the subjects were single and between 18 and 25 years of age.

The subjects were obtained from three institutions of higher education in Greensboro, North Carolina. The particular institutions selected were the University of North Carolina at Greensboro, North Carolina Agricultural and Technical State University, and Bennett College. The first two institutions are large co-educational, state-supported institutions which offer both graduate and undergraduate training. The first is predominantly white and the second predominantly black. The remaining institution is a four-year college related to the United Methodist Church; it is predominantly black.

A total of 224 subjects comprised the sample. Ninety-six of these subjects were black and 128 were white.

Students who were enrolled in undergraduate courses in child development and family relations at the respective institutions were selected to participate in this study. It was decided to select students in these courses because a preliminary survey revealed that they represented a cross-section of students in these institutions. The major areas of specialization included psychology, art, sociology, nursing, English, French, business, mathematics, and biology as well as child development and education. In all, 29 different major areas were represented.

Social Class Position

Hollingshead's Two-Factor Index of Social Position was used to determine the social class position of the subjects. This Index requires knowledge of the occupation and educational attainment of the fathers in order to estimate positions individuals occupy in the status structure of the community. This information was obtained from the Personal Data Forms filled out by the subjects.

Hollingshead and others "have made extensive studies of the reliability of scoring and the validity of the Index on over one hundred variables (Bonjean, et al., 1967, p. 385)." The Index appears to be a reliable and valid measure on the basis of these studies.

The scales which were used in computing the Index of Social Position, the scoring procedures, and the range of scores for each of five social classes are found in Appendix B.

The percentage distribution of subjects by social class is found in Table 1.

Data Analyses

Data obtained from the responses of the subjects to the Kammeyer Scale of Feminine Role Behavior were analyzed using Chi square analyses and computation of t tests to determine significance of differences between means on the three forms of the scale. In addition, coefficients of correlation were computed to determine the relationships among the concepts of the feminine role along with z values to determine the significance of these relationships.

The effect of the background factors on the concepts of the feminine role was analyzed using a complete program for Multiple Classification Analysis (MCA), designed by Andrews, Morgan, and Sonquist (1971). This program and the reason for its use is described in greater detail in the following chapter.

Other data from the Personal Data Questionnaire were analyzed using frequencies and percentages.

The hypotheses in this investigation were stated in the positive form but were tested statistically in the null form. The null hypotheses were rejected when probability levels reached the level of .05 or less.

Table 1
Percentage Distribution of Subjects
by Social Class

Social Class Position	White Subjects	Black Subjects
I	8.3	4.2
II	34.6	9.8
III	42.9	27.1
IV	13.5	41.7
V	0	14.6

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Attitudes Toward Feminine Role

Hypotheses I, II, and III were concerned with college women's self-concepts of the feminine role, perceptions of the ideal feminine role, and perceptions of men's ideal woman. All three of these hypotheses were formulated regardless of race. Chi square analyses were computed to test whether the subjects' scores on the three forms of the Kammeyer Scale of Attitudes Toward Feminine Role Behavior departed from a 50% modern, 50% traditional split. These results are presented in Table 2.

It was stated in Hypothesis I that more college women would hold modern views of their own feminine sex-roles rather than traditional views. The chi-square of 3.50 was not significant at the .05 level for modern versus traditional concepts of the feminine role for the self. On the basis of these results then Hypothesis I was rejected.

However, a chi-square of 14.00 ($p < .001$) for modern versus traditional concepts of the female role supported Hypothesis II which stated that more college women would hold more traditional views of the ideal feminine sex-role than modern views.

The subjects also had a significantly more traditional view of men's ideal woman ($\chi^2 = 175.02, p < .001$). Hypothesis III was upheld.

Table 2

Distribution for the Total Group of Subjects of
Attitudes Toward the Feminine Role

Score Range	Self-Concept	Ideal Woman	Men's Ideal Woman
0-2 Modern	126 (56.3%)	84 (37.5%)	13 (5.8%)
3-5 Traditional	98 (43.8%)	140 (62.6%)	211 (94.2%)
	$\chi^2=3.50$	$\chi^2=14.00^*$	$\chi^2=175.02^*$

N=224

*p < .001

Hypothesis III stated that college women of both races would perceive men's ideal woman as more traditional than they themselves were.

Although the above three hypotheses were made regardless of race, further chi-square analyses were computed for each race separately. These results are presented in Tables 3 and 4.

Among black college women the chi square value of 2.67 indicated that there was not a more modern than traditional self-concept of the feminine role. It was found, however, that the ideal concept of the female role among black college women was significantly more traditional than modern ($\chi^2 = 20.17, p < .001$). Views concerning men's ideal woman were also significantly more traditional than modern among black college women ($\chi^2 = 84.38, p < .001$).

Among white college women there was no significant difference in modern versus traditional views either in their own self-concepts of the feminine role or in their ideal concepts of female role behavior. The chi-square analysis did reveal, however, that their concepts of men's ideal woman were significantly more traditional than modern ($\chi^2 = 91.12, p < .001$).

In summary neither race's own feminine role was significantly more modern than traditional nor vice versa. Both race's views of men's ideal woman were significantly more traditional than modern. The black subjects' ideal views were significantly traditional but the white subjects' were not. Seventy-three percent of the black college women had a more traditional ideal view of female role behavior as compared with 55% of white college women.

Table 3
Distribution of Black College Women's Attitudes
Toward the Feminine Role

Score Range	Self-Concept	Ideal Woman	Men's Ideal Woman
0-2 (Modern)	56 (58.34%)	26 (27.08%)	3 (3.125%)
3-5 (Traditional)	40 (41.66%)	70 (72.92%)	93 (96.875%)
	$\chi^2 = 2.67$	$\chi^2 = 20.17^*$	$\chi^2 = 84.38^*$

N = 96

*p < .001

Table 4
Distribution of White College Women's Attitudes
Toward the Feminine Role

Score Range	Self-Concept	Ideal Woman	Men's Ideal Woman
0-2 (Modern)	70 (54.69%)	58 (45.31%)	10 (7.81%)
3-5 (Traditional)	58 (45.31%)	70 (54.69%)	118 (92.19%)
	$\chi^2 = 1.12$	$\chi^2 = 1.12$	$\chi^2 = 91.12^*$

N = 128

*p < .001

Relationships Between Role Concepts

Differences Between Means

Further statistical tests suggested themselves although no hypotheses had been formulated concerning them. Hypotheses I, II, and III postulated that college women would hold more traditional or modern views of women's role behavior for themselves, their ideal woman, and men's ideal woman.

One might also ask whether these various concepts of the feminine role differed significantly from each other. In order to determine this, matched pair t tests were computed for each group of subjects separately comparing self-concepts with ideal concepts, self-concepts with concepts of men's ideal, and ideal concepts with concepts of men's ideal. These results are presented in Tables 5 and 6.

There was a significant difference between the mean self-concept score and the mean ideal concept score of black college women ($t=5.29, p<.001$). The mean ideal concept was significantly traditional.

The mean score of concepts of men's ideal woman was also significantly more traditional than the mean self-concept ($t = 7.62, p < .001$).

Although both mean scores for ideal views and concepts of men's ideal woman would be classified as traditional, the t tests revealed that the black's views about men's ideal woman were significantly more traditional than modern ($t = 3.88, p < .001$).

For white college women the mean ideal concept score was significantly more traditional than the mean self-concept score ($t = 2.63, p < .01$).

Again, the mean score for men's ideal woman of the white subjects was significantly higher than the mean score for the self-concepts ($t = 9.37, p < .001$). White college women, thus had a more traditional view of men's ideal woman than they had of themselves.

White college women also held a more traditional view of men's ideal woman than of their ideal woman ($t = 7.99, p < .001$).

Correlations Between Role Concepts

The correlations between the various views toward female role behavior were also computed for the subjects according to race. These results are presented in Table 7.

The only significant correlation obtained for black females was between ideal-self and men's ideal woman ($r = .26, p < .05$). On the other hand, highly significant correlations were obtained for white college women between all concepts of women's role.

The z test for significance of the difference between two correlations was used to compare correlations obtained from the two racial groups. It was found that the correlations between self-concept and ideal -self for white and black college females differed significantly ($z = 3.43, p < .001$). The difference between correlations was also significant for self-concept and men's ideal ($z = 2.74, p < .01$). However, there was no significant difference between the correlations of each race between the ideal-self and men's ideal.

To summarize white college women's concepts regarding self, ideal, and men's ideal related to each other. Among black college women the ideal concept and that of men's ideal were related, but both of these variables were independent of the self view.

Table 5
Means and \underline{t} Values of Black College Women's Attitudes
Toward the Feminine Role

Variable	Means	\underline{t}
<u>Self-Concept</u>	2.43	5.29*
Ideal Concept	3.45	
<u>Self-Concept</u>	2.43	7.62*
Men's Ideal Woman	4.02	
<u>Ideal Concept</u>	3.45	3.88*
Men's Ideal Woman	4.02	

N = 96

* $p < .001$

Table 6
Means and \underline{t} Values of White College Women's Attitudes
Toward the Feminine Role

Variable	Means	\underline{t}
<u>Self-Concept</u>	1.26	2.63*
Ideal Concept	1.43	
<u>Self-Concept</u>	1.26	9.37**
Men's Ideal Woman	2.25	
<u>Ideal Concept</u>	1.43	7.99**
Men's Ideal Woman	2.25	

N = 128

* $p < .01$

** $p < .001$

Table 7

Correlations and z Values Between Concepts of the
Feminine Role by Race

Variables	Black College Women	White College Women	<u>z</u>
Self-Concept and Ideal Woman	.17	.57‡	3.43‡
Self-Concept and Men's Ideal Woman	.07	.42‡	2.74**
Ideal Woman and Men's Ideal Woman	.26*	.40‡	1.17

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

‡ $P < .001$

Relation Between Role Concepts and Background
and Experiential Factors

The self-concepts, ideal concepts, and concepts of men's ideal woman for black and white college women were analyzed in terms of the following factors in the subjects' background and experience: (a) social class position, (b) marriage and career expectations (future plans), (c) position in the family, (d) dominance of parents, (e) closeness to parents, (f) happiness of parents' marriage, and (g) personal adjustment.

The original design called for the use of analyses of variance in which the influences of some variables would be controlled while hypotheses involving other variables were being tested. It was believed that it would be particularly important to control social class background in this fashion. Inspection of the distribution of this variable showed it to be even more unequal between blacks and whites than had been expected. Thus, only 14% of the black subjects had parents who were in Social Class II or above according to the Hollingshead Index of Social Class Position. Approximately 43% of the white parents were in Social Class II or above. This meant that balanced analysis of variance designs could not be achieved. For example, one could not use a 2 X 2 design of race and social class since there would be almost no upper class blacks and no lower class whites in this sample.

Because of this sort of situation, a type of analysis was used which does not demand balanced design. Multiple classification

analysis (MCA) is a form of multiple regression analysis which yields tests of the relationships between an independent and a dependent variable both in absolute form and with the influence of a number of other variables simultaneously controlled (their influences held constant) (Andrews, Morgan, and Sonquist, 1971). It has the further advantage that the independent variables can be expressed in no better than nominal measurement.

To find the influence of race on a set of self-concept scores and also the influence of social class the MCA program would generate:

1. the mean self-concept score for each race
2. an F test of whether these mean scores are significantly different
3. the mean self-concept scores adjusted to what they would have been had social class not been different for the two groups
4. an F test as to whether these adjusted means are different
5. the mean self-concept score for each social class
6. an F test for these means
7. the self-concept means with race held constant
8. an F test for these means

By the use of this technique, multiple hypotheses can be tested simultaneously. To test hypotheses involving the self-concept, for example, the self-concept scores were entered into the analysis as the dependent variable. The independent variables were then entered into the analysis. The program generated tests of significance as to whether each independent variable related to the self-concept, both individually and with all other variables controlled.

One difficulty with MCA is that it is an additive model and does not test interactions. It was believed that race might interact with other variables; that is, that the races might have different patterns of relationships between dependent and independent variables. To assess this possibility, three analyses were run for each woman's role measure. One analysis was run using all subjects and with race as an independent variable. Subsequently, an analysis was done for each racial group separately, using all independent variables except race. The MCA results are presented in Tables 8 through 16. The total number of subjects in the MCA analyses was 202 and consisted of 80 black subjects and 122 white subjects. Subjects who did not respond to all of the items on the questionnaire which were used in these analyses were eliminated.

For the total group of subjects none of the MCA analyses were significant for any of the independent variables in relation to self-concepts of feminine role behavior (see Table 8).

The MCA analysis of concepts of the ideal feminine role held by the total group of subjects yielded significant F ratios for both the original and adjusted means for race as an independent variable. The black college women were significantly more traditional in their ideal concepts than were white college women (see Table 9). Both F ratios of 24.16 for the original means and 20.70 for the adjusted means were significant at the .001 level. Hypothesis IV which stated that race would not be a significant distinguishing factor in concepts of the feminine role among college women is thus rejected for concepts of the ideal woman.

Social class position was the only other variable in the total group's ideal concepts which yielded a significant F ratio for the original means ($F = 3.87, p < .01$). The F ratio was not significant for social class position with all other variables held constant, however (see Table 9).

The unadjusted means indicated that those subjects in the lowest social class position (Category V) were significantly more traditional in their ideal concepts of the feminine role. Hypothesis V stated that college women of both races from working class backgrounds would have a more traditional attitude toward the feminine role than would those women from middle class backgrounds. On the basis of these results Hypothesis V was supported in part.

The total relationship with social class also had a somewhat curvilinear trend, the highest and the lowest social class groups being more traditional in their ideal views than the middle classes were. It must be remembered that the relationship between social class and ideal role disappeared (was not significant) when the other variables were controlled. When adjusted and unadjusted means differ, the question of why they do so may be attacked by studying the patterns of the relationships between variables in the study. Chi-squares were done to see which other variables were related to social class (see Appendix C). A clear relationship ($p < .001$) was found between social class and race. It would appear that since blacks have higher traditional ideal scores and more blacks are in the lower classes, the higher traditional scores for the lower classes are a result of the preponderance of black subjects in that category.

Thus when race is controlled, the significant effects of social class are lost. Chi squares also showed that position in the family, closeness to parents, and happiness of parents' marriage were related to social class ($p < .05$). These relationships were quite small, however, and the patterns of influence on the ideal measure were not clearly discernible.

For the total group of subjects parental dominance was the only variable which was significantly related to concepts about men's ideal woman (see Table 10). The F ratio of 2.96 for the adjusted means was significant at the .05 level. The unadjusted means did not differ significantly.

Analysis of the relationships between independent variables (Appendix C) showed that parents' marital happiness was related ($p < .001$) to parental dominance. The pattern was that if either the father or both parents were dominant, the marriage was seen more often as happy than when the mother was dominant. Father dominance or equal dominance produced less traditional scores; whereas happiness of the parents' marriage produced more traditional ones. Thus the variables are in opposition in affecting the subjects' views of men's ideal woman. Controlling happiness makes the dominance variable significant.

Closeness to parents had a significant relationship ($p < .05$) to parental dominance in the direction that if either father or both parents were dominant, the daughters were divided about evenly, some being close to the mother and some to the father. If the mother was dominant, however, the subjects were more likely close to her.

Inspection of the relationship of these variables to men's ideal scores did not suggest that controlling closeness would affect the dominance influence on these scores.

These results indicated that those subjects whose mothers were the more dominant figure were significantly more traditional in their concepts about men's ideal woman. On the basis of this finding Hypothesis VIII was supported. It had been hypothesized that college women of both races would be more other-oriented (traditional) in their attitudes toward the feminine role when the mother was the dominant figure.

The analyses of the independent variables in relation to the self-concept of the feminine role held by black college women indicated that none of the variables studied had any significant effect on their self-concepts (see Table 11).

Results of the MCA analysis for concepts of the ideal feminine role held by black college women and the various independent variables revealed that happiness of parents' marriage was the only one of these variables which had a significant relationship to the ideal concepts of these subjects (see Table 12). When the parents' marriage was judged to be happy, these black college women had a significantly more traditional view of the ideal woman. This finding was true only when the other variables had been controlled. Chi squares were computed to ascertain which independent variables were related to marital happiness and which also showed improved relationships with the ideal role when the means were corrected.

Table 8

Multiple Classification Analysis of Background Factors Related
to the Self-Concept of the Feminine Role of all Subjects

Variable	Degrees of Freedom			Original Means	Adjusted Means (d)
	(a)	(b)	(c)		
RACE	1	200	180		
Black				2.44	2.60
White				2.23	2.12
				<u>1.60</u>	<u>2.64</u>
F					
PLANS	4	197	180		
Education helps understand life				2.53	2.72
Preparation for a job or profession				2.38	2.40
Better status				2.41	2.64
Fulfill self				2.15	2.04
Parents' wish				1.86	1.26
				<u>0.84</u>	<u>0.88</u>
F					
POSITION IN FAMILY	3	198	180		
Only child				2.65	3.00
Oldest child				2.25	2.21
Middle child				2.35	2.39
Last child				2.22	2.08
				<u>0.78</u>	<u>0.89</u>
F					
CLOSENESS TO PARENTS	3	198	180		
Close to both parents				2.31	2.32
Closer to father				2.00	1.69
Closer to mother				2.37	2.42
Close to neither parent				2.17	1.80
				<u>0.46</u>	<u>0.60</u>
F					
HAPPINESS OF PARENTS' MARRIAGE	2	199	180		
Happy				2.25	2.19
Average				2.45	2.51
Unhappy				2.36	2.50
				<u>0.56</u>	<u>0.44</u>
F					

Table 8 (continued)

Multiple Classification Analysis of Background Factors Related
to the Self-Concept of the Feminine Role of all Subjects

Variable	Degrees of Freedom			Original Means	Adjusted Means (d)
	(a)	(b)	(c)		
PARENTAL DOMINANCE	2	199	180		2.48
Father dominant				2.37	
Both parents equally dominant				2.31	2.29
Mother dominant				2.20	2.05
	<u>F</u>			<u>0.31</u>	<u>0.64</u>
SOCIAL CLASS	4	197	180		
I				2.30	2.51
II				2.29	2.39
III				2.30	2.29
IV				2.26	2.08
V				2.73	3.13
	<u>F</u>			<u>0.39</u>	<u>0.83</u>
PERSONAL ADJUSTMENT	2	199	180		
Very good				2.55	2.73
Good				2.29	2.30
Average				2.16	1.96
	<u>F</u>			<u>0.97</u>	<u>0.86</u>

- (a) Numerator of both F tests
 (b) Denominator of F for original means
 (c) Denominator of F for adjusted means
 (d) Controlling for all other variables

N= 202

Table 9

Multiple Classification Analysis of Background Factors Related
to Perception of the Ideal Woman by all Subjects

Variable	Degrees of Freedom			Original Means	Adjusted Means (d)
	(a)	(b)	(c)		
RACE	1	200	180		
Black				3.56	4.15
White				2.53	2.15
				<u>24.16t</u>	<u>20.70t</u>
	<u>F</u>				
PLANS	4	197	180		
Education helps understand life				2.58	2.39
Preparation for a job or profession				3.10	3.23
Better status				3.18	3.05
Fulfill self				2.69	2.60
Parents' wish				3.00	2.52
	<u>F</u>			<u>0.99</u>	<u>0.55</u>
POSITION IN FAMILY	3	198	180		
Only child				3.25	3.79
Oldest child				2.87	2.86
Middle child				2.87	2.77
Last child				3.02	2.93
	<u>F</u>			<u>0.41</u>	<u>1.02</u>
CLOSENESS TO PARENTS	3	198	180		
Close to both parents				2.79	2.74
Closer to father				2.93	2.83
Closer to mother				3.04	3.08
Close to neither parent				3.50	3.81
	<u>F</u>			<u>0.68</u>	<u>0.165</u>
HAPPINESS OF PARENTS' MARRIAGE	2	199	180		
Happy				2.84	2.90
Average				3.15	3.08
Unhappy				3.00	2.90
	<u>F</u>			<u>0.69</u>	<u>0.21</u>

Table 9 (continued)

Multiple Classification Analysis of Background Factors Related
to Perception of the Ideal Woman by all Subjects

Variable	Degrees of Freedom			Original Means	Adjusted Means (d)
	(a)	(b)	(c)		
PARENTAL DOMINANCE	2	199	180		
Father dominant				2.90	2.92
Both parents equally dominant				2.87	2.77
Mother dominant				3.14	3.35
	<u>F</u>			<u>0.47</u>	<u>0.60</u>
SOCIAL CLASS	4	197	180		
I				3.30	4.12
II				2.70	2.79
III				2.62	2.34
IV				3.26	3.31
V				4.18	4.76
	<u>F</u>			<u>3.87**</u>	<u>1.88</u>
PERSONAL ADJUSTMENT	2	199	180		
Very Good				2.97	2.98
Good				2.86	2.81
Average				3.28	3.48
	<u>F</u>			<u>0.99</u>	<u>0.34</u>

- (a) Numerator of both F tests
 (b) Denominator of F for original means
 (c) Denominator of F for adjusted means
 (d) Controlling for all other variables

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

+ $p < .001$

N= 202

Table 10

Multiple Classification Analysis of Background Factors Related
to Perception of Men's Ideal Woman by all Subjects

Variable	Degrees of Freedom			Original Means	Adjusted Means (d)
	(a)	(b)	(c)		
RACE	1	200	180		
Black				4.05	4.09
White				4.00	3.97
				<u>0.12</u>	<u>0.24</u>
PLANS	4	197	180		
Education helps understand life				4.05	4.13
Preparation for a job or profession				4.07	4.11
Better status				3.70	3.32
Fulfill self				4.04	4.06
Parents wish				3.86	3.79
				<u>0.51</u>	<u>0.67</u>
POSITION IN FAMILY	3	198	180		
Only child				4.15	4.35
Oldest child				4.08	4.13
Middle child				3.83	3.62
Last child				4.11	4.22
				<u>0.995</u>	<u>1.38</u>
CLOSENESS TO PARENTS	3	198	180		
Close to both parents				3.98	3.92
Closer to father				4.00	3.96
Closer to mother				4.08	4.14
Close to neither parent				3.67	3.64
				<u>0.42</u>	<u>0.26</u>
HAPPINESS OF PARENTS' MARRIAGE	2	199	180		
Happy				4.05	4.15
Average				3.96	3.83
Unhappy				4.00	3.82
				<u>0.15</u>	<u>1.40</u>

Table 10 (continued)

Multiple Classification Analysis of Background Factors Related
to Perception of Men's Ideal Woman by all Subjects

Variable	Degrees of Freedom			Original Means	Adjusted Means (d)
	(a)	(b)	(c)		
PARENTAL DOMINANCE	2	199	180		
Father dominant				3.96	3.88
Both parents equally dominant				3.97	3.87
Mother dominant				4.24	4.59
	<u>F</u>			<u>1.26</u>	<u>2.96*</u>
SOCIAL CLASS	4	197	180		
I				3.80	3.64
II				4.02	4.04
III				3.95	3.87
IV				4.19	4.36
V				3.82	3.57
	<u>F</u>			<u>0.74</u>	<u>0.70</u>
PERSONAL ADJUSTMENT	2	199	180		
Very good				3.90	3.86
Good				4.06	4.07
Average				3.97	3.95
	<u>F</u>			<u>0.34</u>	<u>0.03</u>

- (a) Numerator of both F tests
 (b) Denominator of F for original means
 (c) Denominator of F for adjusted means
 (d) Controlling for all other variables

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

+ $p < .001$

N= 202

The variable which fit this pattern was parental dominance. There was a significant tendency (Appendix C) for subjects who judged their parents' marriages as happy to see their parents as equal in dominance. The results in Table 12 showed, however, that marital happiness was accompanied by more traditional scores, but equal dominance tended to produce less traditional scores. This set up a situation wherein dominance acted to hide differences due to happiness and vice versa; more happiness equaled more traditionalism. But marital happiness was also associated with equal dominance which lowered traditionalism. Thus if either was controlled, the relationship between the other and ideal role should be increased. Correspondingly, when the other variables were controlled, happiness related significantly to the ideal role, and the relationship between parental dominance and perception of the ideal woman's role increased markedly. Hypothesis X was supported, but only when family dominance patterns were not allowed to influence the data.

Hypothesis X stated that college women of both races who judged their parents' marriages as happy would be more traditional in their attitudes toward the feminine role. This hypothesis was not supported by the results for own-self or ideal-self concepts of the feminine role nor for concepts of men's ideal woman for the total group. However, black college women who judged their parents' marriages as happy were more traditional in their ideal concepts.

Table 11

Multiple Classification Analysis of Background Factors Related
to the Self-Concept of the Feminine Role of Black College Women

Variable	Degrees of Freedom			Original Means	Adjusted Means (d)
	(a)	(b)	(c)		
PLANS	4	75	59		
Education helps understand life				3.17	3.84
Preparation for a job or profession				2.43	2.35
Better status				2.20	2.09
Fulfill self				2.53	2.80
Parents wish				1.80	1.12
	<u>F</u>			<u>1.27</u>	<u>1.28</u>
POSITION IN FAMILY	3	76	59		
Only child				2.13	1.89
Oldest child				2.33	2.21
Middle child				2.60	2.80
Last child				2.48	2.46
	<u>F</u>			<u>0.48</u>	<u>0.48</u>
CLOSENESS TO PARENTS	3	76	59		
Close to both parents				2.40	2.41
Closer to father				1.60	0.98
Closer to mother				2.57	2.66
Close to neither parent				2.25	1.88
	<u>F</u>			<u>1.26</u>	<u>0.75</u>
HAPPINESS OF PARENTS' MARRIAGE	2	77	59		
Happy				2.33	2.23
Average				2.59	2.69
Unhappy				2.40	2.43
	<u>F</u>			<u>0.44</u>	<u>0.27</u>
PARENTAL DOMINANCE	2	77	59		
Father dominant				2.63	2.89
Both parents equally dominant				2.39	2.32
Mother dominant				2.28	2.08
	<u>F</u>			<u>0.57</u>	<u>1.02</u>

Table 11 (continued)

Multiple Classification Analysis of Background Factors Related
to the Self-Concept of the Feminine Role of Black College Women

Variable	Degrees of Freedom			Original Means	Adjusted Means (d)
	(a)	(b)	(c)		
SOCIAL CLASS	4	75	59		
I				2.00	1.57
II				2.33	2.75
III				2.57	2.78
IV				2.31	2.02
V				2.73	3.13
	<u>F</u>			<u>0.45</u>	<u>1.42</u>
PERSONAL ADJUSTMENT	2	77	59		
Very good				2.55	2.76
Good				2.48	2.48
Average				2.24	2.10
	<u>F</u>			<u>0.38</u>	<u>0.33</u>

- (a) Numerator of both F tests
 (b) Denominator of F for original means
 (c) Denominator of F for adjusted means
 (d) Controlling for all other variables

N= 80

Table 12

Multiple Classification Analysis of Background Factors Related
to Perception of the Ideal Woman by Black College Women

Variable	Degrees of Freedom			Original Means	Adjusted Means (d)
	(a)	(b)	(c)		
PLANS	4	75	59		
Education helps understand life				3.50	4.04
Preparation for a job or profession				3.61	3.59
Better status				3.40	2.91
Fulfill self				3.67	3.95
Parents' wish				3.20	2.85
	<u>F</u>			<u>0.15</u>	<u>0.70</u>
POSITION IN FAMILY	3	76	59		
Only child				2.88	2.15
Oldest child				3.58	3.77
Middle child				3.56	3.58
Last child				3.78	3.82
	<u>F</u>			<u>0.85</u>	<u>0.78</u>
CLOSENESS TO PARENTS	3	76	59		
Close to both parents				3.56	3.38
Closer to father				3.80	3.39
Closer to mother				3.50	3.47
Close to neither parent				4.00	4.93
	<u>F</u>			<u>0.206</u>	<u>0.798</u>
HAPPINESS OF PARENTS' MARRIAGE	2	77	59		
Happy				3.78	4.26
Average				3.38	3.16
Unhappy				3.40	2.67
	<u>F</u>			<u>0.79</u>	<u>4.16*</u>
PARENTAL DOMINANCE	2	77	59		
Father dominant				3.46	3.13
Both parents equally dominant				3.53	3.50
Mother dominant				3.78	4.28
	<u>F</u>			<u>0.29</u>	<u>1.69</u>

Table 12 (continued)

Multiple Classification Analysis of Background Factors Related
to Perception of the Ideal Woman by Black College Women

Variable	Degrees of Freedom			Original Means	Adjusted Means (d)
	(a)	(b)	(c)		
SOCIAL CLASS	4	75	59		
I				2.00	1.32
II				3.67	3.48
III				3.35	3.06
IV				3.54	3.57
V				4.18	4.83
	<u>F</u>			<u>1.02</u>	<u>0.855</u>
PERSONAL ADJUSTMENT	2	77	59		
Very good				3.36	3.22
Good				3.56	3.59
Average				3.71	3.71
	<u>F</u>			<u>0.20</u>	<u>0.063</u>

- (a) Numerator of both F tests
 (b) Denominator of F for original means
 (c) Denominator of F for adjusted means
 (d) Controlling for all other variables

- * $p < .05$
 ** $p < .01$
 + $p < .001$

N= 80

Other variables, in addition to happiness of parents' marriage, which were related to the perception of men's ideal woman by black college women were future plans, closeness to parents, parental dominance, and social class. All relationships were significant only with the adjusted means (Table 13).

Hypothesis VI related to attitudes toward the feminine role and future plans. It was postulated that college women of both races who were planning for a job, career, or profession would have a more modern or self-oriented attitude toward the female role than those women who were planning only for marriage. The data to test this hypothesis were obtained by asking the subjects to rank from first to last their reasons for going to college. Their first choices were used and related to their scores on the three forms of the female role behavior scale. Although six choices were given on the questionnaire form, none of the subjects ranked first as their reason for going to college "to find a husband."

As shown in Table 13 those black subjects who ranked as their first reason for going to college, "to prepare for a job or profession" or "to better status", were more modern or self-oriented in their views of men's ideal woman.

Black subjects who were close to either mother or father were also significantly more traditional in their concepts of men's ideal woman ($F = 2.81, p < .05$, for adjusted means). On the basis of this finding Hypothesis IX was rejected for black subjects. It had been stated that college women who were equally close to both parents would be more other-oriented (traditional).

Table 13

Multiple Classification Analysis of Background Factors Related
to Perception of Men's Ideal Woman by Black College Women

Variable	Degrees of Freedom			Original Means	Adjusted Means (d)
	(a)	(b)	(c)		
PLANS	4	75	59		
Education helps understand life				4.67	5.53
Preparation for a job or profession				4.00	3.90
Better status				3.80	3.40
Fulfill self				4.20	4.28
Parents' wish				3.80	4.22
	<u>F</u>			<u>1.14</u>	<u>2.55*</u>
POSITION IN FAMILY	3	76	59		
Only child				4.00	4.00
Oldest child				3.88	3.66
Middle child				4.04	4.06
Last child				4.26	4.46
	<u>F</u>			<u>0.73</u>	<u>0.914</u>
CLOSENESS TO PARENTS	3	76	59		
Close to both parents				3.92	3.52
Closer to father				4.20	4.24
Closer to mother				4.13	4.35
Close to neither parent				3.75	3.71
	<u>F</u>			<u>0.48</u>	<u>2.81**</u>
HAPPINESS OF PARENTS' MARRIAGE	2	77	59		
Happy				4.17	4.54
Average				3.90	3.68
Unhappy				4.07	3.51
	<u>F</u>			<u>0.72</u>	<u>6.81**</u>
PARENTAL DOMINANCE	2	77	59		
Father dominant				4.08	4.11
Both parents equally dominant				3.95	3.74
Mother dominant				4.22	4.63
	<u>F</u>			<u>0.59</u>	<u>3.13</u>

Table 13. (continued)

Multiple Classification Analysis of Background Factors Related
to Perception of Men's Ideal Woman by Black College Women

Variable	Degrees of Freedom			Original Means	Adjusted Means (d)
	(a)	(b)	(c)		
SOCIAL CALSS	4	75	59		
I				2.00	0.50
II				3.83	3.55
III				4.09	4.14
IV				4.18	4.36
V				3.82	3.44
	<u>F</u>			<u>1.86</u>	<u>3.28*</u>
PERSONAL ADJUSTMENT	2	77	59		
Very good				3.91	3.78
Good				4.08	4.07
Average				4.06	4.17
	<u>F</u>			<u>0.156</u>	<u>0.277</u>

- (a) Numerator of both F tests
 (b) Denominator of F for original means
 (c) Denominator of F for adjusted means
 (d) Controlling for all other variables

* $p < .05$

** $p \leq .01$

+ $p \leq .001$

N = 80

Social class position was also a significant factor in black college women's perceptions of men's ideal woman. The adjusted means yielded an F ratio of 3.28 which was significant at the .05 level (Table 13). Those subjects in Social Class Categories III and IV were significantly more traditional than those subjects in either the top or bottom category.

As before chi squares were performed and relationships inspected to see which variables were obscuring the influence of other variables on the role scores so that only the adjusted means differed. These results are summarized below:

1. Future plans and social class. Women in Social Class IV tended to say they were going to school to satisfy their parents' wishes. Women who said this, however, had less traditional role scores. Women in the lower social classes tended to have more traditional scores. Therefore, controlling for either variable thus strengthened the relation of the other to role scores.

2. Closeness to parents and happiness of parents' marriage. Women who said they were close to both parents also said their parents' marriages were happy. Closeness to both parents went with less traditional scores whereas marital happiness accompanied more traditional scores. Thus, controlling either variable enhanced the affect of the other.

3. Parental dominance and happiness of parents' marriage. Subjects who said their parents were equal in dominance also said their parents' marriages were happy. Equalitarian marriages were associated with less traditional scores whereas happiness yielded more traditional scores. Correcting made each variable more significant.

For the white subjects none of the independent variables were related to their own perceptions of the feminine role (Table 14).

Both position in the family and social class were significant in the ideal perceptions of the female role by white college women (Table 15).

Only children were more other-oriented in their ideal perceptions of the female role ($F = 4.44, p < .01$). Last children were much more self-oriented. Hypothesis VII stated that only and oldest children would be significantly more other-oriented than children occupying other positions in the family. The results indicated that this was true for white college women who were only children.

White college women in Social Classes II and III had significantly less traditional views of the ideal woman ($F = 4.22, p < .01$). This finding also helps explain the curvilinear relationship between ideal concepts and social class for the total group.

Since these findings for white subjects' ideal views were all obtained with adjusted means, efforts were made to find which variables were obscuring the unadjusted differences. Chi squares were computed to see if family position or social class were significantly related to other variables. Many of the chi squares were suggestive but none were significant (Appendix C). Since no strong relationships were found, it was concluded that the significant findings were a result of controlling complex relationships among several of the variables, these relationships not being obvious by inspection.

None of the independent variables had any significant relationships to perceptions of men's ideal woman by white college women (Table 16).

Table 14

Multiple Classification Analysis of Background Factors Related
to the Self-Concept of the Feminine Role of White College Women

Variable	Degrees of Freedom			Original Means	Adjusted Means (d)
	(a)	(b)	(c)		
PLANS	4	117	102		
Education helps understand life				2.23	2.23
Preparation for a job or profession				2.33	2.42
Better status				2.71	3.29
Fulfill self				2.00	1.77
Parents' wish				2.00	1.86
	<u>F</u>			<u>0.81</u>	<u>0.82</u>
POSITION IN FAMILY	3	118	102		
Only child				3.00	3.84
Oldest child				2.21	2.17
Middle child				2.17	2.13
Last child				1.95	1.65
	<u>F</u>			<u>2.21</u>	<u>2.40</u>
CLOSENESS TO PARENTS	3	118	102		
Close to both parents				2.67	2.33
Closer to father				2.22	2.04
Closer to mother				2.20	2.18
Close to neither parent				2.00	1.45
	<u>F</u>			<u>0.06</u>	<u>0.26</u>
HAPPINESS OF PARENTS' MARRIAGE	2	119	102		
Happy				2.12	2.19
Average				2.22	2.22
Unhappy				2.33	2.57
	<u>F</u>			<u>0.08</u>	<u>0.52</u>
PARENTAL DOMINANCE	2	119	102		
Father dominant				2.25	2.29
Both parents equally dominant				2.25	2.24
Mother dominant				2.13	2.08
	<u>F</u>			<u>0.099</u>	<u>0.04</u>

Table 14 (continued)

Multiple Classification Analysis of Background Factors Related
to the Self-Concept of the Feminine Role of White College Women

Variable	Degrees of Freedom			Original Means	Adjusted Means(d)
	(a)	(b)	(c)		
SOCIAL CLASS	3	118	102		
I				2.33	2.45
II				2.29	2.42
III				2.19	2.08
IV				2.17	2.11
V				<u>0.09</u>	<u>0.37</u>
	<u>F</u>				
PERSONAL ADJUSTMENT	2	119	102		
Very good				2.55	2.67
Good				2.18	2.17
Average				2.07	2.00
	<u>F</u>			<u>0.95</u>	<u>0.13</u>

- (a) Numerator of both F tests
(b) Denominator of F for original means
(c) Denominator of F for adjusted means
(d) Controlling for all other variables

N = 122

Table 15

Multiple Classification Analysis of Background Factors Related
to Perception of the Ideal Woman by White College Women

Variable	Degrees of Freedom			Original Means	Adjusted Means (d)
	(a)	(b)	(c)		
PLANS	4	117	102		
Education helps understand life				2.15	1.86
Preparation for a job or profession				2.72	2.90
Better status				2.86	2.67
Fulfill self				2.33	2.16
Parents' wish				2.50	2.67
	<u>F</u>			<u>0.70</u>	<u>0.52</u>
POSITION IN FAMILY	3	118	102		
Only child				3.50	4.92
Oldest child				2.55	2.48
Middle child				2.37	2.28
Last child				2.23	1.77
	<u>F</u>			<u>2.16</u>	<u>4.44**</u>
CLOSENESS TO PARENTS	3	118	102		
Close to both parents				2.47	2.51
Closer to father				2.44	1.73
Closer to mother				2.63	2.71
Close to neither parent				2.50	2.38
	<u>F</u>			<u>0.11</u>	<u>0.77</u>
HAPPINESS OF PARENTS' MARRIAGE	2	119	102		
Happy				2.45	2.37
Average				2.78	2.91
Unhappy				2.67	2.94
	<u>F</u>			<u>0.43</u>	<u>0.53</u>
PARENTAL DOMINANCE	2	119	102		
Father dominant				2.65	2.73
Both parents equally dominant				2.35	2.20
Mother dominant				2.65	2.80
	<u>F</u>			<u>0.55</u>	<u>0.46</u>

Table 15. (continued)

Multiple Classification Analysis of Background Factors Related
to Perception of the Ideal Woman by White College Women

Variable	Degrees of Freedom			Original Means	Adjusted Means (d)
	(a)	(b)	(c)		
SOCIAL CLASS	3	118	102		
I				3.44	4.71
II				2.57	2.81
III				2.30	1.85
IV				2.67	2.80
V				<u>1.61</u>	<u>4.22**</u>
	<u>F</u>				
PERSONAL ADJUSTMENT	2	119	102		
Very good				2.75	2.61
Good				2.44	2.37
Average				2.80	3.35
	<u>F</u>			<u>0.62</u>	<u>1.195</u>

- (a) Numerator of both F tests
 (b) Denominator of F for original means
 (c) Denominator of F for adjusted means
 (d) Controlling for all other variables

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

+ $p < .001$

N = 122

Table 16

Multiple Classification Analysis of Background Factors Related
to Perception of Men's Ideal Woman by White College Women

Variable	Degrees of Freedom			Original Means	Adjusted Means (d)
	(a)	(b)	(c)		
PLANS	4	117	102		
Education helps understand life				3.77	3.53
Preparation for a job or profession				4.12	4.22
Better status				3.57	2.90
Fulfill self				3.98	4.00
Parents' wish				4.00	4.22
	<u>F</u>			<u>0.59</u>	<u>0.59</u>
POSITION IN FAMILY	3	118	102		
Only child				4.25	4.72
Oldest child				4.17	4.35
Middle child				3.69	3.34
Last child				3.95	3.83
	<u>F</u>			<u>1.67</u>	<u>2.41</u>
CLOSENESS TO PARENTS	3	118	102		
Close to both parents				4.00	4.07
Closer to father				3.89	3.45
Closer to mother				4.04	4.05
Close to neither parent				3.50	3.07
	<u>F</u>			<u>0.19</u>	<u>0.65</u>
HAPPINESS OF PARENTS' MARRIAGE	2	119	102		
Happy				4.00	4.00
Average				4.06	4.08
Unhappy				3.94	3.92
	<u>F</u>			<u>0.04</u>	<u>0.009</u>
PARENTAL DOMINANCE	2	119	102		
Father dominant				3.90	3.75
Both parents equally dominant				3.98	4.00
Mother dominant				4.26	4.55
	<u>F</u>			<u>0.88</u>	<u>1.26</u>

Table 16 (continued)

Multiple Classification Analysis of Background Factors Related
to Perception of Man's Ideal Woman by White College Women

Variable	Degrees of Freedom			Original Means	Adjusted Means (d)
	(a)	(b)	(c)		
SOCIAL CLASS	3	118	102		
I				4.00	4.07
II				4.05	4.15
III				3.89	3.70
IV				4.22	4.48
V					
	<u>F</u>			<u>0.47</u>	<u>0.906</u>
PERSONAL ADJUSTMENT	2	119	102		
Very good				3.90	3.78
Good				4.05	4.06
Average				3.87	3.96
	<u>F</u>			<u>0.27</u>	<u>0.19</u>

- (a) Numerator of both F tests
(b) Denominator of F for adjusted means
(c) Denominator of F for adjusted means
(d) Controlling for all other variables

N = 122

Discussion and Implications of Findings

The finding that subjects in this study were about evenly divided as to modern versus traditional views of their own feminine roles is in substantial agreement with the results of other investigators who have been concerned with the assessment of feminine role concepts among college women (Steinmann, 1963; Steinmann and Fox, 1966; Fand, 1955; Steinmann and Fox, 1970; Kalka, 1967).

However, with respect to the ideal concept of the feminine role some interesting differences emerged. The total group of subjects in this study was more traditional in its views about the ideal woman than in its views about self. Although this finding is in essential agreement with those findings of Kalka (1967), Fand (1955), and Steinmann (1963), it is at variance with those of others.

Steinmann, et al. (1964) found a slightly more modern preference among college women subjects in responding as their ideal woman would than in describing themselves. Steinmann and Fox (1966) also found that the ideal woman was slightly more modern than the self. In both of these studies, however, there was no outstanding departure of self from ideal-self perceptions.

Married college women have also been found to perceive both themselves and their ideal woman as significantly more self-achieving than do single college women (Rappaport, et al., 1970). None of the subjects in the present study were married so that no related comparison was possible.

In agreement with results of several other studies of male-female role perceptions (Steinmann, 1963; Fand, 1965; Kalka, 1967), the subjects in this investigation also perceived men's ideal woman as more traditional than they themselves or their ideal woman.

Other studies (Steinmann, 1963; Steinmann and Fox, 1966) which have also investigated male perceptions of the average and ideal woman have shown that men see the average woman as equally balanced between nurturing and achieving elements. "In picturing the ideal woman, they ask that she retain this basic orientation, but lean slightly toward a more nurturing role (Steinmann, 1963, p. 345)." Again it may be that men accept a more balanced view of women's roles on a theoretical level, but not on an applied level. There may be complete rejection of the dual role for their wives.

In light of these results it seems that single college women perceive the female role more in terms of the cultural stereotype, and this perception persists in spite of all the visible changes in female role behavior. Differences, therefore, between what they feel themselves to be, their ideal, and what they think men want them to be might be evidence of some confusion in the sex-role views of single college as well as a lack of communication between men and women. Either men are "feeding" women incorrect clues or inconsistent ones or the women are incorrectly perceiving the clues they do receive about what men want them to be.

Another explanation for the balanced views of these college students about their own feminine roles may be that they reject the present "feminist" or women's liberation movements.

Both black and white college women in this study were alike in holding equally balanced views of their self-concepts of the feminine role and traditional concepts of men's ideal woman. The two groups differed, however, in their perceptions of the ideal woman. In comparison with white college women black college women were more traditional in their perceptions of the ideal woman. This finding differed from that of Steinmann and Fox (1970) who also compared attitudes toward the feminine role among black and white undergraduates. These investigators found that black and white women did not differ in their perceptions of own-self and ideal-self. Both the own-self and ideal-self perceptions had elements of modern, self-achieving strivings and traditional, other-achieving strivings. However, both means were leaning toward a modern, self-oriented attitude.

The subjects in the present investigation were also found to hold more traditional views of men's ideal woman. This finding is in agreement with those findings of Fand (1955), Steinmann (1963), Meyer (1966), Steinmann, et al. (1964), and Steinmann and Fox (1966). Steinmann (1968) referred to these differences in female role conceptions as evidence of conflict among women resulting from the differences between what they feel themselves to be and what they feel men want them to be. Rosenkrantz, et al. (1968) explained this discrepancy between the self-perceptions of women and their perceptions of men's ideal woman in terms of cultural stereotypes enveloping the female role in our society.

A finding contrary to the above was that of Steinmann and Fox (1970) who found that the black woman's perception of men's ideal woman

was different from the previously established pattern of men's ideal woman as traditional. "Thus where the white females attributed strong family strivings to men's ideal woman, the black woman considered men wanting a woman balanced between self-actualizing and family-oriented goals (Steinmann and Fox, 1970, p.365)." No significant differences were found between black women's perceptions of men's ideal woman and black or white males' perceptions of their ideal woman.

Another investigation (Steinmann and Fox, 1966) had also revealed that men themselves delineated an ideal woman relatively balanced between active and passive elements. Since the present investigation did not use male subjects, no direct comparison can be made with these findings relative to men's perceptions of their ideal woman. However, evidence of these contradictory findings about men's ideal woman as perceived by women and by the men themselves points to the need for more research using male subjects.

There were significant relationships among self-perceptions of the female role, ideal perceptions, and perceptions of men's ideal woman among the white undergraduates in this study. These positive correlations would seem to indicate that the subjects' self-concepts were related to their ideal views and to men's ideal concepts. In studying the feminine role concepts of white college women both Fand (1955) and Steinmann (1963) found significant correlations between own-self scores and ideal-self scores. Steinmann (1963), but not Fand (1955), reported a significant correlation between ideal-self and men's ideal. Neither of these other investigators found a significant correlation between self-concept and concepts of men's ideal woman.

The only significant relationship among concepts of the feminine role for black college women in this study was found between the ideal-self and men's ideal woman. Lack of relationship between their self-concepts and their ideal concepts may be indicative of some dissatisfaction with themselves among black undergraduates. Steinmann and Fox (1970) in their study of "Attitudes Toward Women's Family Role Among Black and White Undergraduates" did not correlate the various concepts of the feminine role.

In investigating differential factors relating to the perception of the feminine role, Fand (1955) and Steinmann (1963) related these factors only to the self-concept of the feminine role. The present investigation related background factors to the subjects' self-concepts, ideal concepts, and concepts of men's ideal woman. None of the background factors in the present study had any influence on the subjects' self-concepts of the feminine role. In the Fand (1955) study, however, traditional (other-oriented) views of the feminine role were associated with closeness to father, average happiness of family life, position in the family as the oldest child, and parents' education and economic level. The lower the parents' educational and economic level, the more other-oriented (traditional) the subjects were in their views of the female role. This finding also confirmed Rabban's (1950) that lower class girls learned and accepted the traditional sex-role sooner and more completely than middle class girls did.

Steinmann (1963), on the other hand, found that those girls who were close to both parents and who rated their parents' marriages as happy were more other-oriented (traditional) in their views. Her finding

that only children were significantly more other-oriented agreed with that of Fand (1955). In the Steinmann study (1963) mother dominance was another factor associated with traditional views of the female role.

The present research found that certain selected background factors were related to the total group's perceptions of the ideal woman and men's ideal woman. Certain of these factors were also significant when the views about the ideal woman and men's ideal woman were analyzed for each race separately. A number of these findings must be accepted with considerable caution. The multiple classification analysis program tested 14 relationships for each set of female-role concepts. A small number of relationships would be expected to be found significant by chance alone. The results which were probably most meaningful were differences between the races in ideal views and relationships between background factors and the black women's views of men's ideal woman. Since none of the other studies which were reviewed related selected background factors to concepts of the ideal woman and men's ideal woman, no direct comparisons can be made with the findings of this study.

One of the most significant findings which emerged from this study was the difference between the black and white college women's perceptions of the ideal woman. The black college women held much more traditional views of the ideal woman than did white college women. Since previous indications have been that there is greater acceptance of the traditional woman's role among the working class, it is conceivable that this result was obtained because there were so few white subjects in

the lower class groups. The statistical controls, though powerful, are not an entirely satisfactory substitute for actually analyzing patterns of relationships within groups divided by social class and race. Another difficulty is that the measure of social class in different racial groups may be somewhat misleading.

It is also interesting to speculate that the black woman is currently able to see herself as finally achieving a traditional female role as defined by the larger culture, and this may be what she wants. Supporting this hypothesis is the fact that few black women are involved in current women's liberation movements.

King (1971) wrote:

Now being wooed by the "new" black man in poetry and song and knowing what her man has suffered at the hands of white racism, the black woman is in no mood to denounce him as a "male chauvinist." Just now, the black woman is hard at work in search of her identity, plumbing for a yardstick deep inside herself by which to judge her beauty, her direction as a woman, and her role as a black woman. To her, the concerns of Women's Lib seem pale by comparison [p. 70].

The finding of differences between black and white college women in terms of concepts of the feminine role suggest tantalizing possibilities. With more precise measures of social class and larger numbers from all social classes in the sample, further research would undoubtedly find new clues to understanding perceptions of roles and the predictability value of these perceptions in relation to actual behaviors.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY

The purpose of this research was to determine whether black and white college women have more modern or traditional attitudes about their own feminine roles, their ideal conceptions of feminine roles, and their perceptions of men's ideal woman. In addition, these role perceptions were compared with certain background and experiential factors as social class position, marriage and career expectations (future plans), position in the family, dominance of parents, closeness to parents, happiness of parents' marriage, and personal adjustment.

The subjects for this investigation were 224 junior and senior college women who were enrolled in courses in child development and family relations. Ninety-six of the subjects were black and 128 were white.

Each subject was administered a Personal Data Questionnaire, three forms of the Kammeyer Scale of Attitudes Toward Feminine Role Behavior (Form A--Own Self-Concept, Form B--Ideal Woman, Form C--Men's Ideal Woman), and the Adjective Check List developed by Gough and Heilbrun.

The following hypotheses were tested:

Hypothesis I. More college women will hold a more modern view than a traditional view of their own feminine sex-role.

Hypothesis II. More college women will hold a more traditional view than a modern view of the ideal feminine sex role.

Hypothesis III. College women will perceive men's ideal woman as more traditional than modern.

Hypothesis IV. Race will not be a significant distinguishing factor in concepts of own-self, ideal woman, and perception of men's ideal woman among these college women.

Hypothesis V. College women of both races from working class backgrounds will have a more traditional attitude toward the feminine role than those women from middle class backgrounds will have.

Hypothesis VI. College women of both races who are planning for a job, career, or professional position will have a more modern or self-oriented attitude toward the female role than those women who are planning only for marriage will have.

Hypothesis VII. Position in the family is a significant factor in the perception of the feminine role by college women of both races. Oldest and only children will be significantly more other-oriented (traditional) than those children occupying other positions in the family.

Hypothesis VIII. College women of both races from homes where the mother is the dominant figure will be more other-oriented (traditional) in their attitudes toward the feminine role.

Hypothesis IX. College women of both races who are equally close to both parents will be more other-oriented than those women who are close to only one parent or close to neither parent.

Hypothesis X. College women of both races who judge their parents' marriages as happy will be more traditional in their attitudes toward the feminine role.

Hypothesis XI. College women of both races who show good personal adjustment will have a flexible concept of the feminine role, combining both nurturing (traditional) and achieving (modern) elements.

The hypotheses were tested statistically in the null form. The null hypothesis was rejected at the .05 level of probability. Statistical techniques used in the analyses included chi square, correlation, t tests, and multiple classification analysis.

Conclusions

The following conclusions were drawn about this sample of college women who were taking courses in child development and family relations in three southern institutions:

1. College women of both races did not hold a more modern than traditional view of their own female role behavior. The subjects were about evenly divided as to modern versus traditional concepts of their own feminine roles.

2. College women of both races held a more traditional than a modern view of the ideal woman. However, in analyses of the results for each race separately, it was found that black college women were significantly more traditional than modern in their ideal views of feminine role behavior than white college women were.

3. College women of both races held a more traditional than a modern view of men's ideal woman.

4. There were significant correlations between the self-concepts of the female role, the ideal concepts, and concepts of men's ideal woman among the white undergraduates. For black college women only the ideal female concepts and views about men's ideal woman were related. Both of these views were independent of their self-concepts.

5. None of the background factors which were analyzed in this study had any relation to self-concepts of the female role of these college women of both races.

6. The ideal feminine role concepts of these college women were influenced by both race and social class. Black college women were significantly more traditional than modern in their ideal concepts. Subjects in the lowest and highest social class positions were most traditional in their ideal concepts, and subjects in the middle classes were least traditional.

7. College women of both races held more traditional than modern views of men's ideal woman when the mother was the dominant figure in the family. The result was clear only with happiness of parents' marriages controlled.

8. Black college women who judged their parents' marriages as happy had a more traditional than modern view of the ideal woman when the dominance pattern in the home was controlled.

9. Black college women who judged their parents' marriages as happy also had a more traditional than modern view of men's ideal woman. Again this finding was true when parental dominance was controlled.

10. The black subjects who ranked as their first reason for going to college "to prepare for a job or profession" or "to better status" were more modern or self-oriented in their views of men's ideal woman. This finding was true when social class was controlled.

11. Black women undergraduates who were close to either mother or father were also significantly more traditional than modern in their concepts of men's ideal woman. This finding was true when happiness of parents' marriage was controlled.

12. With other variables controlled, black college women in Social Class Positions III and IV held more traditional than modern views of men's ideal woman than those women in either the top or bottom categories.

13. Among white college women, with other variables controlled, only children were more other-oriented (traditional) than self-oriented (modern) in their ideal perceptions of the female role. Last children were more self-oriented than other-oriented. The variable or variables which had to be controlled to produce this result were not evident from inspection.

14. White college women in Social Class I had more traditional than modern views of the ideal woman when all of the other variables were controlled. However, the significant control variables were not obvious from inspection.

15. None of the independent variables in this study had any significant relation to the perception of men's ideal woman by white college women.

Suggestions for Further Research

Further research on differences between black and white college women's perceptions of the female role needs to be done in order to try to account for the more extreme traditionalism among black women in their ideal views of the feminine role and in their views of men's ideal woman.

Future research on women's role perceptions should also include female subjects of different age periods in the life cycle and from varying educational and social class backgrounds. A study of perceptions of the female role among students in various college classes would also be significant.

Additional research on the attitudes of men toward women's roles needs to be done. Again, these subjects should be of differing age levels and educational, occupational, and social class backgrounds.

Do men actually desire a traditional woman? If not, why do women still believe they do? And if they actually do, what kinds of experiences do they need to make them more accepting of women's needs for self-fulfillment outside the traditional mold?

Suggestions for further research would involve the study of the subjects in this study twenty years from now to see if their present role perceptions are related to their later role behavior or performance.

Since the sample in this study was limited to college women in one geographic region of the United States, it would be of interest to study subjects from other regions of the United States to see if there are regional differences in female role perceptions.

It is also possible that college women who were enrolled in courses which are more related to the traditional role performance of women would hold a different concept of the feminine role than those women enrolled in pre-law or pre-medicine. Further insight into women's roles might be obtained from studying young women enrolled in various professional schools or in other kinds of courses.

In addition to studying the role perceptions of different age groups of women, it would be interesting to explore the morale and general satisfaction of women who would also fit into one of the following categories: (a) single women, (b) housewives and mothers, (c) married working women with children, (d) married working women without children, (e) professional married women with children, (f) professional married women without children.

A longitudinal study of a group of female subjects, on whom detailed information is kept on the conditions under which they are developing, would be another way of gaining insight into the processes involved in determining the concept women have of the feminine sex role.

A most fruitful line of investigation would be to study the actual relationships among women's role concepts, sex-role identification, achievement orientation, and actual achievement.

Few, if any, research studies have dealt with men's perception of the male role. Future research studies which would examine men's views about their own role performance would be a significant contribution.

Finally, more attention should be given to the specific kinds of informal and formal educational experiences both men and women receive.

It may be that education is reinforcing the cultural stereotypes for both men and women. What kind of education does the woman in our society need in order to help her determine a conception of herself and a role for herself which will enable her to be satisfied and happy?

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APPENDIX A**MEASURING INSTRUMENTS**

GENERAL INSTRUCTIONS

You have been selected to participate in a survey dealing with some of the thoughts, attitudes, and goals of college women. Your participation will take no more than an hour and will certainly contribute to the knowledge about college women.

There are three separate sections of this survey. Directions accompany each section. You should read the directions very carefully, remembering to follow them and to answer every question or statement. Your answers will be confidential.

Your cooperation is greatly appreciated. If you are interested in the results of the study, please write your permanent mailing address below:

Name _____

Permanent Address _____

QUESTIONNAIRE

DIRECTIONS: Some of the items in this form require writing in a response; others may be answered by placing an X before one of the choices for an item; and others require a ranking of the choices. Please respond to each item as its form indicates.

1. Name _____
2. Age:
 - _____ (1) 18-22
 - _____ (2) 23-25
 - _____ (3) 26 and above
3. Marital status:
 - _____ (1) Single
 - _____ (2) Married
 - _____ (3) Other (specify)
4. Race:
 - _____
5. College you are now attending:
 - _____ (1) Bennett College
 - _____ (2) North Carolina A & T State University
 - _____ (3) University of North Carolina at Greensboro
6. College classification
 - (1) Senior
 - _____ (2) Junior
 - _____ (3) Sophomore
 - _____ (4) Freshman
 - _____ (5) Other (specify) _____
7. What is your area of specialization?
 - _____
8. Has your major remained the same since entering college?
 - _____ (1) Yes
 - _____ (2) No
9. If your major has not remained the same since entering college, how many times have you changed?
 - _____ (1) Once
 - _____ (2) Twice
 - _____ (3) Three times
 - _____ (4) Over three times

10. Why did you decide to go to college? (Rank the following reasons from 1 to 6, using 1 for "Most Important", 2 for "Next Most Important", until 6 for "Least Important".)
- _____ (1) Education helps one understand life
 - _____ (2) Prepare for certain job or profession
 - _____ (3) To better status
 - _____ (4) To fulfill self
 - _____ (5) Parents wish
 - _____ (6) To find a husband
11. What size town, city, or community did you grow up in?
- _____ (1) Population 1,000,000 and over
 - _____ (2) Population 250,000 to 999,999
 - _____ (3) Population 50,000 to 249,999
 - _____ (4) Population 1,000 to 49,999
 - _____ (5) Population 999 or less
12. Are your parents living together?
- _____ (1) Yes
 - _____ (2) No
13. If parents are not together, check the status of the separation.
- _____ (1) Divorce
 - _____ (2) Legal separation
 - _____ (3) Death
 - _____ (4) Other (specify) _____
14. If parents are not living together, how old were you when they separated?
- _____ (1) 0-5 years
 - _____ (2) 6-11 years
 - _____ (3) 12-15 years
15. How many children are in your family?
- _____ (1) 1
 - _____ (2) 2
 - _____ (3) 3
 - _____ (4) 4
 - _____ (5) 5 or more
16. What is your position in the family?
- _____ (1) Only child
 - _____ (2) First child
 - _____ (3) Second child
 - _____ (4) Third child
 - _____ (5) Fourth child
 - _____ (6) Fifth or beyond

17. How do you feel toward your parents?
- _____ (1) A great deal closer to mother
 _____ (2) Closer to mother
 _____ (3) Equally close to both parents
 _____ (4) Closer to father
 _____ (5) A great deal closer to father
 _____ (6) Close to neither parent
18. What are your feelings toward your brothers and sisters?
- _____ (1) A great deal closer to sister(s)
 _____ (2) Closer to sister(s)
 _____ (3) Equally close to sister(s) and brother(s)
 _____ (4) Closer to brother(s)
 _____ (5) A great deal closer to brother(s)
 _____ (6) Closer to neither brother(s) or sister(s)
19. How would you rate the happiness of your parent's marriage?
- _____ (1) Very happy
 _____ (2) Moderately happy
 _____ (3) Average
 _____ (4) Somewhat Unhappy
 _____ (5) Unhappy
20. What is the dominance pattern in your home?
- _____ (1) Father very dominant
 _____ (2) Father somewhat dominant
 _____ (3) Both parents equally dominant
 _____ (4) Mother somewhat dominant
 _____ (5) Mother very dominant
21. How conservative or liberal would you describe the atmosphere in your home?
- _____ (1) Extremely conservative
 _____ (2) Somewhat conservative
 _____ (3) Half and half
 _____ (4) Somewhat liberal
 _____ (5) Extremely liberal
22. Describe your father's occupation in detail. _____

23. How far did your father go in school?
 (1) Post graduate (Indicate degree held _____)
 (2) Four-year college graduate
 (3) 1 - 3 years of college or business school
 (4) High school graduate
 (5) 10 - 11 years of school
 (6) 7 - 9 years of school
 (7) Under 7 years of school
24. Does your mother work outside the home at the present time?
 (1) Yes
 (2) No
25. How much time does your mother spend in work outside the home?
 (1) Full time (30 or more hours per week)
 (2) Part time (Less than 30 hours per week)
26. How long has your mother worked outside the home?
 (1) Has never worked outside the home
 (2) Less than 1 year
 (3) 1 - 5 years
 (4) 6 - 10 years
 (5) 11 - 15 years
 (6) 16 - 20 years
 (7) 21 - 25 years
27. How consistently has your mother worked outside the home?
 (1) Has never worked outside the home
 (2) Has not worked outside the home enough to be significant
 (3) Has worked all her married life
 (4) Has worked all her life except for one year or less when each child was born
 (5) Went to work after all children were in school
 (6) Other (specify) _____
28. Describe your mother's occupation in detail, if she is presently working outside the home.

29. How far did your mother go in school?
 (1) Post graduate (Indicate degree held _____)
 (2) Four-year college graduate
 (3) 1 - 3 years of college or business school
 (4) High school graduate
 (5) 10 - 11 years of school
 (6) 7 - 9 years of school
 (7) Under 7 years of school

30. In what religion are you a member?
 _____ (1) Catholic
 _____ (2) Protestant
 _____ (3) Jewish
 _____ (4) Greek Orthodox
 _____ (5) Other (specify) _____
31. How religious is your family?
 _____ (1) Extremely religious
 _____ (2) Somewhat religious
 _____ (3) Somewhat irreligious
 _____ (4) Very irreligious
32. Do you have a steady boyfriend at this time?
 _____ (1) Yes
 _____ (2) No
33. How regularly do you date?
 _____ (1) Once a week
 _____ (2) Twice a week
 _____ (3) Three times a week
 _____ (4) More than three times a week
 _____ (5) Once a month
 _____ (6) Other (specify) _____
34. In general, do you have any hesitation about revealing your equality or superiority to men in intellectual, artistic, or athletic activities?
 _____ (1) None
 _____ (2) Some
 _____ (3) A great deal
35. How are a girl's chances for dates or male attention affected if she has a high academic in:
Art or Music
 _____ (1) Helped a great deal
 _____ (2) Helped somewhat
 _____ (3) Not helped any
- Literature
 _____ (1) Helped a great deal
 _____ (2) Helped somewhat
 _____ (3) Not helped any
- Natural Sciences
 _____ (1) Helped a great deal
 _____ (2) Helped somewhat
 _____ (3) Not helped any

36. Describe your future vocational plans. _____
-
37. Do you plan to attend graduate school at any time in your life?
 _____ (1) Yes
 _____ (2) No
 _____ (3) Maybe
38. Do you plan to marry?
 _____ (1) Before finishing school
 _____ (2) Immediately after finishing school
 _____ (3) 2 - 5 years after finishing school
 _____ (4) 5 - 10 years after finishing school
 _____ (5) Not at all
39. If you plan to marry, how many children would you like to have?
 _____ (1) None
 _____ (2) 1
 _____ (3) 2
 _____ (4) 3
 _____ (5) 4
 _____ (6) 5 or more
40. If you plan to marry, do you plan to work after marriage?
 _____ (1) Yes
 _____ (2) No
41. How long do you plan to work?
 _____ (1) Throughout your married life - with time out for
 maternity leave
 _____ (2) Until the birth of the first child
 _____ (3) Only after all children are in school
 _____ (4) Other (specify) _____
42. What would be your reasons for working after marriage? (Rank from
 "Most Important" to 8 "Least Important")
 _____ (1) Personal satisfaction and self-fulfillment; feeling of
 achievement
 _____ (2) To help with family finances; stabilize income; acquire
 savings account; help purchase home; help with children's
 college education
 _____ (3) Feeling that husband should not have entire burden of
 support of family
 _____ (4) To put education and knowledge to work in helping others
 and advancing one's field of study
 _____ (5) Belief that a working wife makes for a better marriage
 _____ (6) To keep busy; to occupy time; to relieve boredom; or to
 escape from household chores
 _____ (7) Husband insists that you work
 _____ (8) To help care for aging parents

43. What would be your reasons for not working after marriage?
(Rank from 1 "Most Important" to 5 "Least Important")
- (1) Needs of family would not allow it
 (2) No satisfactory provision for child care for under
 school age children
 (3) Husband would not like for you to work
 (4) Marry into wealth or husband would have sufficient
 income
 (5) Desire to devote more time to the up bringing of
 children and to being an old-fashion housewife
 (6) Other (specify) _____
44. If you could be assured of good care for your children, would you
 return to work when the child is
- (1) 1 to 3 months old
 (2) 4 months to 1 year old
 (3) 1 to 3 years old
 (4) 4 to 6 years old
 (5) Would not return to work
45. If your husband would agree to keep house and take care of the
 children while you worked to support the family, would you allow
 him to do so?
- (1) Yes
 (2) No
46. If your husband would agree to keep house and take care of the
 children part time, would you be more interested in advancing
 in your chosen profession?
- (1) Yes
 (2) No
47. How adequate has your training at home and in school been in
 preparation for:
- A career role
- (1) Very adequate
 (2) Adequate
 (3) Fairly adequate
 (4) Inadequate
48. How much contradiction is there between what you think and what
 the following people think of how you spend your time in college:
- Father
- (1) None
 (2) Some
 (3) A great deal
- Mother
- (1) None
 (2) Some
 (3) A great deal

Boyfriend or fiancé

- (1) None
- (2) Some
- (3) A great deal

49. How much contradiction is there between what you would like to do after finishing college and what each of the following persons would like you to do?

Father

- (1) None
- (2) Some
- (3) A great deal

Mother

- (1) None
- (2) Some
- (3) A great deal

Boyfriend or fiancé

- (1) None
- (2) Some
- (3) A great deal

50. What has your mother indicated she would like you to do after finishing college? (Be specific)

51. What would your father like you to do after college? (Be specific)

Following are three forms of a scale for measuring some attitudes about women's activities. On Form A, you are to react to the statements the way you, yourself, think and believe.

The next Form B asks you to respond to each statement the way you think an ideal woman would. This form measures your concept of an ideal woman's attitudes.

Finally, on Form C you are asked to react in terms of your concepts of men's ideal woman. That is, answer it the way a man would want a woman to feel.

FORM A - YOUR OWN ANSWERS

Name _____

DIRECTIONS: Please react to these statements with your true opinion by placing an X in the column which represents your opinion on each item. Keep in mind the way you really are.

	Agree	Agree Somewhat	Disagree Somewhat	Disagree
1. In marriage, the major responsibility of the wife is to keep husband and children happy.	()	()	()	()
2. One of the most important things a mother can do for her daughter is prepare her for the duties of being a wife.	()	()	()	()
3. In marriage, the husband should make the major decisions.	()	()	()	()
4. For a college girl, social poise is more important than grade point average.	()	()	()	()
5. English is a better major for a college girl than economics.	()	()	()	()

FORM B - IDEAL WOMAN'S ANSWERS

Name _____

DIRECTIONS: Please react to these statements the way you believe an ideal woman would react by placing an X in the appropriate column. Think of your concept of an ideal woman. Your concept of an ideal woman does not have to coincide with the stereotype ideal woman as defined by the culture.

	Agree	Agree Somewhat	Disagree Somewhat	Disagree
1. In marriage, the major responsibility of the wife is to keep her husband and children happy.	()	()	()	()
2. One of the most important things a mother can do for her daughter is prepare her for the duties of being a wife.	()	()	()	()
3. In marriage, the husband should make the major decisions.	()	()	()	()
4. For a college girl, social poise is more important than grade point average.	()	()	()	()
5. English is a better major for a college girl than economics.	()	()	()	()

FORM C - ANSWERS OF MEN'S IDEAL WOMAN

Name _____

DIRECTIONS: Please react to these statements with the type of woman in mind whom you think most men would like to marry. Think of Men's Ideal Woman and respond to each statement as you think men's ideal woman would by placing an X in the appropriate column.

	Agree	Agree Somewhat	Disagree Somewhat	Disagree
1. In marriage, the major responsibility of the wife is to keep her husband and children happy.	()	()	()	()
2. One of the most important things a mother can do for her daughter is prepare her for the duties of being a wife.	()	()	()	()
3. In marriage, the husband should make the major decisions.	()	()	()	()
4. For a college girl, social poise is more important than grade point average.	()	()	()	()
5. English is a better major for a college girl than economics.	()	()	()	()

APPENDIX B

HOLLINGSHEAD TWO-FACTOR INDEX OF SOCIAL POSITION

Hollingshead Two-Factor Index of Social Position

The following Educational and Occupational Scales were used in computing the Index of Social Position score:

The Occupational Scale (seven positions)

1. Higher executives of large concerns, proprietors, and major professionals.
2. Business managers, proprietors of medium-sized businesses, and lesser professionals, farm owner or manager.
3. Administrative personnel, owners of small businesses, and minor professionals.
4. Clerical and sales workers, technicians, and owners of little businesses.
5. Skilled manual employees.
6. Machine operators and semiskilled employees.
7. Unskilled employees.

The Educational Scale (seven positions)

1. Professional (M.S., M. S., M.D., Ph.D., L.L.B., and the like).
2. Four year college graduate (A.B., B.S., B.M.).
3. 1-3 years of college (also business schools).
4. High school graduate.
5. 10-11 years of school (part high school).
6. 7-9 years of school.
7. Under 7 years of school.

Scoring Procedure

Factor	Scale Score	Factor Weight	= Partial Score
Occupation	X	7	7X
Education	X	4	4X
	Index of Social Position Score		<u>Total</u>

The range of scores in each class is as follows:

Class	Range of Scores
I	11 - 17
II	18 - 31
III	32 - 47
IV	48 - 63
V	64 - 77

APPENDIX C

JOINT FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTIONS OF PERSONAL
DATA RESPONSE VARIABLES

KEY TO VARIABLES*

Variable 1 - Race

Black
White

Variable 2 - Plans

1. Education helps understand life
2. Preparation for job or profession
3. Better status
4. Fulfill self
5. Parents wish

Variable 3 - Position in Family

1. Only child
2. Oldest child
3. Middle child
4. Last child

Variable 4 - Closeness to Parents

1. Close to both parents
2. Closer to father
3. Closer to mother
4. Close to neither parent

Variable 5 - Happiness of Parents' Marriage

1. Happy
2. Average
3. Unhappy

Variable 6 - Parental Dominance

1. Father dominant
2. Both parents equally dominant
3. Mother dominant

Variable 7 - Social Class

1. I
2. II
3. III
4. IV
5. V

Variable 8 - Personal Adjustment

1. Very good
2. Good
3. Average

* In cases where chi squares were computed, they are shown.

TOTAL SAMPLE

		2						8		
1	6.	44.	10.	15.	5.	1	11.	52.	17.	
	13.	60.	7.	40.	2.		20.	87.	15.	

		3						3			
1	8.	24.	25.	23.		2	2.	7.	6.	4.	
	12.	53.	35.	22.			13.	40.	29.	22.	

		4						3			
1	25.	5.	46.	4.			1.	6.	3.	7.	
	60.	9.	51.	2.			3.	22.	19.	11.	
							1.	2.	3.	1.	

		5						4			
1	36.	29.	15.			2	10.	0.	9.	0.	
	86.	18.	18.				41.	6.	55.	2.	

		6						27			
1	24.	38.	18.				4.	2.	8.	3.	
	51.	48.	23.				27.	4.	24.	0.	
							3.	2.	1.	1.	

$\chi^2 = 2.88$
 p = ns

		7						5			
1	1.	6.	23.	39.	11.	2	12.	4.	3.		
	9.	42.	53.	18.	0.		62.	27.	15.		
							6.	8.	3.		
							37.	7.	3.		
							5.	1.	1.		

$\chi^2 = 57.74$
 p = .001

	6		
2	7.	11.	1.
	40.	42.	22.
	4.	7.	6.
	22.	23.	10.
	2.	3.	2.

$\chi^2 = 6.73$
 p = ns

	7				
2	1.	4.	7.	7.	0.
	3.	23.	45.	25.	8.
	1.	3.	4.	7.	2.
	3.	17.	17.	18.	0.
	2.	1.	3.	0.	1.

$\chi^2 = 25.00$
 p = ns

	8		
2	4.	14.	1.
	15.	74.	15.
	3.	6.	8.
	7.	40.	8.
	2.	5.	0.

	4			
3	10.	4.	6.	0.
	32.	6.	36.	3.
	30.	2.	27.	1.
	13.	2.	28.	2.

	5		
3	12.	7.	1.
	48.	16.	13.
	39.	9.	12.
	23.	15.	7.

	6		
3	7.	12.	1.
	32.	31.	14.
	20.	24.	16.
	16.	19.	10.

$\chi^2 = 6.07$
 p = ns

	7				
3	0.	2.	12.	6.	0.
	6.	24.	26.	21.	0.
	3.	14.	24.	15.	4.
	1.	8.	14.	15.	7.

$\chi^2 = 25.12$
 p = .05

8

3	6.	14.	0.
	13.	51.	13.
	12.	39.	9.
	0.	39.	10.

5

4	75.	6.	4.
	8.	5.	1.
	38.	33.	26.
	1.	3.	2.

6

4	33.	41.	11.
	3.	8.	3.
	34.	37.	26.
	5.	0.	1.

$\chi^2 = 13.23$
 $p = < .05$

7

4	6.	23.	36.	18.	2.
	2.	5.	4.	3.	0.
	2.	19.	34.	35.	7.
	0.	1.	2.	1.	2.

$\chi^2 = 23.75$
 $p = < .05$

8

4	18.	58.	9.
	3.	9.	2.
	10.	68.	19.
	0.	4.	2.

6

5	48.	60.	14.
	16.	21.	10.
	11.	5.	17.

$\chi^2 = 28.08$
 $p = < .001$

7

5	8.	38.	47.	26.	3.
	1.	5.	18.	18.	5.
	1.	5.	11.	13.	3.

$\chi^2 = 19.41$
 $p = < .05$

8

5	21.	82.	19.
	8.	33.	6.
	2.	24.	7.

7

6	4.	16.	30.	21.	4.
	4.	26.	31.	23.	2.
	2.	6.	15.	13.	5.

$\chi^2 = 8.57$
 $p = ns$

8

6 12. 49. 14.

17. 59. 10.

2. 31. 8.

$$\chi^2 = 6.14$$

p = ns

8

7 4. 5. 1.

10. 33. 5.

8. 57. 11.

9. 37. 11.

0. 7. 4.

$$\chi^2 = 13.41$$

p = ns

BLACK SAMPLE

		3			
2	1.	2.	2.	1.	
	5.	12.	16.	11.	
	0.	3.	2.	5.	
	1.	6.	3.	5.	
	1.	1.	2.	1.	

4

2	2.	0.	4.	0.
	14.	2.	27.	1.
	1.	2.	5.	2.
	6.	0.	9.	0.
	2.	1.	1.	1.

$$\chi^2 = 17.99$$

$$p = ns$$

5

2	1.	3.	2.
	22.	17.	5.
	3.	5.	2.
	7.	3.	5.
	3.	1.	1.

$$\chi^2 = 8.11$$

$$p = ns$$

6

2	2.	4.	0.
	11.	22.	11.
	3.	3.	4.
	6.	7.	2.
	2.	2.	1.

$$\chi^2 = 5.69$$

$$p = ns$$

7

2	0.	0.	2.	4.	0.
	0.	4.	14.	18.	8.
	0.	1.	3.	4.	2.
	0.	0.	2.	13.	0.
	1.	1.	2.	0.	1.

$$\chi^2 = 31.41$$

$$p = < .05$$

8

2	1.	5.	0.
	7.	28.	9.
	1.	4.	5.
	1.	11.	3.
	1.	4.	0.

		4		
3	6.	1.	1.	0.
	6.	1.	16.	1.
	9.	1.	14.	1.
	4.	2.	15.	2.

$\chi^2 = 12.41$
p = ns

		7		
3	0.	1.	3.	4.
	0.	4.	6.	14.
	1.	0.	8.	12.
	0.	1.	6.	9.

$\chi^2 = 17.86$
p = ns

		5	
3	6.	2.	0.
	10.	8.	6.
	11.	7.	7.
	9.	12.	2.

$\chi^2 = 8.64$
p = ns

		8	
3	2.	6.	0.
	3.	14.	7.
	6.	14.	5.
	0.	18.	5.

		6	
3	2.	6.	0.
	7.	14.	3.
	7.	9.	9.
	8.	9.	6.

$\chi^2 = 8.21$
p = ns

		5	
4	21.	3.	1.
	3.	2.	0.
	11.	22.	13.
	1.	2.	1.

$\chi^2 = 25.72$
p = < .001

		6	
4	6.	16.	3.
	1.	2.	2.
	13.	20.	13.
	4.	0.	0.

$\chi^2 = 14.08$
p = < .05

			7		
4	0.	1.	10.	12.	2.
	0.	2.	1.	2.	0.
	1.	3.	11.	24.	7.
	0.	0.	1.	1.	2.

$\chi^2 = 16.01$
p = ns

			8
5	7.	22.	7.
	4.	22.	3.
	0.	8.	7.

$\chi^2 = 10.07$
p = < .05

			8
4	6.	16.	3.
	1.	3.	1.
	4.	31.	11.
	0.	2.	2.

$\chi^2 = 6.38$
p = ns

				7	
6	1.	1.	4.	14.	4.
	0.	4.	15.	17.	2.
	0.	1.	4.	8.	5.

$\chi^2 = 11.61$
p = ns

			6
5	11.	22.	3.
	10.	13.	6.
	3.	3.	9.

$\chi^2 = 17.16$
p = < .01

			8
6	3.	17.	4.
	7.	25.	6.
	1.	10.	7.

$\chi^2 = 5.29$
p = ns

			7		
5	0.	5.	13.	15.	3.
	1.	1.	9.	13.	5.
	0.	0.	1.	11.	3.

$\chi^2 = 12.53$
p = ns

			8
7	0.	1.	0.
	2.	3.	1.
	2.	17.	4.
	7.	24.	8.
	0.	7.	4.

$\chi^2 = 10.28$
p = ns

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	3			
2	1.	5.	4.	3.
	8.	28.	13.	11.
	1.	3.	1.	2.
	2.	16.	16.	6.
	0.	1.	1.	0.

$$\chi^2 = 7.28$$

$$p = \text{ns}$$

	4			
2	8.	0.	5.	0.
	27.	4.	28.	1.
	3.	0.	3.	1.
	21.	4.	15.	0.
	1.	1.	0.	0.

	5		
2	11.	1.	1.
	40.	10.	10.
	3.	3.	1.
	30.	4.	6.
	2.	0.	0.

	6		
2	5.	7.	1.
	29.	20.	11.
	1.	4.	2.
	16.	16.	8.
	0.	1.	1.

	7			
2	1.	4.	5.	3.
	3.	19.	31.	7.
	1.	2.	1.	3.
	3.	17.	15.	5.
	1.	0.	1.	0.

$$\chi^2 = 15.44$$

$$p = \text{ns}$$

	8		
2	3.	9.	1.
	8.	46.	6.
	2.	2.	3.
	6.	29.	5.
	1.	1.	0.

	4			
3	4.	3.	5.	0.
	26.	5.	20.	2.
	21.	1.	13.	0.
	9.	0.	13.	0.

$$\chi^2 = 14.27$$

p = ns

	7			
3	0.	1.	9.	2.
	6.	20.	20.	7.
	2.	14.	16.	3.
	1.	7.	8.	6.

$$\chi^2 = 12.08$$

p = ns

	5		
3	6.	5.	1.
	38.	8.	7.
	28.	2.	5.
	14.	3.	5.

$$\chi^2 = 10.55$$

p = ns

	8		
3	4.	8.	0.
	10.	37.	6.
	6.	25.	4.
	0.	17.	5.

$$\chi^2 = 9.56$$

p = ns

	6		
3	5.	6.	1.
	25.	17.	11.
	13.	15.	7.
	8.	10.	4.

$$\chi^2 = 2.92$$

p = ns

	5		
4	54.	3.	3.
	5.	3.	1.
	27.	11.	13.
	0.	1.	1.

$$\chi^2 = 26.04$$

p = < .001

	6		
4	27.	25.	8.
	2.	6.	1.
	21.	17.	13.
	1.	0.	1.

		7			
4	6.	22.	26.	6.	
	2.	3.	3.	1.	
	1.	16.	23.	11.	
	0.	1.	1.	0.	

$$\chi^2 = 8.96$$

p = ns

		8		
4	12.	42.	6.	
	2.	6.	1.	
	6.	37.	8.	
	0.	2.	0.	

		6		
5	37.	38.	11.	
	6.	8.	4.	
	8.	2.	8.	

		7			
5	8.	33.	34.	11.	
	0.	4.	9.	5.	
	1.	5.	10.	2.	

$$\chi^2 = 6.78$$

p = ns

		8		
5	14.	60.	12.	
	4.	11.	3.	
	2.	16.	0.	

		7			
6	3.	15.	26.	7.	
	4.	22.	16.	6.	
	2.	5.	11.	5.	

$$\chi^2 = 6.39$$

p = ns

		8		
6	9.	32.	10.	
	10.	34.	4.	
	1.	21.	1.	

		8		
7	4.	4.	1.	
	8.	30.	4.	
	6.	40.	7.	
	2.	13.	3.	

$$\chi^2 = 7.27$$

p = ns