

WOMEN IN TRANSITION: A STUDY OF DEMOGRAPHIC
AND PERSONALITY FACTORS RELATED TO
LIFE-STYLE CHOICES

By

Judy Ann Aanstad

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And the end of all our exploring
will be to arrive where we started
and know the place for the first time.

--T.S. Eliot

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The purpose of this study was to investigate mid-life vocational decisions made by homemakers following a ten-week life planning seminar. The main objective was to learn what situational and personality factors were related to life-style choices made by the women. Other objectives were to learn more about the types of decisions and actions taken by these adult women in transition and to evaluate the effectiveness of the life planning program.

To gather data for the study, a questionnaire was mailed to 167 women who had completed one of the Lifespan Planning Seminars, which had been offered twice a year since 1972 at the Lifespan Center of Salem College. The questionnaire return rate was 81%, with the lowest return, 62%, coming from the first Seminar offered. Additional data used in the study included Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) and Edwards Personal

Preference Schedule (EPPS) test results for the former Seminar participants which were on file at the Lifespan Center.

The women were divided into two groups on the basis of their current activity involvement: self-styled homemakers and career-oriented women. These groups were compared on a variety of situational and personality factors. Factors significantly differentiating the two groups included a higher need by the self-styled homemakers for abasement on the EPPS ($p < .01$, $df = 85$), a higher need for exhibition by the career women on the EPPS ($p < .05$, $df = 85$), and a greater likelihood that the homemakers were married ($p < .025$, $df = 1$). In addition, the career-oriented women were more satisfied with their current life-style ($p < .001$, $df = 130$), rated themselves higher on the ability to make decisions and accomplish goals ($p < .001$, $df = 133$), were more likely to have acted on their decisions ($p < .005$, $df = 1$), and rated higher the importance of the Seminar to their life planning ($p < .001$, $df = 130$). These results seem to indicate that these career-oriented women were more satisfied with their life planning experience and their chosen life-style.

Other findings indicated that many of the women who attended the Seminar did so because they were considering a return to school or work. Many of them did make a transition to school or work; at the time of the study 52% of the women were attending or had completed college, graduate school, or specialized job preparation since the Seminar. Thirty-nine percent were working either part or full-time. The majority of the

women felt the Seminar was important to them in their career planning and especially valued the vocational testing and interaction with other women. The most common positive outcomes mentioned included an increase in self-confidence, an increased ability to make decisions, and an increase in the ability to assume responsibility for one's self.

CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION

In the last twenty years a major emphasis in vocational theory has been that of perceiving vocational planning as a developmental process, that is, a process in which individuals are making vocational decisions and changes throughout a lifetime. When Frank Parsons began his pioneering work in vocational theory, he implied that individuals choose a job for life (Miller, 1973). Super was instrumental in introducing the developmental approach to career counseling in the 1940's when he incorporated Buehler's developmental lifestages into a theory of vocational choice (Crites, 1974; Super, 1954).

Much of the research on vocational planning has focused on student populations and the entry-level career choice. Little is known about the vocational activity of adults. Even developmental psychology has focused for the most part on the developmental stages of children through adolescence, leaving much unknown about adult developmental stages (Goodman, Walworth, & Waters, 1976).

In addition, most research in vocational development has focused on men and their patterns of development. Until the 1960's researchers either tended to assume that women fit into male patterns of vocational development or they tended to ignore entirely the vocational development of women (Cook & Stone, 1973). More recently many researchers are

beginning to recognize that the vocational development of women is different in many ways from that of men (Lewis, 1965).

No one theory exists which describes and predicts the vocational development of women, although more researchers are beginning to formulate theories and gather vocational information about women. Much of the career pattern research about women, according to Cook and Stone (1973), falls into one of two approaches: discovering differences in women planning to enter "male fields" versus women entering "female fields" and comparing college women with career aspirations to college women with homemaking aspirations. The overall purpose is to learn what factors lead to different levels of achievement and preferences of life-style among women.

One period of particular interest in the vocational development of women can be identified as mid-life, the years around age 35. This is the time when women who have been focused on children and home, with little or no outside work commitment, often reassess themselves, their identity, their relation to the world of work, and their satisfaction with their current major commitment to home and family. It is at this time that women often choose to re-enter the job market or return to school (Brandenburg, 1974). It is a period of high anxiety, frustration, and even depression. There is a great need to understand more about this period in the life of so many women in order to facilitate their career development.

Many universities, community agencies, and women's centers have developed programs to facilitate the educational and vocational planning of women in mid-life transition. Organizations like the YWCA have

offered career planning services to women for decades; and, in 1947, Altrusa International published a booklet called "Women Go To Work At Any Age" (Zapoleon, 1961). It is only within the last ten years that the demands for such programs and, therefore, the number of such programs for women has drastically increased (Khosh, 1977). In 1971 the Women's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor listed 375 institutions across the country with special programs or services for adult women (U.S. Department of Labor, 1971). More recently, Watkins (1974) estimated that the number of programs for women in colleges and universities was approaching 500. This increase in programs probably is due to a number of factors, including the rising divorce rate necessitating more women working, birth control which makes more control over work and school participation possible for women, the economic recession forcing many women to work, a positive trend in public attitudes toward working women, and the women's movement which has promoted the attitude that women have the right and responsibility to use and develop their abilities.

One program developed to help community women reassess themselves and their current life-style in order to make positive changes is the Lifespan Planning Seminar at Salem College in Winston-Salem, North Carolina. Although there are a number of such programs across the country, little research has been conducted to learn more about women using these programs to make life changes or to learn what factors influence the life-styles women choose after the conclusion of such programs.

Purpose of Study

This study was designed to investigate the mid-life transition of adult women as they chose and acted on vocational plans for themselves. The primary purpose was to learn the relationship of situational and personality factors to the vocational pattern choices of Seminar participants six months to five years after the Seminar. A secondary purpose was to learn what decisions former program participants reported having made for themselves at the conclusion of the Seminar, how they acted on these decisions, what hindered them in taking action, and how helpful the Seminar experience was to them in the formulation of their plans.

Population

The population for this study included all women who had completed the Lifespan Planning Seminar offered at the Lifespan Center of Salem College, Winston-Salem, North Carolina. This included 167 women who attended one of the seminars (10 to 12 weeks in length) offered during the period fall 1972 to fall 1977. Since fall 1972, the Lifespan Planning Seminar has been offered twice a year, in the fall and in the spring. Although no specific statistics were available prior to this study, women who participated in the Seminar had tended to be from moderate to high socio-economic groups, between the ages of 25 and 45, and married. With a few exceptions, the Seminar participants were housewives who were not working. Most of them, in an initial interview, expressed a need to learn more about themselves and to make vocational plans. Often, but not always, this need for planning seemed to be

related to changes in family responsibilities or foreseen changes in family needs which would allow the women more time and energy to direct in some new way. A small number had used the Seminar experience as a means to plan for retirement or for a new life-style following divorce. Others had expressed a general dissatisfaction with their current life and a need for change. A general description of the Lifespan Center and the Lifespan Planning Seminar and a detailed description of the Lifespan Planning Seminar are included in Appendices A and B.

Definitions

Occupation. An occupation is a specific type of work, paid or unpaid, which can be found in various settings (medicine, teaching, etc.). For purposes of this study, occupation includes volunteer work.

Career. Career refers to the occupation or series of occupations an individual engages in over a lifetime.

Career planning. Career planning is a process in which an individual assesses aspects about himself, such as past experience, abilities, values, interests, personality, and also assesses occupational and educational opportunities for himself in his environment. He then makes decisions which will further his career development. Often counseling and vocational testing are included in the process of career planning. For purposes of this study, vocational planning and career planning will be used synonymously.

Life planning. Life planning includes the concept of career planning but may also include planning related to personal aspects of a person's life such as marriage plans. The concept also includes the

idea of learning skills, such as decision-making and goal-setting, which can be used at later points in the individual's life.

Life-style. For purposes of this study, the definition of life-style given by Blocher was used:

The concept of life style, then, refers to the unique combination of values, choices, strategies, mechanisms, and behavior patterns through which the individual establishes personal goals and both copes with stress in and strives for mastery over, his environment. (Blocher, 1973, pp. 69-70)

Developmental task. For purposes of this study, the definition given by Havighurst was used:

A developmental task is a task which arises at or about a certain period in the life of the individual, successful achievement of which leads to his happiness and to success with later tasks, while failure leads to unhappiness in the individual, disapproval by the society and difficulty with later tasks. (Havighurst, 1953, p. 2)

Women in transition. Women in transition refers to women who are in process of reassessing their current life-style, exploring various options for change, and making decisions which will form the basis of their life-style for a future period of time. Concrete changes in life-style are often involved, but not necessary to this definition.

CHAPTER II A REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The review of the literature will cover three main areas: adult developmental theory, vocational development of women, and vocational planning programs for adult women.

Adult Developmental Theory

Individuals tend to make choices at various times throughout their life with an emphasis on different factors (Ginzberg, Ginsburg, Axelrad, & Herma, 1951). It is important, therefore, to consider the individual's present stage of adult development in order to formulate meaningful vocational plans.

Until recently little attention has been given to adult development (Baltes & Goulet, 1970; Gould, 1972; Huberman, 1974; Kuhlen & Johnson, 1952; Neugarten, 1968a; Thomas, 1975). Not only is there little systematic data gathered on adult development stages, but there are few useful theories to direct research (Neugarten, 1968a). One early theorist in adult development was Erik Erikson (1950), who formulated eight stages of ego development:

Basis Trust vs. Mistrust
Autonomy vs. Shame and Doubt
Initiative vs. Guilt
Industry vs. Inferiority
Identity vs. Role Confusion
Intimacy vs. Isolation
Generativity vs. Stagnation
Ego Integrity vs. Despair

The last three of these stages encompass adulthood. During the sixth stage, Intimacy vs. Isolation, the young adult must develop relationships based on caring and love. Often this means finding a marriage partner and developing a close relationship with that person. The main task of the seventh stage, Generativity vs. Stagnation, is developing ways to help and guide the next generation. This may refer to one's children, younger colleagues, or the community as a whole. The important part of this task is the ability to give of one's self to others. The eighth stage, Ego Integrity vs. Despair, is reached in old age. The main task of this stage is to accept one's self and one's life with a sense of peace and integrity. Individuals who accomplish this task seem to possess a sense of wisdom, while those who do not may despair.

Although most people have some understanding of stages of growth which children experience, few are aware of developmental changes in adults. One explanation for this is that children's stages of growth are dependent upon a biological model while adult stages are not (Flavell, 1970). Adult developmental changes, according to Neugarten (1968a), are more psychological and sociological than biological. Important changes for adults center around major life events like marriage, parenthood, and career advancement. Furthermore, at different periods in adulthood, individuals cope with the basic themes of love, work, time, and death in different ways.

Many of Neugarten's ideas are based on research she and several colleagues conducted from 1952 to 1962 at the Kansas City Studies of Adult Life (Neugarten, 1964). They gathered cross-sectional data on 700 men and women in the age range 40-70. The main focus of their

study was the psychological and sociological aspects of middle age.

They concluded:

There exists what might be called a prescriptive time table for the ordering of major life events: a time in the life span when men and women are expected to marry, a time to raise children, a time to retire. This normative pattern is adhered to more or less consistently, by most persons in society. (Neugarten, Moore, & Lowe, 1968, p. 22)

Thus, adults tend to order their lives by a time frame which can be described. Another finding was that age-related changes appear sooner and more consistently in the internal rather than external aspects of personality (Neugarten, 1968a). This means that the individual is aware of age-related changes before he manifests these changes in external behavior.

Neugarten and her associates defined adulthood as being composed of young adulthood, maturity, middle age, and old age. Each of these periods has specific characteristics (Neugarten, 1968a). From interviews with 100 men and women, Neugarten (1968b) described specific characteristics of middle age. Middle age seems to be a time of taking stock and introspection of the self within a complex social environment. Middle age is also a time when chronological age is not as important as it was in earlier life. Rather, position within different life contexts, such as body, career, and family are important. There are some differences here between men and women. Women tend to define their age status by the timing of events in the family cycle. For married women, middle age is closely related to children leaving home. A major theme in middle life for women is increased freedom. It is a time when unused talents and abilities can be developed and used in new directions. Men, on the other hand, define

middle age from cues outside of the family context. Often these are career-related or biological. Health changes seem to mean more to men than women. Women even tend to focus more on the health of their husbands than on their own health. Both men and women sense middle age as the prime of life. Although there is a recognition of the inevitability of death, there is great satisfaction in recognizing a sense of expertise developed through life experience. "For both men and women, the perception of greater maturity and a better grasp of realities is one of the most reassuring aspects of middle life" (Neugarten, 1968b, p. 97).

Levinson and his associates (Levinson, 1977; Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson & McKee, 1974) presented findings, concepts, and hypotheses in the form of a beginning theory. They described adult development as the building of a life structure which consists of three aspects: (1) the nature of the man's sociocultural world, (2) his participation in this world as reflected by various relationships and roles, and (3) the aspects of his life which can be lived out and those which must be inhibited. Each of these aspects has equal strength in determining the developmental process. Within a given life structure, the various components of occupation, family, peer relations, and leisure occupy differing levels of significance.

In Levinson's theory, life structure goes through a sequence of stable and transition periods. Each stable period has distinct tasks related to its time in the life cycle. The individual must make certain choices during this time, build a life structure, and reach related goals. Changes in life situations may occur, but the life

structure is stable. During a transition period, the present structure is ended and a new structure begun. This involves a rethinking of possibilities for the self. Stable periods vary from six to eight years, transitional periods, from four to five years. External events such as marriage, illness, or birth of a child do not define the life structure, but rather the tasks to be completed within that period define it. An event can happen during different periods, but its importance depends upon the task of the period in which it happens (Levinson, 1977). Levinson's overall concept of the life cycle includes:

Pre-adulthood:	Age 0 - 22
Early Adulthood:	Age 17 - 45
Middle Adulthood:	Age 40 - 65
Late Adulthood:	Age 60 - 85
Late Late Adulthood:	Age 80 +

(Levinson, 1977, p. 102)

During the age span 30-40, man's primary developmental task is to create a satisfactory life structure for himself. He works for success as he has defined it and tries to become a valued member of society. During the mid-life transition (40 to 45), man questions his whole life structure and re-evaluates what is important to him in the areas of work, family, and leisure. This reappraisal may provide the opportunity to form a new life structure which will take into consideration aspects of himself not included earlier (Levinson, 1977).

Larsen (1977) surveyed 1,000 professional men in the United States between the ages of 30 and 45. The majority of his subjects described a feeling of significant dissatisfaction with life and an awareness of the difference between their values and actual achievements. He concluded that this is a transition point for men.

Gould (1972, 1975) also has conducted research on stages of adulthood. He assumed developmental phases are present in these changes. He and his associates did an observational study of psychiatric outpatients and a questionnaire study of 524 nonpatients to determine what characteristics of individuals seem to be age-related. He found 16-18 year olds concerned with getting away from their parents, although not taking much action to do so. The 18-22 year old group also were focused on independence from parents, but were taking appropriate steps to achieve independence. The group 22-28 were well-established on their own and focused on doing what they were "supposed to" do. Energy was devoted to building job, home, and family. The 29-34 year old group began questioning their life-style and considering alternatives based on personal interests. They wanted to be appreciated as individuals and to have their life-styles accepted by others. Ages 35-43 continued questioning, in an existential way, themselves and their values. There was a sense of finite time in life and an urgency to "succeed." The 43-50 year old group had a sense of resignation--what is done is done. They sought sympathy and support from their spouses and blamed their parents for their problems. Around 50 years of age there was a mellowing. Children were appreciated, parents no longer blamed, and the spouse was perceived as a valuable companion. There was, however, a growing sense of mortality. Gould described the results of his studies as:

. . . a description of a sequence of process fluctuations that define the posturing of the self to its inner and outer world over time. The fluctuations are time-dominated, but not necessarily age specific for any one individual. (Gould, 1972, p. 43)

Havighurst has written about the developmental stages of adults, especially in the context of education (1953, 1964, 1970, 1972). He defined the following cycle of adult concerns:

- 18 - 30 years - Focusing One's Life
 - 30 - 40 years - Collecting One's Energies
 - 40 - 50 years - Exerting and Assuring Oneself
 - 50 - 60 years - Maintaining One's Position and Changing Roles
 - 60 - 70 years - Deciding Whether and How to Disengage
- (Huberman, 1974, pp. 122-123)

He also described the developmental tasks associated with different periods of life (1972). These tasks of early adulthood are to marry, learn to live with spouse, start a family, rear children, manage a home, begin an occupation, begin civic responsibilities, and find a friendly social group. His developmental tasks of middle age include assisting teenagers to become responsible adults, achieving social and civic responsibility, reaching and maintaining good performance in a career, developing leisure time activities, relating to spouse as an individual, adjusting to and accepting physiological changes of middle life, and adjusting to aging parents. At each age, Havighurst hypothesized, people are confronted by these given tasks with which they must cope successfully before progressing to those of the next stage.

Several researchers have investigated the development of adult women. Drawing on the works of Levinson, Gould, Neugarten, and others, along with 115 in-depth interviews, Sheehy (1974) described the adult developmental stages through which both men and women pass. In her book, Passages, she described the various life patterns women may choose:

1. Caregiver: A woman who marries early and remains focused on home and family.

2. Nurturer who defers achievement: A woman who postpones career ventures to begin a family and plans to return to work.
3. Achiever who defers nurturing: A woman who puts off marriage and a family to become established in a career.
4. Integrators: Women who handle a career, marriage, and family simultaneously.
5. Never married women
6. Transients: Women who choose impermanence sexually and occupationally. (Sheehy, 1974, p. 206)

According to Sheehy, most women choose to be caregivers and live their lives through the achievements of their husbands. In her description of developmental stages, she defined age 35 as a "crossroads" for women. This is the time when the average American mother sends her last child to school, re-enters the working world, and realizes that the biological limit for having children is approaching. This is a time when women who have been homemakers begin to want more involvement with the outside world as a new way of defining themselves. Indeed, Sheehy perceives that the major task of women in mid-life is to develop a sense of achievement and competency outside the family nurturing role.

Voelz (1974) interviewed 51 women between 40 and 45 and found that their main concern was to find meaning and self-fulfillment as their family responsibilities lessened and they had more freedom. Although most of her subjects regarded the middle age years as very happy, they experienced a restlessness and re-evaluation of self, marriage, job, goals, and responsibilities. This was true for the women interviewed, regardless of their marital status.

Using data from depth interviews with 1,000 Chicago housewives, Lopata (1966) described the shifting roles of married women over a lifetime. Family responsibilities are a major variable in this description. The first stage is "Becoming a Housewife." This involves a shift of identity into the home. The second stage is "Expanding Circle" during which the energies and interests of the women shift more into the home as children are born. "The Peak Stage" is that time when women have several small children demanding attention. "The 'Full House' Plateau" is the time between when the youngest child starts school and when older siblings begin leaving home. Although many women anticipate that this may be a more restful time, it often is not. Older children simply demand attention in different ways. At this stage some women tend to remain in the home caring for the family while other women begin to develop outside work and/or volunteer roles. It is easier for women to develop roles outside of the home if they have maintained a sense of location "outside" the home as opposed to becoming solidly located "inside" the home.

The next stage, "The Shrinking Circle," lasts from the time the first child leaves home until the last child leaves. This is a difficult time for women since the functions and prestige that belong to role of mother are reduced greatly. Naturally, this is most difficult for women who have not developed, or have little interest in developing, other roles. These women may feel useless and functionless. The last stage, "Minimal Plateau" covers the time the housewife is alone in the house. Lack of roles is often a problem for the older woman.

Neugarten (1961) also discussed the changing roles of women during their life cycles. One particular time of stress for women is that of mid-life when children are leaving home. Often referred to as the "empty nest," this is a time when women feel the loss of a role, and with it, the loss of an important means of satisfaction and meaning for their lives. They may begin to feel this role loss which accompanies the empty nest even before all their children have left home. It is at this time that women often face a transition period of developing new sources of self-fulfillment such as a career, volunteer work, or a return to school. Because society has few well-developed channels to help women, this transition can be difficult.

Brandenburg (1974), Cook (1970), Manis and Mochizuki (1972), Nichols (1974), and Setne (1977) concluded from their counseling experience with women that there is a time of transition in many women's lives which occurs when homemakers begin to develop a sense of identity outside of the home. Their experience with women in transition and resulting programs to help these women with vocational planning will be covered in a later section of this review.

Van Dusen and Sheldon (1976) examined the assumption that the family life cycle is the most important factor in a woman's life cycle and, on the basis of current trends and statistics, decided that the importance of family responsibilities to a woman's life cycle is decreasing. Some of the trends they described were more mothers with young children continuing to work, fewer women quitting school in order to marry and have children, and more women who do quit school returning later to complete their education. There is also a trend toward more divorced, younger, or separated female family heads.

Zytowski (1969, p. 661) postulated that, "The nature of the woman's role is not static: It will ultimately bear no distinction from that of men." So, while there are now important developmental differences between men and women, these may in time disappear. Until then, however, these differences need to be described and considered in vocational planning.

Vocational Development of Women

Theory

Many professionals in vocational development agree that the career development patterns of women are different from those of men (Eason, 1972; Ginzberg, 1966; Matthews, 1972; Okun, 1972; Super, 1957; Zytowski, 1969). One of the main limitations of research related to career development is that it has often been limited to data about males (Hanson, 1974; Risch & Beymer, 1967). Of the major theorists, Ginzberg and Super have considered briefly career development of women. Ginzberg, Ginsburg, Axelrad, and Herma (1951) studied the vocational behavior of girls and found that, up to the transition stage of the tentative period, girls were much like boys. At that time, however, girls progressively become more oriented toward marriage. This focus on marriage is a main difference in boys and girls; girls cannot plan realistically a career until decisions about marital plans and partners have been made (Farmer, 1975; Ginzberg, 1966; Matthews & Tiedeman, 1964; Zapoleon, 1961). Ginzberg and associates (1951) defined three career patterns for women: work-oriented, marriage-oriented, and a combination of the two.

Super (1957, p. 76) asserted that his developmental life stages hold true for women as well as men, but that "women's careers, career orientations, and career motivations differ from those of men and are likely to continue to differ in important respects." Although Super acknowledged that an adequate data base was lacking, he described the following career patterns for women:

1. Stable homemaking - marriage with no significant work experience
2. Conventional career - stop gap jobs or a first career and then marriage and homemaking
3. Stable working career - start career after school
4. Double-track - work and marriage after school with possible short time out for children
5. Interrupted career - works, stops and is homemaker, later returns to work
6. Unstable career - work-homemaking-work as economic need presses
7. Multiple trial career - succession of unrelated jobs.
(Super, 1957, p. 77)

Zytowski (1969) presented a series of nine postulates to help describe the vocational development of women:

1. The model life role for women is described as that of the homemaker.
2. The nature of the woman's role is not static: It will ultimately bear no distinction from that of men.
3. The life role of women is orderly and developmental, and may be divided into sequences according to the preeminent task in each.
4. Vocational and homemaker participation are largely mutually exclusive. Vocational participation constitutes departure from the homemaker role.

5. Three aspects of vocational participation are sufficient to distinguish patterns of vocational participation: age or ages of entry; span of participation; and degree of participation.
6. The degree of vocational participation represented by a given occupation is defined by the proportion of men to total workers employed in the performance of that job.
7. Women's vocational patterns may be distinguished in terms of three levels, derived from the combination of entry age(s), span, and degree of participation, forming an ordinal scale.
8. Women's preference for a pattern of vocational participation is an internal event, and is accounted for by motivational factors.
9. The pattern of vocational participation is determined jointly by preference (representing motivation) and by external, situational and environmental, and internal, such as ability, factors. (Zytowski, 1969, pp. 661-664)

Research

This part of the review of the literature will focus on research which describes different life-styles or career patterns women can choose and the variety of factors which are related to these choices. Of special interest for purposes of this study will be personality and situational factors. Although many studies have attempted to determine what factors may influence initial choice of career patterns, very little is known about what factors influence mid-life vocational plans made by women who originally chose to be homemakers.

Any research about women and career patterns must be considered in relation to the social-cultural climate of this country in the last three decades. Attitudes toward women and their role in society have changed remarkably and, to some extent, these attitudes influence the direction and perceived outcomes of research. Research findings from the 1950's compared to those of the 1970's may reflect researcher bias

or real differences based on a changing climate toward women and their place in the world of work.

Esther Matthews (1974) has described the climate of these decades. During the 1950's research and opinions tended to reflect the general view of society that women belonged in the home. Some people questioned the sense of wasting higher education on women; others called attention to the harm working mothers were doing to their children. In a few quarters, however, interest in careers and higher education for women began to develop. The 1960's were an extremely active decade for women, both in legal action taken and also in attitude changes which began to open up many more options in career and homemaking patterns. Research studies still tended to confirm the traditional, well-accepted ideas about women without recognizing changes which were occurring and the exceptional women who were leading the way for the majority. The 1970's accelerated the changes of the sixties and confirmed the new roles of women, although controversy still goes on.

Career pattern studies. Comparative studies of women who plan to choose, or who have chosen, different career patterns have constituted one of the main approaches to learning about the factors involved in the selection of various career patterns of women. Results of these studies have shown some trends, but results have also been confusing. Problems include the fact that researchers define career pattern alternatives in a variety of ways, that they often operate from different theories, that they define research variables in a variety of ways, and that they use a variety of tests and instruments to measure these variables. Given these limitations, results of representative studies will be presented.

One main way of describing career patterns is to compare women who have chosen or plan to choose traditional female careers versus nontraditional careers. Tangri (1972) investigated the characteristics of role-innovators (those who chose career fields which were predominantly male), traditional choosers, and those in between in a group of 200 college women. The three groups were about equal in number. She found role-innovators aspired to higher levels of success and expressed greater commitment to their vocation than traditional choosers. They also reported as many romantic relationships and more friendships with men than did traditionalists. Traditionalists tended to project achievement values onto present or future husbands.

Almquist and Angrist (1970) studied differences in college women planning careers in male-dominated fields versus those planning careers in traditional female fields. They found women planning careers in male-dominated fields tended more often to have working mothers, had more experience working themselves, and had reinforcing occupational role models. The groups did not differ in dating habits, work values, relationship to parents, or amount of participation in extracurricular activities.

In examining the same classifications of college students, Karman (1972) found theoretical orientation, grade point average, mother's education, attitudes toward woman's role, and the amount of interaction with faculty to be differentiating variables. Kriger (1972) studied 22 homemakers, 22 career women in female-dominated professions, and 22 career women in male-dominated professions. She found the decision of whether or not to have a career was based on parental child-rearing

style. A need to achieve, however, was responsible for the particular field chosen and the career level reached within it. Nagely (1971) conducted a follow-up study on 40 college-educated working mothers, half in traditional female fields and half in male-dominated career fields (pioneers). Pioneers were (1) more committed to their careers; (2) had fathers who had more education and approved of women working outside of the home; (3) had husbands working at higher occupational levels; and (4) assumed more responsibility at home, both in planning how the family income should be spent and in disciplining the children.

Another general way of grouping career pattern studies is homemaker-oriented women versus career-oriented women. Hoyt and Kennedy (1958) studied a group of 407 college freshmen women by isolating one group of 30 career-oriented women and one group of 71 homemaker-oriented women. They compared the personality patterns of these two groups and found that career-oriented women scored higher on the endurance, achievement, and intraception scales of the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule while the homemaker-oriented girls scored higher on the succorance and heterosexuality scales.

Harmon (1970) investigated factors differentiating career committed and noncareer committed women 10 to 14 years after college entrance. She found the two groups did not have different career plans at 18; thus, she concluded that career commitment was more motivational than circumstantial. The career committed group attended college longer, worked more years after leaving college, married later in life, and had fewer children. Career committed women did not report less satisfaction from their homes, participate less in volunteer work, or have less successful husbands than the noncommitted women.

Wolfson (1976) conducted a follow-up study of women who had been college students in the 1930's. She grouped them into three career patterns described by Zytowski (1969) as mild, moderate, and unusual. She found career patterns were not predictable from information known about a student as a college freshman, but were predictable from data collected five years later. As the number of years spent in college increased, so did the likelihood a woman would work. Of the factors studied which were associated with home environment as a student, none was significant. All the present home environment factors included in the study were significant: marital status, husband's income, number of children, age of youngest child, and satisfaction with the marriage.

Rossi (1965) found in a national survey of college graduates that young mothers have high esteem during their early mothering years. Achievement-oriented young women, on the other hand, have more self-doubts in their 20's and early 30's. She predicted this trend would reverse itself 10 to 15 years later. Birnbaum (1975) confirmed Rossi's prediction with a follow-up study of university alumni women who had been out of school some 15 to 25 years. She studied three groups, 29 homemakers, 25 married professionals with children, and 27 single professionals, to determine satisfaction with self and life-style. She found homemakers to be lowest in self-esteem and feelings of personal competency.

Warren (1959) found women who combined homemaking with a career or volunteer work in line with their college major were happier than women who were only homemakers. Waller (1975) investigated four career

life-style groups of married, college-educated women and found housewives in the home experienced lowered self-appraisal as their children grew up. Women who were housewives and volunteers, those who had an interrupted career, and those who were involved in a continuous career experienced more confidence and feelings of contentment, although the continuous career women were less satisfied with their marriages. Thus, it seems there are some differences in self-esteem among women who chose different career patterns; women who combine homemaking with some other outlet for their abilities, be it volunteer work or paid work, seem to have higher esteem for themselves.

Zissis (1964) used 550 freshmen women at Purdue University in 1959 to study personality traits which differentiate career-oriented girls and marriage-oriented girls. Using the Leary Interpersonal Check List, Zissis learned that career-oriented girls are more like the "masculine" stereotype: more achievement-oriented, intrceptive, dominant, and persevering. The marriage-oriented group was more like the "feminine" stereotype: more docile, self-effacing, and cooperative. The career-oriented group also had significantly more working mothers.

Rand (1968) investigated personality traits which distinguished career-oriented college freshmen women from a group of homemaking-oriented ones. Like Zissis (1964) she discovered career-oriented freshmen women were higher on measures of "masculine" psychological and behavior traits such as leadership, aggression, independence, and drive to achieve. The homemaking group was higher on "feminine" variables such as understanding others, sociability, and conservatism. The career-oriented women were just as well-adjusted as the homemaking group.

Morris (1974) compared the personality needs of 30 homemakers and 30 career/homemakers using the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule. She found homemakers had greater needs for deference, order, and abasement while career/homemakers had greater needs for autonomy, nurturance, change, heterosexuality, and aggression. Personality traits as measured by the 16 Personal Factor Questionnaire showed homemakers to be more conscientious, staid, and moralistic while career/homemakers were more aggressive, competitive, expedient, socially bold, opinionated, suspicious, experimental, and free-thinking.

Gysbers, Johnson, and Gust (1968) found career-oriented women to be more intellectual and enterprising and homemaking women to be more social and conventional. Tyler (1964) learned career-oriented girls had greater abilities and achievements at a variety of age levels than noncareer-oriented girls. Mulvey (1963) studied mature women out of college and found level of education and level of aspiration to be the most important determinants of career patterns.

In summary, some of the most important variables related to choice of career pattern by women seem to be (1) situational factors related to family background such as attitude of parents, work status of parents, and child-rearing practices; (2) situational factors related to present family such as marital status, attitude of husband, number of children, age of youngest child, husband's income; (3) presence of role models; (4) attitudes on the part of the woman about her role and appropriate sex roles; (5) personality needs and especially achievement needs; and (6) self-esteem.

Additional research: effects of situational and personality factors on life-style choices. Other research in addition to that utilizing various career patterns in the design describes situational and personality factors involved in a woman's choice of life-style. Psathas (1968) emphasized the importance of a number of factors involved in the relationship between sex role and occupational role in determining career entry. Many of these can be defined as situational factors. Psathas' first order factors include intention to marry, time of marriage, reasons for marriage, and husband's economic situation and attitude toward his wife's working. Other factors include social class; educational level, values, and occupation of parents; and family finances. Ginzberg (1966) found no direct relationship between the husband's income and his wife's tendency to work although he did agree that the time of a woman's marriage, her husband's attitudes, and the number of children she has do affect her vocational choices. Ginzberg (1966) and Cook and Stone (1973), among others, agree that women with more education are more likely to work. Matthews (1974) suggested that college mores of the 1960's pushed women into assuming they must choose either marriage or career. Most did work a few years and then married and became homemakers. Oliver (1975) suggested that the new social norm might be a combination of both career and homemaking.

The presence of children in the home is a factor which has been investigated. Ginzberg (1966) and Weil (1961) found having children in the home was associated with women interrupting their work history. Ginzberg (1966) and Rossman and Campbell (1965) found that as their children got older, the probability women would return to work increased.

Social rules and values as situational factors also affect the career choices of women. One of the main sets of social norms affecting women and their life patterns is that of expected sex roles. Researchers, in addition to Karman (1972), Nagely (1971), and Psathas (1968), have investigated sex roles and role conflict as factors in career pattern choice. Matthews (1974, p. 429) summarized research demonstrating the early sex-role training little boys and little girls get by writing, "The predominance of marriage over career is, of course, ultimately related to strong and exclusive sex-role training." In addition, Matthews stated that the views of husbands toward the employment of wives are crucial. Schlossberg (1976) felt that early socialization restricts women to low level jobs by the fact that women never dream or anticipate achieving anything higher on a professional scale.

Farmer (1971) noted that social roles are not clearly defined for women in our society. This leads to confusion for women, regardless of what career pattern they choose. Farmer and Bohn (1970) concluded from their research that reducing home-career conflicts could affect the career/homemaking choices of women. After reviewing literature related to sex role stereotypes, Oliver (1975) concluded that changes are occurring which make sex role stereotyping less influential on behavior. At this time, however, it still seems to be an important factor.

One of the main personality needs studied has been that of achievement. As stated earlier, Harmon (1970), Hoyt and Kennedy (1958), Kriger (1972), Tangri (1972), and Tyler (1964) emphasized the importance of an achievement motivation factor in vocational pattern choice. Bardwick

(1971) described a pattern of achievement motivation in women. Although girls tend to achieve well in early school years, they show less achievement strivings in adolescence. Boys have the opposite pattern. According to Horner (1972), women faced with conflict between a need for achievement and maintaining their female image will conform to sex role expectations out of fear of consequences. She described this trend as fear of success. Tomlinson-Keasey (1974) found that the variables associated with fear of success were closely related to role perception by the individual. The fear of success, therefore, might be an indication of anxiety about roles.

Baruch (1967) found a cyclical pattern in achievement motivation in women. In her study of women college graduates she found a drop in achievement, which picked up again 10 to 15 years after marriage. Eyde's findings, however, conflicted with those of Baruch. Eyde (1968) found work motivation remaining stable in women five to ten years after college graduation.

Okun (1972) studied factors influencing the occupational choices of married women returning to work 12 to 20 years after college graduation and decided it is internal motivation (personal fulfillment, sense of achievement, use of talents and abilities) which leads women back to work. Financial reasons, status seeking, and unhappiness in marriage were not found to be significant factors.

Bardwick (1971) has hypothesized that there may be a relationship between the needs for achievement, affiliation, and autonomy. She suggested that the more women experience the need to form relationships with others, the less they seem to experience the need to achieve,

especially careerwise. She also suggested that women with a strong professional commitment may have both a strong achievement need and a strong need for autonomy. On the basis of her theories and the research, it seems that an investigation of personality needs of women choosing different career patterns would provide useful information. Along this line, Osipow stated:

A psychological needs concept, along with the idea of tension reduction through needs satisfaction, is in many ways, ideally suited to explain many aspects of career behavior, both selection and maintenance. (Osipow, 1968, p. 153)

A new theoretical approach to understanding achievement motivation has been that of attribution theory of achievement (Weiner, Frieze, Kukla, Reed, Rest & Rosebaum, 1971). According to this theory, achievement outcomes may be attributed to four causes: ability, effort, luck, and task difficulty or ease. Success at a given task may be due to high ability, trying hard, good luck, or the relative easiness of the task. Failure at a task may be due to low ability, low level of effort, bad luck, or task difficulty. These variables differ on two dimensions: internal versus external source of cause and unstable versus stable variability of cause. The model is represented in Table A (Weiner, et. al., 1971, p. 96).

Table A. A Classification Scheme for the Perceived Determinants of Achievement Behavior

Stability	Locus of Control	
	Internal	External
Stable	Ability	Task Difficulty
Unstable	Effort	Luck

Along the stability dimension, ability and task difficulty are relatively stable, while effort and luck are unstable. If either success or failure at a task is attributed to relatively stable reasons, like ability and task difficulty, similar results would be expected if the tasks were undertaken again. If success or failure at a task is attributed to relatively unstable reasons (level of effort or luck), different results might be expected. On the locus of control dimension, internal locus of control is related to taking responsibility for an outcome and external control to taking no responsibility.

Maximum self-esteem, according to Frieze (1975), would be associated with internal attributions for success (especially ability) and external or unstable attributions for failure. In a study by Kukla (1972), high achievement-motivated men tended to attribute their successes to both high ability and effort while they attributed their failures to lack of effort. Attribution of failure to lack of effort would tend to increase their subsequent efforts.

Research findings indicate women are more likely to give unstable causes, such as luck or effort, when explaining their successes, and stable explanations to account for failures (Falbo, Beck & Melton, 1976). This would seem to limit the achievement attempts of women. It seems reasonable that women who tend to give responses similar to high achievement-motivated men (ability and effort for success, lack of effort for failure) would be more likely to achieve. Attribution of achievement theory seems to offer potential for understanding vocational pattern choices made by women.

One promising approach for studying personality factors which are related to different career patterns is that of Jungian personality

types (Jung, 1926). Jung developed his type psychology around two attitudes (introversion and extroversion) and four conscious processes (feeling, thinking, intuition, and sensing). Jung's theory was used by Isabel Briggs Myers (1962) as the basis for developing the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI). Her instrument emphasized individual preference in relation to both perception and judgment. Like other ways of examining personality traits related to vocational choices, Jungian typology, as measured by the MBTI, has been used primarily to describe what kinds of personality types prefer what kinds of career areas or specialties within career areas (Bowling, 1974; Goldschmid, 1967; Von Fange, 1962). One study by Elliott (1975), however, did compare MBTI psychological types of 30 women working in business management with 30 homemakers with children who were not working. The working women tended toward extroversion, sensing, and judging while the nonworking mothers tended toward introversion, intuition, and perception. Both groups were higher on the feeling dimension than the thinking one. A comparison of Jungian personality types of women choosing different career patterns in the present study seems warranted as a means of learning more about the vocational choices of women in transition.

Vocational Planning Programs for Adult Women

Many women today spend their early adulthood taking care of home and family. Although this often begins as a time of high esteem and good feelings, as the years pass and children are less demanding, women often face an identity crisis, a need to develop a sense of who they are in terms other than home and family (Cook, 1970; Manis & Mochizuki, 1972; Matthews, 1969; Rossi, 1965) It is at this time in their lives

that women often consider returning to school, to neglected careers, or to some meaningful activity other than homemaking.

Between 1970 and 1972, the number of women students between 25 and 34 years of age tripled (Women's Bureau, 1974). The number of women in the labor force has doubled since 1940, an increase due more to women in their middle years returning to work than to young women entering the labor force just out of school (Keyserling, 1966). The percentage of married women working continues to rise, with 42.2 percent working as of 1973 (U. S. Department of Labor, 1973).

Characteristics of Women in Transition

This time of mid-life transition for adult women, however, is very difficult, partly because there are few societal guidelines for them and few outstanding role models to show the way (Neugarten, 1961). In the last decade various kinds of vocational guidance and life planning programs have been developed to meet the needs of these adult women. Before describing these special programs, it is essential to understand the personal characteristics and special needs these women share.

Often in mid-life women may slowly become aware of the need for some kind of change in their life-style. Although at some time they may have been very happy as a full-time housewife, they now feel a vague sense of discontent. They may even interpret their dissatisfaction as a sign of their own inadequacy rather than as a sign of needed change. These homemakers may feel guilty for not appreciating all of the benefits they do have in their home situations (Cook, 1970; Manis & Mochizuki, 1972).

If women who are dissatisfied with the role of homemaker become aware of the fact that they do need some kind of change, they may feel overwhelmed and anxious by the idea of changing. They may lack a sense of direction and not know where to get help (Geisler & Thrush, 1975; Rice & Goering, 1977; Vriend, 1977). These women probably are unaware of their own vocational abilities and interests and are out of touch with the demands and requirements of the working world (Manis & Mochizuki, 1972; Setne, 1977).

That most women contemplating a change in life-style lack self-confidence is not surprising (Hiltunen, 1968; Miles, 1977; Nichols, 1974; Shishkoff, 1973). Since these women have been relatively isolated at home and away from the classroom or working world for many years, they have doubts, fears, and conflicts about what they can do, if anything, and what options are available. They may have had few opportunities to succeed in undertakings outside of the home which might have contributed to their sense of being capable (Brandenburg, 1974; Manis & Mochizuki, 1972; Setne, 1977).

In addition homemakers have been accustomed to putting the needs of their husband, children, and even, at times, distant relatives and neighbors before their own (Nichols, 1974; Matthews, 1969; Vriend, 1977). Many of them are not even aware of what their own interests and values are, much less how to set priorities and act on their interests (Cook, 1970; Manis & Mochizuki, 1972). Often women go from depending on their parents for guidance and direction to depending on a husband, never really learning how to make their own decisions (Brandenburg, 1974). It is only natural, then, that they would be

afraid of making a wrong decision or taking the risks necessary to act on a decision (Cook, 1970; Lopata, 1971).

Although this situation may look very dismal, there is a positive side to the story of women in transition. They are motivated to learn more about their interests, abilities, values, and personality. Many of them are eager to define a new role or identity for themselves, even as they battle the fears associated with this discovery (Brandenburg, 1974; Nichols, 1974). As they begin on a new or revised vocational path for themselves, there is a sense of exhilaration which comes with growth and learning (Matthews, 1969).

Characteristics of Vocational Planning Programs

A number of vocational planning programs for adult women have been described in the literature (Goodman, Walworth, & Waters, 1976; Hiltunen, 1968; Manis & Mochizuki, 1972; Nichols, 1974; Rice and Goering, 1977; Setne, 1977). Some of the characteristics of these programs which seem important in meeting the vocational planning needs of adult women will be described. Most vocational planning programs for adult women recognize that adults go through developmental stages and changes in life which necessitate changes in vocational plans. What vocational activities may be right for an individual at one time in her life may not be for another (Rice & Goering, 1977; Setne, 1977).

A second characteristic of vocational planning programs for adult women is that they take into account the importance of helping women to develop a sense of self-confidence. Often this happens as a by-product of the group process as the women share their ideas and feelings in an accepting group and as they learn more about themselves. A group

vocational planning setting may be the first place some women are able to share their frustrations and fears and be accepted (Cook, 1970; Manis & Mochizuki, 1972).

A third characteristic is that the support and involvement of husbands and families are encouraged. Unless the woman has the support of her family, it will be difficult for her to develop and act on new plans (Brandenburg, 1974). She may need help in defining herself by roles other than wife and mother.

A fourth characteristic of effective vocational planning programs for adult women is an emphasis on the importance of women taking responsibility for themselves and becoming more self-directed (Waters & Goodman, 1977). One way to accomplish this is through teaching a decision-making process and helping the women learn to take risks more effectively (Manis & Mochizuki, 1972; Rice & Goering, 1977). Schlossberg (1976) and Farmer (1975) have stressed the need for special skills or competencies training to enable women to succeed in new undertakings. With the confidence of added skills, women may be more willing to take responsibility for themselves.

A fifth characteristic of effective vocational planning programs for adult women is that they include ways of teaching women to gather information, both about themselves and about options available in the community (Hiltunen, 1968; Setne, 1977; Vriend, 1977). Vocational interest, personality, and values tests give them information about themselves. Group discussion and learning exercises also help in the identity discovery process. Learning about options in the community enables women to broaden planning. Not only are working or returning

to school options, but a variety of volunteer and leisure activities also may fit their needs. Eason (1972) emphasized that activities which allow women to act on their values will be the ones most satisfying. For women who do not have to work for financial reasons, a wide variety of activities may lead to satisfaction.

By using women who are leading a variety of creative life-styles and by encouraging the women to seek out people in the community who might be able to give them meaningful vocational information, group leaders are able to encourage these women to learn about options. The first way, in particular, enables the program participants to find out from other women how various vocational options might work in their own lives (Waters & Goodman, 1977). Schlossberg (1976) has emphasized the importance to women of role models in helping them to make effective vocational plans.

Although the concept of developmental tasks was not mentioned specifically in any of the vocational program descriptions, Matthews (1969), presented a model of the steps, or developmental tasks, adult women need to go through as they make new vocational plans for themselves in mid-life. A particular vocational planning program will be helpful to a woman if it includes activities which facilitate the completion of the developmental tasks the individual woman needs to accomplish. These developmental tasks which can be incorporated into a variety of program formats include:

- | | |
|------------|------------------------------|
| Phase I: | Inner Preparation |
| Phase II: | Intensive Family Involvement |
| Phase III: | Vocational Experimentation |
| Phase IV: | Vocational Planning |

Phase V:	Vocational Implementation
Phase VI:	Vocational Analysis
Phase VII:	Vocational Resynthesis
Phase VIII:	Vocational Development Resource (Matthews, 1969, pp. 117-121)

Program Outcomes and Evaluation

Because the use of vocational planning programs with adult women is relatively new, there are little evaluative data in the literature. According to Rice and Goering (1977), the literature offers little in the way of useful outcome criteria for evaluating continuing education workshops. Some writers have made a few observational comments about the outcomes of vocational planning programs for adult women. On the basis of "an informal survey," Hiltunen (1968) reported that the majority of adult women who participated in a vocational counseling course did return to school part-time. Several other women found full-time or part-time jobs. A few others remained full-time at home. Setne (1977) simply noted comments and a general positive reaction from participants following an educational-vocational development program for adult women.

Other writers have determined outcomes from vocational planning programs by using follow-up questionnaires. Manis and Mochizuki (1972) described a follow-up survey which "showed that the workshop helped participants to clarify goals and improve self-concepts; it also helped them to make the first move" (Manis & Mochizuki, 1972, p. 598). Of the women who completed the program, 31% decided to return to school with a definite field in mind, 25% decided on employment, and 44% decided on volunteer activities and creative self-expression. These results, however, reflect intended choices, not actual behavior.

Nichols (1974) received an 82% response to a follow-up questionnaire mailed to 45 mature women who had completed a course in personality development and vocational planning with an emphasis on returning to school. She explored reasons for attending the class, situational changes, attitudinal changes, and suggestions for additional seminars. Some of the reasons for enrolling included desire for self-enrichment, need for interests beyond immediate family, and desire to explore vocational possibilities. Twenty out of the 37 respondents were enrolled in school, 9 others planned to enroll soon, 10 were still at home (9 of them enjoying that), and 4 were working.

Through the use of a follow-up questionnaire, Shishkoff (1973) evaluated the effectiveness of free counseling services approximately two to seven months after use. She received responses from 43% of her population of 154 women. Half of the respondents who had conferred with a counselor about school and classes had actually enrolled. Forty-three reported that they were interested in paid employment when they came to the woman's center. Of the 43, 24 had made job inquiries and 15 had found jobs. Of 14 women who initially were interested in volunteer work, 4 had made specific inquiries about volunteer options since the interview with a counselor. A number of the respondents also reported a sense of more self-worth and confidence to act on goals.

Brew (1976), studied the effects of a counseling workshop on adult women. Of the 94 participants (74% returning a six-month follow-up questionnaire), only 13 reported no change in their lives. Change here could include a new job, volunteer work, resumed education, or additional counseling.

Rice and Goering (1977) reported a more systematic approach to evaluation of a life planning workshop for adult women by using initial and follow-up data to determine the number of women who made significant changes in activities and attitudes. Thirty-eight of a total of 42 participants from two separate workshops responded to a questionnaire. Some received the questionnaire ten months after the workshop and others, six months. Fifty-four percent had returned to school, 22% had returned to work or changed jobs, and 24% had begun volunteer work. No change in activity was reported by 21%. Thirty percent of the respondents reported increased self-confidence and assertiveness and 35% felt they better knew their values and goals. Overall, 84% of the respondents felt they had used information from the workshop in making decisions.

Lindbloom (1974) investigated changes made by 122 adult women following a one-week career planning workshop. Trained judges used information gathered through the use of a follow-up questionnaire to classify the former program participants as (1) those who had made significant activities changes; (2) those who had made significant changes in attitudes, but not activities; and (3) those who had made no significant changes. Sixty-eight women were rated as having made significant positive activities changes; 26, as having made significant attitude changes only; and 24, as having made no significant changes. According to the results of this study, both age and loss of a spouse were two factors differentiating between activity changers and those who made no change. No relationship to change was found for the factors: presence in the home of children, departure of maturing

children, a woman's education level, her work history, her volunteer activity history, background characteristics, and the extent to which she had explored activities possibilities. Lindbloom studied the amount of influence various persons and factors had in the activity choices of the women in his study. Activity changers rated their jobs as more influential than did the attitude changers and no change group. Both activity changers and attitude changers rated their education and friends more influential than the no change group did.

Although these studies indicate that many adult women who complete some kind of vocational planning workshop or course do make changes in their life patterns, much is still not known about changes which take place over a period of time and the situational and personality factors which relate to these changes.

Summary

A review of the literature reveals that adults do go through a series of periods in their lives in which different needs, values, and attitudes are reflected in different developmental tasks. Several writers have identified these tasks in different ways. A number of theorists and researchers agree women face a developmental task roughly in mid-life when they must reassess themselves in relation to family and career commitments and make some new decisions. For the homemaker, this may mean a return to school, work, or other meaningful activity outside of the home.

Vocational theory has focused mainly on the vocational patterns of men; no one general theory can be used to predict the career patterns

of women. Studies cited in this review of the literature describe a variety of factors which may influence the vocational pattern choices of women. The main conclusion which can be drawn from these studies, however, is that the career pattern choices of adult women are very complex.

A review of the literature describing adult women in transition illustrated the need these women have for some outside intervention to help facilitate their vocational planning in mid-life. Both examples in the literature of vocational counseling programs for adult women and follow-up studies to determine what happens to women after such programs are scarce. Only Lindbloom (1974) investigated factors which might be related to changes made by adult women after a life planning program. These factors were mainly situational ones. Whether personality factors relate to vocational pattern choices made by adult women in transition is yet to be determined and is a primary focus of this study.

CHAPTER III RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This is a descriptive study of adult women in mid-life transition. The subjects were 167 women who chose to attend one of the ten-week life planning seminars which have been offered twice a year since 1972 at the Lifespan Center of Salem College in Winston-Salem, North Carolina. These seminars have varied from 10 to 12 weeks in length. A questionnaire, the Lifespan Planning Seminar Follow-Up Survey (LPS), was used to gather data from these women (Appendix C). In addition, the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator results for 111 of these women and the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule results for 88 women, on file at the Lifespan Center, were used to answer research questions.

At the time the subjects of this study took the Seminar, the majority of them were homemakers with no full-time school or work commitments. Because they enrolled in a life planning program, it was assumed that they felt a need to reassess their life-styles and, possibly, to make some changes. Many of the women in private interviews before the beginning of the Seminar also expressed a desire to use the Seminar experience to help them make vocational decisions and plans.

The primary purpose of this study was to learn how selected demographic and personality factors relate to different life-styles chosen by the subjects following the Seminar. Information about current

activity involvement gathered by the LPS (Question 20) was used to classify the subjects into one of two groups: career-oriented women and self-styled homemakers. The career-oriented group included women who checked any of these alternatives:

- A. Currently enrolled in college as preparation for a career or for job enrichment (full or part-time).
- B. Completed college since taking the Seminar.
- C. Currently enrolled in specialized job preparation/education (full or part-time).
- D. Completed specialized job preparation since taking the Seminar.
- E. Currently enrolled in graduate or professional school.
- F. Completed graduate or professional school since taking the Seminar.
- G. Currently working at a paid job (full-time).
- H. Volunteer work (average of 30 hours or more per week).

Women who did not check any of the above alternatives comprised the self-styled homemaker group. Self-styled homemakers may have had various commitments and activities outside of the home, but none which seemed to be a major career commitment. It is recognized that membership in these two groups may change over time. This study focused on life-style choices made by women following a life planning seminar. These two groups were compared on selected demographic and personality factors to learn which, if any, of these factors could be used to distinguish these two groups.

Additional purposes of this study were:

1. To learn more about the types of decisions and actions taken by adult women in transition following a period of reassessment; and

2. To evaluate the effectiveness of the Lifespan Planning Seminar in facilitating these decisions and actions.

Research Questions

The research questions of this study were:

1. What reasons do the former Seminar participants give for choosing to attend a life planning seminar at the time they did?
2. What are some of the characteristics of women who have taken the Lifespan Planning Seminar?
 - a. Age
 - b. Family Income
 - c. Marital Status
 - d. Number of Children
 - e. Number of Preschool Children
 - f. Highest Level of Education
 - g. High and Low Personality Needs as Measured by EPPS
 - h. Characteristic Personality Type as Measured by MBTI
 - i. Activity Involvement Six Months Before Seminar
3. What decisions do former Seminar participants report making for themselves at the conclusion of the Seminar experience?
4. What actions to implement their decisions do the respondents report for themselves within the first six months after the end of the Seminar?
5. What factors do the women report hindered them in acting on their decisions?
6. What activity involvements do the women report for themselves at the time of the questionnaire? (The time period since the Seminar may vary from six months to five years.)

7. Which of the following factors distinguish women who are currently pursuing a career-oriented life-style from those pursuing a self-styled homemaking life-style?
 - a. Age
 - b. Number of Children
 - c. Presence of Preschool Aged Child in Home
 - d. Whether Woman's Mother Worked While She Was at Home
 - e. Income Level of Family
 - f. Self-Report of Ability to Make Decisions and Accomplish Goals
 - g. Number of Years Since the Seminar
 - h. Personality Needs as Measured by EPPS
 - i. Personality Type as Measured by MBTI
 - j. Attribution of Achievement
8. What major positive and negative changes in themselves do the former Seminar participants report as a result of the Seminar experience?
9. How important do the women report the Seminar experience was in helping them to make the changes they report?
10. What aspects of the Seminar were remembered as most helpful?

Questionnaire Construction

The LPS and a cover letter (Appendices C and D) were developed according to guidelines by Isaac and Michael (1971) as one means of gathering information to answer the research questions of this study. A rough draft of both was formulated from the writer's knowledge about former Seminar program participants and some of their current vocational activities. This draft of the questionnaire and cover letter was

sent to six individuals who had either worked with the Seminar in a professional capacity or were closely involved with the Lifespan Center. These individuals formed a "panel of experts" who validated the LPS and cover letter by answering the following questions: (1) Does this questionnaire seem to describe adequately the scope of changes made by women who have completed the Seminar? (2) Are the questions worded clearly and do they reflect the nature of the Seminar experience? (3) Is the cover letter clear? (4) Do you have any additional comments or suggestions? A group of six counselor education graduate students also examined the LPS and cover letter to determine if the questions were clear. On the basis of comments from these two groups, the questionnaire was revised to its present form.

Instruments

The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator

The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) consists of 166 forced-choice items in a self-report inventory (Myers, 1962). The items are not threatening in nature and can be answered within 50 minutes (Sundberg, 1965). The MBTI was designed by Isabel Briggs Myers to measure Jung's psychological types (Jung, 1926). It consists of four dimensions, each with two alternative styles: (1) extraversion-introversion (E-I), or whether the individual is oriented basically toward the outer world of people and things or the inner world of concepts and ideas; (2) sensing-intuition (S-N), or whether the individual perceives his world directly by use of his five senses or indirectly by use of his

intuition and imagination; (3) thinking-feeling (T-F), or whether the individual makes judgements about his perceptions of the world by impersonal logic or by subjective personal values; and (4) judging-perceiving (J-P), or whether the individual tends to regulate and control his environment or understand and adapt to it.

The scores from the subscales are treated as alternative choices which give an individual's dominant preference on each dimension, rather than as scores on a trait continuum. Although each of the four dimensions can be studied in itself, the particular combination of subscales can be represented by a letter so that an individual's overall preference type can be described by a series of four letters, for example, an ISTP type or EFTJ type.

Although preferences are considered separate and discrete, they may be treated as continuous data for purposes of statistical manipulation (Myers, 1965). Siegal (1965) noted that although the scales yield continuous scores, the manual does not present normative data for these scores. The split half reliability scores are mostly in the .70 and .80 range for continuous scores. Sundberg (1965) reported that this range is comparable to other leading personality tests.

Sundberg (1965) questioned whether the construct validity of the MBTI relates well to the theory behind it, but concluded that the empirical relationships of the scales could be useful in cognitive research. Mendelsohn (1965) also concluded that the MBTI was useful for examining empirical relationships in research.

Edwards Personal Preference Schedule

The Edwards Personal Preference Schedule (EPPS) was designed to give independent measures of 15 personality variables: achievement, deference, order, exhibition, autonomy, affiliation, intraception, succorance, dominance, abasement, nurturance, change, endurance, heterosexuality, and aggression (Edwards, 1959). These personality variables were chosen from a list of manifest needs developed by H.A. Murray (1938). In addition to these scores, the EPPS provides a measure of test consistency and one of profile stability.

An attempt was made in the construction of the EPPS to control for the influence of social desirability of responses by using a forced-choice form of questions. Bjerstedt (1959) described this as an "out-standing characteristic" of the test while Barron (1959) and Radcliffe (1965) reported that the test failed in its attempt to control for social desirability. Strickler (1965) indicated that the ipsative nature of the paired comparison method of items reflects intraindividual differences rather than interindividual differences, which normative scores would represent. This may lead to confusion about what the percentile score profile means.

The split half reliability scores for the 15 personality variables ranged from .60 to .87. This is comparable to the reliability of other personality tests (Strickler, 1965). Barron (1959) reported that the scales seem to be relatively independent of each other.

To determine validity, EPPS variables were compared to similar variables on other personality inventories. Correlations between

similar variables were not high, although several were in the expected directions (Edwards, 1959). Barron (1959), Gustad (1959), and Strickler (1965) were critical of the scant amount of validity data available. Strickler concluded that the validity research cited in the manual offered little justification for assuming that the scales are valid (Strickler, 1965). On the other hand, Bjerstedt (1959), Fisk (1959), and Shaffer (1959) concluded that the test was sound and has potential for use in research.

Procedure

The LPS and cover letter were mailed to the 167 women who had completed one of the Lifespan Planning Seminars offered from fall 1972, through spring 1977. Addresses were obtained from files at the Lifespan Center and cross-checked with the telephone book. If the address in the telephone book was different, it was used. Attempts were made to locate new addresses for women whose questionnaires were returned to the Lifespan Center marked "no forwarding address." No address could be located for eight women.

After three weeks a reminder card (Appendix E) was sent to all women who had not yet returned the questionnaire. Three weeks later a second questionnaire and cover letter (Appendix F) were sent to all women who had not yet responded. Three weeks after the second questionnaire was mailed, the collection of data was completed with a total of 135 questionnaires returned. This represented 81% of the total mailed out and 84% of the total for which addresses could be found.

Table 1 (all tables in Appendix G) shows the number and percent of women returning the questionnaire from each Seminar class. The lowest return rate, 62%, is from the first Seminar held in the fall of 1972.

Analysis of Data

Data from the LPS and test results from the files on former Seminar participants at the Lifespan Center were used to answer all the research questions. Research Questions 1, 3, 4, 5, 6, 9, and 10 were answered by questionnaire Items 13, 16, 17, 19, 20, 24, and 26 (Appendix C). Research Question 2 was answered by data from the questionnaire Items 3, 4, 5, 10, 11, 14, and test data from the EPPS and MBTI. Questionnaire Items 22 and 23 were used to answer Research Question 8.

Independent t tests were used to discover significant differences between the two life-style groups on the factors of age, number of children, self-report of ability to make decisions and accomplish goals, number of years since Seminar participation, personality needs as measured by the EPPS, personality types measured by the MBTI using continuous scores, and attribution scores. A chi square analysis was used on the factors of presence of preschool aged children, whether the woman's mother worked, and income level.

CHAPTER IV RESULTS

Results Answering the Research Questions

The first research question is concerned with reasons former Seminar participants gave for choosing to attend a life planning seminar. According to information presented in Table 2 (Appendix G), 59% listed feelings of boredom, frustration, depression; 55% indicated dissatisfaction with current life-style; and 50% were thinking about returning to school.

The second research question inquired about situational and personality characteristics of women who had taken the Lifespan Planning Seminar. The largest percentage (Table 3) were in the age range 30-34, and the second largest percentage were in the 35-39 group. Thus, half of the respondents were between 30 and 39 years of age. The majority of Seminar participants were from the middle to upper socio-economic levels as illustrated by Table 4. Over a third of all respondents had a family income of \$35,000 or more. Only 16% had incomes under \$20,000.

The vast majority of respondents, 89%, were married at the time of their participation in the Seminar (Table 5). All but seven of those who were married, or had been married at one time, had children. The

average number of children was 2.8. Thirty-eight percent of all respondents had two children and 27%, three children (Table 6). Thirty-two women had children under five years of age at the time they participated in the Seminar while only 14 women had children under five in the fall 1977 (Table 7). Over half of the women had at least a four-year college degree (Table 8).

Table 9 shows the means and percentile rankings of personality needs on the EPPS for the respondents who had taken the EPPS during the Seminar. According to the EPPS manual (Edwards, 1959), only needs at the 85th percentile or above are considered high needs and low needs are those at the 15th percentile or below. Given this range, a high need for heterosexuality (85th percentile) is the only high need of this group of women. There were no low needs.

Table 10 shows a distribution of personality types according to the MBTI for the respondents who had taken the MBTI during the Seminar. The two most common types are INFP and ENFP, each with 16%. There was a tendency for the respondents to be introvert versus extrovert (61% versus 39%), intuitive versus sensing (70% versus 41%), and feeling versus thinking (75% versus 25%). The women are nearly evenly divided on the dimension of judging versus perceiving (51% versus 49%).

Information about the activity involvement of the Seminar participants in the six months prior to their Seminar experience is found in Table 11. Eighty-three percent reported they were caring for home and children. Only 2% were in school to earn a degree, although 26% were taking personal enrichment courses. Nine percent were working full-time; 16%, part-time; and 57%, engaged in volunteer work.

The third research question related to decisions former Seminar participants reported making for themselves at the conclusion of the Seminar. Of the 135 respondents, 110 (81%) indicated they had made one or more life planning decisions and 20 indicated they had made no decision. While five indicated they had made no decision, they checked specific decisions made when given the opportunity (Table 12). The 115 women indicated a wide variety of decisions, which are listed in Table 13. Twenty-five (22%) decided to center their time and energies on home and family; 35 (30%), to attend college in order to prepare for a career; 21 (18%), to attend college without career plans in mind; 17 (15%), to enter specialized job training; 29 (25%), to get a paid job; 8 (7%), to change jobs; and 7 (6%), to start a business. Twenty (18%) indicated a decision to get personal or marriage counseling while 8 (5%) had decided on separation or divorce. A relatively large number of women (50 of the 115) indicated a decision to develop different attitudes.

Research Question 4 related to actions taken by the former Seminar participants to implement their decisions within the first six months after the Seminar. Table 14 shows that 101 out of the 135 respondents (75%) did take action on their decisions within six months. Thirty-three women (24%) took no action and one woman reported "no action," but listed some actions taken when given the opportunity. Of the 33 who reported taking no action, 20 had made no original decision upon which to act. The types of actions taken are listed in Table 15. Nineteen (19%) reported spending more time and energy with their

families. Twenty-four (24%) had enrolled in college with career preparation in mind and seven women (7%) had enrolled in college with no career goal in mind. Thirteen (13%) had begun specialized job training, 25 (25%) had taken an enrichment course. Thirteen (13%) inquired into college admission but did not enroll and 16 (16%) had accepted a job for pay. Three women (3%) had changed jobs and 11 (11%) had inquired about specific job openings but did not start work. Eighteen women (18%) reported they had begun either personal or marriage counseling and 6 had separated from their husbands. Forty-three (42%) had attempted to change certain attitudes and 17 (17%) had begun volunteer work.

Research Question 5 explored factors hindering women as they acted on their life planning decisions. Factors given are listed in Table 16. Family responsibilities were mentioned by close to one-half of the women (47%). Other important factors listed include unclear goals, mentioned by 42 (31%), and anxieties and fears, mentioned by 30 (27%). Twenty-two women (16%) felt nothing hindered them and another 21 (16%) left the question blank.

The sixth research question investigated the activity involvement of the former Seminar participants at the time of this study. Information relevant to this question is presented in Table 17. One hundred and two women (75%) listed homemaking as an activity and 94 (70%) listed caring for children. Thirty-five were enrolled in college, 22 of which had a career goal in mind. Eight (6%) had completed college since finishing the Seminar. Thirteen women (10%) were enrolled in

specialized job preparation and 12 (9%) were enrolled in graduate school. Two had completed a graduate program since the Seminar and 53 reported that they were currently working. Of these, 26 (19%) were working full-time. Fifty-two women (39%) reported involvement in volunteer work. Seven were in counseling at the time of the questionnaire. Thirty-three listed other activities such as buying a house, taking a special enrichment course, seeking a divorce, acting as executor of an estate, and learning to swim.

In order to answer Research Question 7, the respondents were divided into two groups, self-styled homemakers and career-oriented women. This division was done according to the information gathered by Question 20 in the questionnaire and the criteria for each group described in Chapter III. Sixty-two women met the criteria for the career-oriented group and the remaining 73 were classified as self-styled homemakers. None of the situational factors hypothesized as differentiating these two groups was significant (Table 18). The respondents' self-report of ability to make decisions and accomplish goals was a significant differentiating factor (Table 19); career-oriented women rated their ability to make decisions and accomplish goals significantly higher than self-styled homemakers ($p < .001$, $df = 133$).

A t test analysis comparing the two life-style groups on each dimension of the MBTI showed no significant differences (Table 20). An analysis to compare the two groups on personality needs, as measured by the EPPS, showed two factors to be significant (Table 21); career-oriented women had a higher need for exhibition ($p < .05$, $df = 85$) than

self-styled homemakers and homemakers had a higher need for abasement ($p < .01$, $df = 85$) than the career-oriented women. Analysis of the attribution of achievement items (both success and failure) failed to show any significant difference between the two groups (Table 22 and 23).

Research Question 8 investigated positive and negative changes former Seminar participants reported in themselves. Positive changes are listed in Table 24. The three mentioned most often include more self-confidence, self-awareness, sense of identity (38%); increased ability to make decisions and plan goals (24%); and greater ability to assume responsibility for self (21%). Other positive results included success with school or work (11%), greater assertiveness (12%), and increased personal growth (8%). Twenty-four (18%) listed no positive changes.

Table 25 lists the negative changes mentioned by the women. The largest number, 105 (78%), listed no negative changes. Eight (6%) mentioned frustration at not being successful in implementing their plans. Other negative outcomes, all mentioned by fewer than five women, include setting expectations of self too high, feeling a lowered interest in family matters, feeling too self-centered, experiencing some personal turmoil immediately after the Seminar, and feeling stuck in a low level job.

Research Question 9 asked how important the women thought the Seminar was in facilitating their life changes. Table 26 shows the ratings. Sixty-six women (49%) rated the Seminar very important; 48 (36%), important; and 18 (13%), not important. None rated it unhelpful.

To answer Research Question 10, one item in the questionnaire asked the women to list aspects of the Seminar which they felt were especially helpful (Table 27). The most frequent response was the testing, mentioned by 59 women (44%). Thirty-five (26%) mentioned the importance of contact and discussion with other women in the group and 20 (15%) mentioned the reading assignments. Information about setting goals, contact with the group leaders, assertiveness information, an exercise on responsibility-taking, and an exercise on decision-making were all mentioned as helpful by a number of women.

Additional Results

Analysis in addition to that done to answer the research questions was carried out to learn more about the women who have completed the Lifespan Planning Seminar and possible factors differentiating those choosing a self-styled homemaker life-style from those choosing a career-oriented life-style. Table 28 shows the work history of the mothers of former Seminar participants. Sixty percent (81) women had mothers who did not work while the women lived at home.

Tables 29 and 30 present a description of the attitudes of husbands toward their wives' participation in the Seminar and toward decisions made by their wives after the Seminar. In both cases husbands tended to be supportive or neutral. A complex chi square analysis failed to support the hypothesis that husbands of self-styled homemakers would be more positive toward decisions made by their wives after the Seminar than would be husbands of career-oriented women.

A t test was used to test the hypothesis that the career-oriented women would be more satisfied with their current life-style than the self-styled homemakers (Table 31). This hypothesis was supported with a significant difference at the .001 level, $df = 130$.

The two life-style groups were compared on the factors of whether they made life planning decisions at the conclusion of the Seminar and whether they took actions on these decisions within six months. Table 12 shows the career-oriented group was more likely to have made decisions at the conclusion of the Seminar ($p < .005$, $df = 1$).

The two groups were compared on their rating of the importance of the Seminar to their life planning. A t test analysis showed the career-oriented women rated the Seminar more important than did the self-styled homemakers with a difference at the .001 level, $df = 130$ (Table 26).

Marital status at the time of the study was also a factor differentiating the two groups. The self-styled homemakers were more likely to be married and living with their husbands than the career-oriented group. This difference was significant at the .025 level, $df = 1$ (Table 32).

Although there were no significant differences between the two groups in their attributions of success and failure, the total group of women did have a significant tendency to attribute a success to their own ability and effort rather than the factors of luck and task difficulty (Table 33). The women also had a significant tendency to attribute a failure experience to lack of effort (Table 34).

CHAPTER V DISCUSSION

The interpretation of data section focuses on four aspects of the results: a description of the population of this study, the changes in the women following the Seminar, the helpfulness of the Seminar experience, and factors differentiating the career-oriented women from the self-styled homemakers. Limitations of the study, conclusions, and recommendations will also be presented.

Interpretation of Data

Description of Population

The majority of the women were in their 30's at the time of Seminar participation. Eighty-nine percent were married and all but 12 had at least one child. Over half of the women possessed at least a four-year college degree and over one-half had family incomes of \$25,000 or more. Only 7% stated that their husbands had some objection (as perceived by the women) to their participation in the Seminar. Nine percent of the women were working full-time and 1% were in school full-time during the six months prior to their participation in the Seminar. Eighty-three percent described themselves as involved in caring for their home and children prior to the Seminar. Thus, these women tended to be homemakers in a middle to upper socio-economic class

with supportive husbands and moderate to high ability as indicated by their level of education. These women are, therefore, part of a select but growing part of the population which, not only can afford the time and money, but also have the motivation and ability to investigate and choose a life-style which may be satisfying.

The two most common reasons given for attending a life planning program were feelings of boredom, depression, and frustration (mentioned by 59%) and dissatisfaction with current life-style (55%). Negative feelings are often an indication of a need for change (O'Neill & O'Neill, 1974) and even an important first step in the change process. The feelings described by these women are similar to those of women in transition as described by Cook (1970) and Manis and Mochizuki (1972). Part of the frustration which proceeded participation in the Seminar may be due to lack of role models of women combining home, family, and work. Sixty percent of the respondents indicated that their mothers had not worked while they were living at home with their parents. Neugarten (1961) and Schlossberg (1976) emphasized the importance that role-models play in women developing effective vocational plans.

Thinking about a return to school (50%) and a desire for help with a career decision (45%) were primary reasons for taking the Seminar. A large number of these women, then, had already begun thinking about possible vocational plans. Since 42% of the women stated that their children no longer needed them at home full-time, the women seemed to have developed a readiness for change based on family variables like age of children. Lopata (1966) and Neugarten (1961) noted the

importance of family responsibilities as a major variable affecting, and perhaps effecting, changes in the role women play throughout their lives.

Personality needs, as measured by the EPPS, revealed that only a high need for heterosexuality stood out (Table 9). This may not be significant. If it is, it may reflect a high level of creative energy in many of these women. The choice to make possible career plans may offer an acceptable outlet for this energy.

Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) scores (Table 10) show there is a tendency for more of these women to be introvert than extrovert, intuitive than sensing, and feeling rather than thinking. It may be that the introvert is less likely to process vocational options with friends and family and, therefore, more likely to choose a structured program to help with decisions. A characteristic of the intuitive woman is that she is able to see possibilities beyond her immediate situation. She may, therefore, be more willing than the sensing type to commit herself to a life planning program in order to plan for the future. The feeling woman may give more credibility to feelings of frustration, boredom, and depression and take action through a life planning program. The woman who values thinking may be more likely to rationalize these feelings and fail to act. These possible motives have implications for the role of the vocational counselor with different MBTI personalities.

Analysis of the two attribution items from the questionnaire indicates that the women were more likely to attribute their successes to

their own ability and effort than to good luck and task ease. They also tended to attribute their failures to lack of effort. This is surprising since this attribution pattern is similar to that of high achievement-motivated men (Weiner, Frieze, Kukla, Reed, Rest & Rosenbaum, 1971).

Research studies describing attribution patterns of women are somewhat unclear and at times contradictory; but these studies seem to indicate that women are more likely than men to attribute their successes to luck rather than their own ability (Frieze, 1975). This attribution pattern would lead to fewer attempts at achievement. At the same time women tend to attribute their failures to lack of ability, which would also reinforce a lack of attempts at achievement. Frieze (1975) has indicated that high-achievement women may be more likely than less achievement-oriented women to attribute both successes and failures to their own efforts. Results of the present study indicate that the Seminar participants were high achievement-oriented women. More research is needed to determine if this is the case, since the attribution item itself may be a factor in these results.

Much of the research concerning attributions of women has referred to achievement in traditionally masculine areas such as academic success. The attribution item in this study allowed the women to select the success for which they were asked to rate their attributions. Whether their choices were in areas considered traditionally masculine or traditionally feminine might have influenced their answers. A second factor affecting responses to the item might be the private nature

of the attributions. Additional research could examine whether women would be as likely to attribute their successes to their own effort if asked to do so publicly.

Changes in Women Following the Seminar

In listing their reasons for taking the Seminar, 68 women (50%) indicated they were interested in returning to school and 26 (19%) wanted help in finding a job. In the six months preceding the Seminar, only three of the women were in college pursuing preparation for a career; 12 were working full-time; and 21, part-time. At the conclusion of the Seminar, 73 (54%) decided to attend college or to get specialized job preparation. Forty-three women (32%) had decided to get paying jobs, to change jobs, or to start a business. Within six months after the Seminar, 43 (32%) had either enrolled in college or had begun specialized job preparation. An additional 13 (10%) had inquired into college admission, but not enrolled. Six months after the Seminar, 16 (12%) had accepted a job for pay, 3 (2%) had changed jobs, and an additional 11 (8%) had inquired into specific jobs, but had not accepted one. As of fall 1977, 70 women (52%) were either attending or had completed college, graduate school, or specialized job preparation since the Seminar. Fifty-three (39%) were working either part or full-time.

From this information it seems that a majority of the women who attended the Seminar had at least some general career and educational goals before beginning the program. Upon completion of the Seminar, a large number did make a transition from a predominantly homemaking role to one involving school or a paid job. Twenty-five women (22%) at the

end of the Seminar decided to continue to center their time and energy on home and family. This seems realistic since continued education and/or a paid job are not necessarily appropriate for all women. The Seminar was designed to offer women an opportunity to assess themselves and make some life plans. No specific life plans are valued above others.

Twenty women reported making no decision at the conclusion of the Seminar. The questionnaire did not explore why no decision was made. Possibly these women were either still experiencing conflicts about different options or else they simply had not finished gathering information about options they were considering. A follow-up session sometime within a few months after the Seminar might enable this group of women to complete their planning.

One concern mentioned by a number of husbands of Seminar participants and women considering attending the Seminar was that it might hurt their marriage or lead to divorce. Nine women indicated a decision at the end of the Seminar to separate from their husbands and six (4%) had actually done so within six months after the Seminar. Of the nine, all but two indicated that anticipating a change in marital status was a reason for attending the Seminar. It is unlikely, therefore, that the Seminar experience was related to the incidence of divorce. Ten women did indicate a decision to get marriage counseling, which can be interpreted as a positive step to improve their marriages.

The number of women making volunteer work commitments dropped as women made and acted on their life plans. Six months prior to the

Seminar, 77 women (57%) reported some volunteer work commitments. In fall 1977, 52 (39%) reported volunteer commitments. Although this is a drop, some commitment to volunteer work seemed to be important to many of these women as they made a transition to a life-style involving school and/or work commitments. Probably some who experience satisfaction in volunteer work commitments do not feel a need to take a life planning seminar.

When the women were asked what factors hindered them as they attempted to act on their decisions following the Seminar, the one mentioned most often (47%) was family responsibilities. Clearly homemakers who choose to develop career plans in addition to family responsibilities face difficulties integrating these time demands. Although the content of the Seminar included sections on clarifying goals and coping effectively with anxiety, nearly a third (31%) of the participants mentioned unclear goals and 27% identified anxieties and fears as factors hindering their actions. It would seem that more emphasis is needed on these areas in order for the women to act more effectively after the Seminar.

Helpfulness of the Seminar

Although the Seminar cannot be credited with the transitions made by these women, 66 (49%) rated it as "very important--I needed a program like it to help me" and 48 (36%) rated it "important--it was very helpful to me although I could be doing what I am doing now without it or some such program."

When asked to identify specific aspects of the Seminar which were helpful, testing was mentioned most often (44%). This may be because testing was a major component of the Seminar and one which might be easy to remember. Its importance may also be due to a need felt by these women for external validation and feedback. A responsibility of counselors in this situation is to place the test information in perspective and encourage women to explore and trust what they know about themselves through experience.

Contact and discussion with other women mentioned by 35 (26%) was a second important aspect of the Seminar. This contact with other women may have been important for several reasons. First, it allowed the women to share some of the frustrations, boredom, and depression which many of them were feeling before attending the Seminar. Secondly, they may have received affirmation and support from other group members as they began to voice self-confidence and positive plans. Given these benefits, the group setting may be an important aspect of a life planning process for many women.

Positive outcomes mentioned by the women also give information about the role the Seminar had in their life transitions (Table 24). The outcome mentioned most often was more self-confidence and self-awareness (38%). Since lack of confidence is often a characteristic of women contemplating a change (Hiltunen, 1968; Miles, 1977; Nichols, 1974; Shishkoff, 1973), this is an important outcome. Increased ability to make decisions and plan goals were mentioned by close to one-fourth.

The third positive outcome was that of assuming more responsibility for themselves. Waters and Goodman (1977) emphasized the importance of developing this quality in women through vocational planning programs. A sense of personal responsibility is important in being able to carry out plans made in the group. The high number of women (99%) in this study who attributed their successes primarily to their own ability and hard work supports the idea that these women are not only taking responsibility for themselves, but are also giving themselves credit for what they achieve.

Factors Differentiating Self-Styled Homemakers from Career-Oriented Women

Situational factors proved to be poor predictors of the life-style choices women made following the Seminar. None of the following were significant: age, number of children, presence of preschool children in the home, mother's participation in the work force, income level, or highest level of education. Some of these findings conflict with findings reported in the literature.

One interesting factor is related to number of children and presence of preschool age children in the home. Ginzberg (1966), Rossman and Campbell (1965), and Weil (1961) found women were more likely to go to work as the age of their children increased. Harmon (1970) reported that career committed women had fewer children. Wolfson (1976) found both the number of children and the age of youngest child were discriminating factors in the career patterns of women. In this study the lack of significance of these factors may be due to the fact that

these women had chosen to be part of a life planning program. This decision on their part indicated they probably felt children would not be a problem or they would not have taken the Seminar.

Ginzberg (1966), Harmon (1970), Mulvey (1963), Weil (1961), and Wolfson (1976) found that the more education a woman has, the more likely she is to work. Level of education was not a discriminating variable in this study. In this study, however, career-oriented women included those who chose to return to school in order to prepare for a career. The program, indeed, may have appealed to women with some or no college education but who possessed the motivation to attend college and develop a career. This could explain the lack of significance of this variable.

Since the importance of role models in the career planning of women has been recognized (Waters & Goodman, 1977; Schlossberg, 1976) it is somewhat surprising that the variable of whether a woman's mother worked or not was insignificant. Both Siegal and Curtis (1963) and Zissis (1964) found a positive relationship between a mother's career activities and a woman's choice of work. A possible explanation of the lack of significance of this variable in the present study is that the life planning program compensated for the lack of mother role models by providing other positive role models or career women and women combining home responsibilities and career. This might have reduced the impact of the variable of the mother as a role model on life-style choices. The fact that women in both groups chose to take a life planning program may also have affected the significance of this variable.

The number of years since participation in the Seminar was not a discriminating variable differentiating the two life-style groups. This indicates that a woman's classification as career-oriented or as a self-styled homemaker did not depend on the length of time since she completed the Seminar.

The one significant situational factor was the marital status of the women at the time of the study. Women who were not married were more likely to be career-oriented. This seems to be supported in the literature. Lindbloom (1974) found loss of a spouse was a factor discriminating those who made an activity change following a life planning workshop from those who made no change. Wolfson (1976) reported that marital status was a significant discriminating factor in the type of career pattern chosen by women. Certainly a career orientation may be an economic necessity for many woman who are not married. At the same time these women are free to develop career interests without needing to contend with a possible role conflict between being a wife and a career woman. Karman (1972), Nagely (1971), and Psathas (1968) have described role conflict as a factor in career pattern choice. Thus, while status as head of a household may necessitate a career pattern choice by unmarried women for economic reasons, other positive factors associated with not being married may also lead her in that direction.

Personality variables also proved to be poor predictors of the life-style choices made by the women after the Seminar. Neither MBTI scores nor attribution scale scores differentiated the two life-style groups. Although two scales on the EPPS did differentiate the two

life-style groups, chance would predict that at least one out of the fifteen factors could be significant, using independent t tests. This study indicated career-oriented women have a higher need for exhibition than the self-styled homemakers. This seems to agree with previous studies. Morris (1974) found career/homemakers to be more socially bold, opinionated, free thinking, and experimental. Rand (1968) and Zissis (1964) found career-oriented girls to be more "masculine," showing traits like aggression, dominance, and leadership.

This study also indicated self-styled homemakers have a greater need for abasement than career-oriented women. This finding agrees with previous research. Morris (1974) found homemakers to have a higher need for abasement on the EPPS than career/homemakers. Zissis (1964) found marriage-oriented college girls to be more self-effacing than career-oriented college girls. Birnbaum (1975) found middle-aged homemakers to have lower self-esteem than middle-aged professional women. Whether feelings of abasement or lack of confidence prevent some homemakers from making new career commitments in mid-life or whether feelings of abasement develop because they fail to make a mid-life transition to some kind of career orientation is impossible to determine from the results of this study, but this question may be of interest in future research.

This study began with the assumption that the value of a life planning workshop was in the reassessment process itself and any life decisions have equal value. However, the finding that homemakers have a higher need for abasement and report less satisfaction with

their life-style than career-oriented women may indicate that decisions which involve some major commitment outside of the home are "better" than decisions which maintain the home orientation. This premise is supported in previous research. Warren (1959) found that women who combined homemaking with a career or volunteer work were happier than women who were only homemakers. Waller (1974) concluded that women who combined homemaking with other outlets for their abilities had a higher self-esteem than those who were only homemakers. Lindbloom (1974) reported women who made changes following a life planning workshop indicated more satisfaction with their lives than women who did not make changes. Certainly more research is needed in this area.

Findings reported by Hennig (1971) may give broader perspective to this issue. She studied a group of women who had reached top levels of business management and found that one factor differentiating them from women who became stuck in middle management positions was that the women who achieved top management positions tended to pause in their careers during their mid-thirties to devote time and energy to personal development, possibly including marriage and family commitments. It may be that optimum happiness and satisfaction with life for many women depend on a balancing of personal/family commitments with career/achievement commitments, with the mid-life transition being a time to accomplish this blend if it has not been done before.

Other factors differentiating self-styled homemakers from career-oriented women include these: career-oriented women reported a higher

level of ability to make decisions, were more likely to have reported that they made life planning decisions at the end of the Seminar, were more likely to have reported that they took action on those decisions within six months after the Seminar, and rated the Seminar experience as more important to them than did the self-styled homemakers. These differences may be related to the fact that career-oriented women, by the nature of their life-style choice, made more distinct changes in their lives. A "decision" may not seem significant, well-done, or clearly recognized as a "decision" unless it involves significant changes. Perhaps these results even reflect some disappointment on the part of some self-styled homemakers that they did not make more concrete changes. If this is the case, it might be helpful either to emphasize more the positive aspects of a recommitment to a self-styled homemaking life-style or to further explore the reasons women choose not to change.

Limitations of the Study

Several limitations of this study were due to the use of a questionnaire. One is that the women responding to the questionnaire may not have remembered accurately their behavior and reactions from the time they took the Seminar. A major focus of the questionnaire, however, was current activity involvement, which does not share this limitation. Furthermore, most of the information sought was related to the main emphases of the Seminar and is more likely to have been remembered by the participant, even over time.

A second limitation is that a biased sample may have responded to the questionnaire. This limitation is inherent in any study using a questionnaire. The large percentage of questionnaires returned (81%) and the fairly even distribution of returns by the various classes somewhat reduce the impact of this limitation.

Another limitation is the use of the EPPS. Several test reviewers have reported that the manual for the EPPS fails to offer adequate validity data. However, the EPPS, as noted in Chapter III, has been used in other studies investigating career patterns, has a sound theoretical basis, and is related to the topic of study.

A fourth limitation is that the women in transition were subjects who chose to participate in this life planning program. There may be differences between women who chose a program to facilitate a transition and those who make a transition on their own. To describe these differences, however, is not within the scope of this study.

A fifth limitation is the division of respondents into two categories, career-oriented women and self-styled homemakers. In order to investigate factors related to different life-style choices made by women after the life planning experience, it seemed necessary to group the sample by life-style. The problem of categorizing women into specific life-style groups seems inherent in most research exploring the career pattern choices of women. Furthermore, the criteria used for the formation of groups for this study were similar to criteria used in other studies reviewed in Chapter II.

Conclusions and Recommendations

The results of this study indicate that a large number of homemakers who chose to take part in a life planning program did so with tentative thoughts about returning to school or going to work. They were also experiencing a fair amount of frustration with their current life-style. A majority of participants did use the life planning program to make plans which included changes in their life-styles. The women most satisfied with their life planning experience and their life-style at the time of the study were those who chose a career-oriented life-style as opposed to a homemaking life-style. Further research is needed to explore the relationship between the life-style choice of middle-aged women and their level of satisfaction with themselves and their lives. Research could focus on what specific factors contribute to satisfaction of women at this time of life.

Greater understanding of the transition process would also be helpful to counselors working with adult women. The present study investigated changes made by groups of women. Additional research might focus on tracking, in depth, the life decisions and changes of individual women as they navigate the time of mid-life transition. This could involve an intensive research approach similar to that used by White (1952) and would offer richer information about the individual from a variety of sociological and psychological points-of-view.

The present study indicates in several ways that the Lifespan Planning Seminar was helpful to a majority of the participants. Further research is needed using some kind of control group in order to validate and explore this hypothesis. A related question could investigate the differences between women who make a transition from a home-making life-style to a career-oriented life-style without the benefit of a life planning workshop versus those who use a workshop. How do these women differ? Do women using a life planning workshop have an easier transition than those who make a transition on their own? If a life planning workshop is helpful, how might the model be adapted and made available to additional populations at various transition points in life? Certainly the transition to retirement is a difficult one for many. A life planning workshop focusing on issues related to retirement might be valuable to many people.

The examination of personality and situational factors related to life-style choice of the homemakers following the life planning program identified only three significant factors: marital status at the time of the study; need for abasement, as measured by the EPPS; and need for exhibition, as measured by the EPPS. Other factors differentiating self-styled homemakers from career-oriented women include: rating of level of decision-making ability, whether a decision was made at the conclusion of the Seminar, whether the individual acted on her decisions within six months after the Seminar, rating of importance of the Seminar, and rating of satisfaction with current life-style. Although these results are interesting, this study focused on factors considered

individually. Further research might recognize the need for a model providing for a complex interaction of factors determining life-style choices of women. Mischel (1973) presented such a general model which stresses the importance of the interaction between personal characteristics and situational factors in determining behavior. He defined three perspectives from which to understand human behavior: environmental conditions, person variables, and phenomenological impact. Perhaps additional research, using a more complex model, can explain more fully the life-style choices of homemakers in transition.

APPENDIX A

DESCRIPTION OF LIFESPAN CENTER AND
LIFESPAN PLANNING SEMINAR

LIFESPAN CENTER AND LIFESPAN PLANNING SEMINAR

The Lifespan Center at Salem College in Winston-Salem, North Carolina, was begun in 1972 through the initiative of interested community people to meet the career planning and personal development needs of women in Winston-Salem and the surrounding communities. The Lifespan Center functions as a counseling center for Salem College students and offers programs in life planning and personal development to community people. Its programs were offered exclusively for women the first three years. Currently some programs are available to male participants, although the majority of community clients are still women. The staff includes one full-time director and two full-time counselors.

The Lifespan Planning Seminar was the first program offered to community women by the Lifespan Center. It has been offered twice a year, in the fall and in the spring, since the Lifespan Center opened. The Lifespan Planning Seminar originally was twelve weeks in length and was condensed to ten weeks in 1976. It meets once a week for two-and-one-half hours.

The objective of the Lifespan Planning Seminar is stated this way in the Center's brochure: "A woman's life often becomes fragmented as she is caught up in the responsibilities and demands of living. The Seminar is designed to help her clarify her identity and implement this in a meaningful life-style."

The purpose of the Seminar is, therefore, to help women who feel a need for change of some kind in their lives to assess themselves in terms of interests, values, personality, ability, background experiences, and factual information and to make plans for themselves on the basis of this information. The format consists of lectures, reading assignments, learning exercises, and group discussion. Topics covered include decision-making, identity and self-concept, values clarification, goal-setting, anxiety reduction, assertiveness training, and long-range planning. There is an emphasis in the program on learning decision-making skills which can be both used in the present to make choices and also used in the future as new decisions become necessary.

A second related emphasis is that of life planning being an on-going process. The participants will experience changes in themselves and in their environments which will make it necessary for them to make new decisions and new plans. This is not only necessary, but healthy (O'Neill & O'Neill, 1974).

A third emphasis is that of the importance of individual differences in terms of program outcome and decision-making. The decision to focus energy and time on home and family is just as legitimate an outcome as the decision to return to school or to work. Each woman is the judge of what fits for her. Therefore, some outcomes for individuals might involve not so much a change in activities, but a reorganization of activities and a change in attitude about one's self or one's life.

The following six personal assessment tests are used:

Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory (SCII-SVIB)
Kuder Occupational Interest Survey

Myers-Briggs Type Indicator
Edwards Personal Preference Schedule
Allport-Vernon-Lindsey Study of Values Scale
Henmon-Nelson Tests of Mental Ability

The form of both the SCII-SVIB and Kuder Occupational Interest Survey were changed by the publishers during the course of the Seminars. During a couple of Seminars other tests were substituted for the Myers-Briggs, Edwards, and Study of Values.

APPENDIX B
FORMAT OF LIFESPAN PLANNING SEMINAR

FORMAT OF LIFESPAN PLANNING SEMINAR

Session I: Introduction to the Seminar

Goals

To set a trusting, low-tension climate where group members feel comfortable listening and sharing feelings and ideas.

To get to know group members.

To set up group norms in relation to confidentiality, open communication, attendance, goals of group, taking responsibility for self.

To orient group members to the structure of the Seminar, testing procedures and the Lifespan Center.

To administer the Kuder Occupational Interest Survey.

Behavioral Objectives

1. Each individual will be able to write down her main goals in attending the Seminar in a questionnaire given her.
2. Each individual will be able to write down the five steps of the Problem-Solving Model at the beginning of Session II.

Procedure

1. Introductory presentation (15 minutes)

The presentation covers the purpose and direction of Seminar, group process rules, a description of tests and the part they play in the Seminar, and a description of resources at the Lifespan Center and Salem College available to Seminar participants.

2. Exercise: Reasons Why We Are Here (15 minutes)

Seminar participants are asked to share reasons why they chose to participate in the Seminar. These reasons are listed on a board.

Similar reasons are noted and reasons are acknowledged as appropriate or not so by the leader. Additional reasons may be added by the leader along with the emphasis that we, as a group, have specific goals which the activities of the Seminar are designed to achieve. Group cooperation and individual responsibility are necessary.

3. Exercise: Get Acquainted (60-75 minutes)

The group is divided into dyads and the dyads are given about 10 minutes to get acquainted.

A series of questions are given them to help structure the interaction along with the instruction to get a feel for the individual, what is important to her. After 10 minutes, the group comes together and each person introduces her partner to the group by sharing what she has learned. After introductions the group may process this exercise with leader emphasis on how individuals feel about the group and themselves at this point.

4. Test: Kuder Occupational Orientation Inventory (45 minutes)

Homework

Complete exercise "Twenty Things I Love To Do."

Read through the handout "Problem-Solving Model" and know the five steps involved.

Fill out information form about yourself.

Session II: Clear Goals and Gathering Relevant Information

Goals

To learn the difference between clear and unclear goals.

To learn ways to gather information about one's self and about one's options which will aid in individual problem-solving.

To discuss the exercise "Twenty Things I Love To Do."

To administer the Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory (SCII).

Behavioral Objectives

1. By the beginning of Session III, each participant will be able to write down five characteristics of a clear goal.

2. By Session VIII, each participant will have turned in five cards clearly describing short-term goals for a week and the outcome of those goals. At least one will have been described as successful by the participant.
3. At least two of the participant's short-term goals mentioned above will be gathering some piece of relevant information about options for herself.

Procedure

1. Quiz (5 minutes)

Participants will be asked to list the five steps in effective problem-solving. After the quiz they will share and briefly discuss the steps.

2. Exercise: Clear and Unclear Goals (1 hour)

Participants are divided into two groups. The groups are told they will have approximately five minutes to accomplish the following goal, which is written on a blackboard for them:

"What are the most appropriate goals to govern the best group experiences in order to maximize social development in a democratic society?"

At the end of five minutes, they are told to stop work on goal one and work for five minutes on a second goal:

"List as many as you can of the formally organized clubs or organizations that exist in a typical community."

At the end of the second five minutes the groups are stopped and told the purpose of the exercise was to give them experience trying to reach both a clear and an unclear goal. They then discuss their group reactions to the two goals, how much progress was made with each goal and individual feelings during the task. Together, the group then lists on a blackboard characteristics of a clear goal. (One such list is included in the handout, "Problem-Solving Model.")

3. Lecture: Gathering Information (20 minutes)

The lecture is an expansion of the section on gathering information in the Problem-Solving Model handout. Emphasis is given to the kinds of information about the individual and her environment which may be relevant and to means of obtaining information both within the structure of the Seminar (tests, exercises, discussion, etc.) and outside of the Seminar (telephoning, interviews, etc.,

for information about educational, career, and leisure opportunities). The participants are encouraged to begin gathering information outside of the Seminar as soon as possible.

4. Discussion of homework exercise, "Twenty Things I Love To Do." (10 minutes)

This exercise is related to the previous exercise as one means of learning about individual interests. Participants are asked to share any significant findings about their interests.

5. Test: SCII (45 minutes)

Homework

Complete Lifeline exercise.

Read "World of Conflict and Confusion."

Read Roger's article, "Toward a Modern Approach to Values: The Valuing Process in the Mature Person."

Choose a short-term goal which meets the requirements for a clear goal and which can be completed in one week. Write it down on a three by five inch card and record if you achieved it or not. This card is to be turned in beginning of Session III.

Session III: Values and Decision-Making

Goals

To help each participant clarify what her top values are.

To understand how values relate to decision-making.

To help each participant learn how she has made decisions in the past and to understand how she might more effectively make decisions in the future.

To enable each participant to recognize her approach to risk-taking and to begin to develop an appropriate risk-taking attitude.

Behavioral Objectives

1. At the beginning of Session IV each participant will be able to list the three main aspects of the valuing process (choosing, prizing, acting) as described in "A World of Conflict and Confusion."

2. By the beginning of Session IV each participant will be able to list her four top values.
3. Each participant will describe her decision-making strategy used to make a major life decision (as demonstrated by completing the Lifeline exercise) and be able in group discussion to evaluate the effectiveness of her decision-making skill.
4. By Session VIII each participant will be able to list at least two risks involved with each option listed for her life planning.

Procedure

1. Quiz - Characteristics of a clear goal (10 minutes)

Each participant is asked to list five characteristics of a clear goal. The answers are given and discussed along with any questions and comments about the short-term goal assignment. Emphasis is placed on short-term goals being clear.

2. Discussion of two articles on values given as homework last week (15 minutes)

The group is encouraged to share any special reaction to the articles. The leader focuses on the difficulty of clarifying what our own values are and implementing these values in our own situations.

3. Values Auction (1 hour)

Each individual is given a list of values one can have in life and is asked to allot 2,000 life units according to the importance each value has for her. After this is completed the group bids on each item as the leader "offers" it for "sale." Individuals are not restricted by their previous allotments. The individual who bids the highest receives the value. Any amount bid is deducted from the individual's 2,000 life units. When the auction is complete, the group may discuss the results focusing on questions such as:

Did I get my top choices?

What was my bidding strategy?

Do I follow a similar strategy in real life where I have a limited amount of time, energy, and money?

Am I obtaining my top values in real life?

4. Decision-making discussion and lecture (30 minutes)

This section begins with a discussion of the Lifeline exercise. Individuals are invited to share how they have made major decisions in their lives and to evaluate their effectiveness.

The leader then covers main points involved in the process of decision-making using steps three, four, and five of the "Effective Problem-Solving" handout.

5. Risk-taking exercise (20 minutes)

The leader asks for two volunteers to come to the front to do an experimental demonstration for the group. The leader waits until two individuals volunteer, allowing the silence and tension to mount. After two people volunteer, the leader announces the exercise is over. The purpose of the exercise is to help each person experience what happens inside them when asked to take a risk. The group, then, is encouraged to discuss their feelings about the proposed risk including questions such as:

What did you decide about the risk?

How did you feel before someone volunteered?

What do you usually do in risk-taking situations?

Do fears you have keep you from taking risks which are appropriate and may be very beneficial?

Homework

Choose a short-term goal for the week and be ready to turn it in on a card as previously described at the beginning of the next session.

Read the book Gift from the Sea by Anne Lindbergh

Come into the Center during the week to take the Allport-Vernon-Lindsey Study of Values Scale.

Session IV: Identity and Self-Concept

Goals

To enable each participant to describe herself in such a way that she can begin to assess her strengths and abilities along with limitations.

To give the participants a simple introduction to theories of self-concept focusing on a perceptual psychology approach.

To encourage each participant to accept responsibility for her actions and decisions and so feel more in control of her life.

To administer the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator.

Behavioral Objective

1. At the end of Session V, each participant will turn in a self-description including a list of abilities, skills, background experiences, and positive traits.

Procedure

1. Quiz on values (10 minutes)

Participants are asked to list the three main steps in the valuing process and then to list their top four values. The three correct steps are then given and discussed.

2. Collect short-term goal cards for last week and answer any questions.
3. "Who Am I" exercise, lecture, and discussion (45 minutes)

Participants are asked to quickly list 15 statements which begin with "I am..." and are finished to fit themselves. Group members are encouraged to look at their own lists to notice things such as:

What kinds of roles such as wife, mother are included?

Any conflict between roles?

What personal attributes have you included?

Are these positive, negative, neutral in terms of your feelings about them?

Which five statements are most important to you?

Which five statements least important?

Group members are encouraged to share any special observations with the group.

The group leader then shares very simple content information about the structure of the self-concept from a perceptual psychology point of view emphasizing the following points:

- a. The self is dynamic.
- b. The self resists change.
- c. The self is unique.
- d. The self is the frame of reference from which we see the world.
- e. The self-concept is learned.

Any questions or ideas by the group can be shared.

4. Gift from the Sea discussion (10 minutes)

The book is discussed as it fits into the topic of identity. The concept of life stages that women go through is emphasized.

5. "I Choose" Gestalt exercise (30 minutes)

Participants are asked to finish each of these three statements in five different ways on a sheet of paper:

"I have to _____."

"I can't _____."

"I'm afraid to _____."

In a circle, each person is asked to read one of her "I have to" statements. After all in the group have had a chance to do this, each person is asked to read the same statement, but to change the "I have to" to "I choose to." The same procedure is followed with a second "I have to" statement. The group then continues in this same manner for an "I can't" statement, changing the "I can't" to an "I won't" the second time around. The group then shares one of their "I'm afraid to" statements and changes the "I'm afraid to" to "I want to" the second time around. After this series of statements, the group is encouraged to discuss their reactions. The leader emphasizes these points:

We often make ourselves powerless by our language--using "I can't," "I have to," "I'm afraid to," and other such statements.

We actually have more power, more control, more choice than we realize, even if we don't like the choices we have.

Most people doing this exercise will even notice a change in voice volume and strength as they change from "I can't" to "I won't."

Consider how you make yourself powerless in everyday situations.

6. Administration of Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (45 minutes)

Homework

Come in to take Edwards Personal Preference Schedule.

Short-term goal

Read "Women in Motion."

Read "Conquering Anxiety" in A Guide to Rational Living by Albert Ellis and Robert Harper.

Session V: Handling Your Anxiety

Goals

To understand how the individual participants experience anxiety and how they currently handle their anxiety.

To learn how various psychologists describe both anxiety and depression and how they help to reduce and control anxiety and depression.

To discuss various relaxation techniques and to learn one.

To take the Henmon-Nelson Tests of Mental Ability.

Behavioral Objectives

1. By the beginning of Session VI, the individuals will be able to describe how they experience anxiety and at least two appropriate means of handling anxiety (appropriate as judged by counselor).
2. By the beginning of Session VI, the participants will demonstrate an understanding of a relaxation technique by having carried it out at home and reporting the results.

Procedure

1. Administration of Henmon-Nelson (50 minutes)

As soon as participants arrive, they are given the Henmon-Nelson. Emphasis is made on fact that this is a measure of knowledge and ability as opposed to other tests they have taken and is timed.

2. Discussion and lecture on anxiety and depression (1 hour)

When the testing has been finished, the counselor begins a discussion about anxiety by asking the women how they felt before, during, and after the test. Emphasis is on feelings and physical response to the anxiety provoked by testing. They are asked how they can tell when they are anxious, how they normally handle anxiety, and what situations tend to cause anxiety. After individuals have had a chance to discuss and think through these questions, the counselor presents a short lecture covering these topics:

Definitions of anxiety

Conflict resolution in relation to anxiety

Definitions of depression

William Glasser's approach to handling anxiety and depression

Albert Ellis's approach to handling anxiety and depression

Ways of "centering in" and reducing anxiety.

The women are encouraged to respond to the lecture in terms of personal experience and reactions to the two articles read for homework, "Women in Motion" and "Conquering Anxiety." Emphasis is made that people in transition, as these women are, often experience anxiety and can learn to recognize and handle it more effectively.

3. Relaxation exercise (15 minutes)

The counselor takes the individuals through a group relaxation technique based on systematically focusing on and relaxing parts of the body. As part of the homework, they are asked to try this on their own over the week.

4. Follow-up from last week (15 minutes)

The counselor collects short-term goals for the week and answers any questions. She also collects the self-descriptions and responds to any questions, comments, observations about them. She emphasizes these descriptions will be useful to the participants as they choose options to explore and in their summarization process.

Homework

Try out relaxation exercise at least once during week.

Read section from The New Assertive Woman by Lynn Bloom, Karen Coburn, and Joan Pearlman (Xerox from excerpt of this book printed in Family Circle Magazine, November 1975).

Session VI: Assertiveness Training

Goals

To learn the differences between being assertive, unassertive, and aggressive.

To become more assertive through learning about assertiveness and practicing being assertive.

To understand how being more assertive might enable individuals to achieve more personal goals.

Behavioral Objectives

1. By the beginning of Session VII, each participant will be able to write correct definitions of assertiveness, unassertiveness, and aggressiveness.

2. By Session VII, each participant will have attempted a short-term goal focused on assertive behavior and report on her success.

Procedure

1. Follow-up from last week (15 minutes)

Individuals are asked to briefly write how they tend to experience anxiety and at least two appropriate means of handling their anxiety. Participants are asked to report on how relaxation exercises worked for them, and what problems, if any, they had.

2. Lecture and discussion about assertiveness emphasizing these points from homework reading (45 minutes)

Definitions of being assertive, unassertive, and aggressive
 Basic rights of individual
 Reasons women tend to be unassertive
 Nonverbal aspects of being assertive
 Guidelines to expressing one's self assertively

3. Assertiveness practice exercise (1 hour)

The participants are divided into triads in which one person is "assertive speaker," one person is "listener," and one is "observer." The triads are given a situation which calls for an assertive response on the part of the speaker. The listener sets up the situation and responds. The observer watches in order to give the speaker feedback about her assertive response (what she did well, how she might come across more assertive and alternatives). Each person has an opportunity to take each part. Afterwards the whole group shares comments and questions. The counselor will demonstrate an assertive style if it seems appropriate.

4. Assertive goal setting (15 minutes)

In triads the participants help each other to choose an assertive goal for the week. The counselor is available to consult with and to offer suggestions.

Homework

Carry out a short-term assertive goal for the week.

Read Holland's description of six life-styles.

Self-description

Session VII: Test Interpretation

Goals

To give back the results of the six tests taken by participants with a clear interpretation of their meaning.

To enable participants to integrate test information with knowledge of themselves and planning possibilities.

Behavioral Objective

1. In her summarization in Session X, each participant will demonstrate how she has related test results to her planning.

Procedure

1. Quiz - definitions of assertiveness (15 minutes)

Each participant is asked to define being assertive, unassertive, and aggressive. When all are finished, answers are shared and discussed. Participants are asked if they have any questions about assertive behavior and are asked to share how their short-term goals related to assertiveness worked out. Leader emphasizes starting with small assertive steps, keeping their assertive rights in mind, and keeping a positive attitude about their efforts in mind.

2. Test interpretation (2 hours)

The results of all tests are returned to the participants in folders. One at a time each test is explained to the participants, allowing questions, in this order:

Allport-Vernon-Lindsey Study of Values Scale
 Kuder Occupational Interest Survey
 Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory
 Myers-Briggs Type Indicator
 Edwards Personal Preference Schedule
 Henmon-Nelson Tests of Mental Ability

The participants are told that these test results include a great deal of information and they will need to allow themselves some time to sort through it over the week. The tests are not a conclusive source of information, but one source along with others that may be helpful. This information should be helpful in directing further information-gathering and in their final summaries.

Homework

Study their test results.

List at least five options which you are investigating or can investigate which might make your life more satisfying in the next two years. For each option, list at least two risks involved and two benefits.

Session VIII: OptionsGoals

To establish a positive sense of responsibility for each participant's own life planning.

To summarize factors involved in life planning.

To encourage and enable each participant to list and explore options available to her.

To complete short-term goal.

Behavioral Objectives

1. Each participant at the end of this session will have listed five options for herself to make her life more satisfying.
2. Each participant will demonstrate that she has explored one option in depth by turning in the exercise "Action Steps" completed by Session IX.

Procedure

1. Film and discussion (45 minutes)

The leader shows the film, "I Pack My Own Chute." After the film individuals are encouraged to comment. The leader emphasizes the process of life planning involves decision-making, risk-taking, planning, goal-setting, and action.

2. Group discussion (1 1/2 hours)

Each individual in the group is encouraged to take a few minutes to share options she has listed as homework. Other individuals may offer new suggestions. The emphasis is on generating many possibilities which can be explored. Specific suggestions may also be made by the leader or others in the group as to how to follow up in exploring the options.

The short-term goal assignment which the group had for Session III through Session VIII is concluded although the women are encouraged to continue using the technique. The idea of using a long-term goal is presented and incorporated as homework in "Action Steps."

Homework

Complete the exercise "Action Steps."

Be prepared to ask life-style panel questions which are relevant to you.

Session IX: Life-Styles Panel Discussion

Goals

To present successful women as role models to the Seminar participants.

To encourage the participants to consider various life-styles.

To present exemplary personal accounts of life planning to the participants.

Behavioral Objective

1. That each participant will be present at the panel discussion to hear and participate in discussion.

Procedure

1. Follow-through on Session VIII (10 minutes)

The leader collects the exercise "Action Steps" and handles any discussion or questions.

2. Panel discussion (2 hours)

Four to five guest panelists representing such varied life-styles as leisure, full-time work, and part-time work and varied interest and content areas present to the Seminar participants a personal account of the following:

What their life-style involves

How their life-style evolved

Problems with home, family, decision-making, etc., they have handled

Successes they have had

After short presentations by each panelist, questions and discussion are encouraged.

Homework

Individual summary which will include:

Personal reaction to program
 Changes I have made and hope to make
 Information from tests and exercises which relates to my life planning
 Goals for myself

The summary form may include any creative touch such as a poem, picture, etc.

Session X: Summarization

Goals

To allow each participant to summarize what she has learned about herself and options open to her, what goals and changes she plans to work toward, and any personal reaction to the program.

To achieve a sense of closure for the group.

To support and encourage the participants in their plans, offering any relevant suggestions and feedback.

Behavioral Objective

1. Each participant will present a summary which includes the factors mentioned in the first goal above.

Procedure

1. Presentations and discussion

Each woman is given an opportunity to present her summary (five to ten minutes each). Other participants and the leader may comment to offer support and suggestions. When all have presented, the leader closes the group emphasizing positive changes she sees and the need for developing a positive support system outside of the group. The group may socialize over coffee or lunch depending on their time schedules.

APPENDIX C
LIFESPAN PLANNING SEMINAR FOLLOW-UP SURVEY

LIFESPAN PLANNING SEMINAR FOLLOW-UP SURVEY

Name _____ Date _____

Address _____

Telephone Number _____

Please answer every question which applies to you.

1. When did you attend the Lifespan Planning Seminar?

_____ spring 1972	_____ fall 1972
_____ spring 1973	_____ fall 1973
_____ spring 1974	_____ fall 1974
_____ spring 1975	_____ fall 1975
_____ spring 1976	_____ fall 1976
_____ spring 1977	

2. Did you attend

_____ all the sessions
_____ most of the sessions
_____ fewer than half of the sessions

3. How old are you?

_____ 20-24	_____ 40-44
_____ 25-29	_____ 45-49
_____ 30-34	_____ 50 or over
_____ 35-39	

4. What was your marital status at the time of Seminar?

_____ single, never married	_____ divorced
_____ married	_____ separated
_____ widowed	

5. What was your highest level of education before entering the Lifespan Planning Seminar?

high school certificate graduate degree: MA/MS
 some college MBA Law PhD
 college degree
 some graduate work other (please state) _____

6. Had you worked full-time anytime before taking Seminar?

yes no

If yes, for how many years? _____

What did you do? _____

7. If you were married while in Seminar, how long had you been married at that time?

1-5 years 16-20 years
 6-10 years 21-25 years
 11-15 years over 25 years

8. In general, how comfortable was your husband about your taking the Lifespan Planning Seminar?

enthusiastic some objections
 comfortable much against it
 neutral not applicable

9. How comfortable was he with the decisions and actions you have taken as a result of the Seminar?

enthusiastic some objections
 comfortable much against it
 neutral not applicable

10. If you have children, how many do you have and what are their current ages?

number of children _____ ages _____

11. What is your family's total current income?

_____ \$ 0- 9,999

_____ \$25-29,999

_____ \$10-14,999

_____ \$30-34,999

_____ \$15-19,999

_____ \$35,000 or more

_____ \$20-24,999

_____ not applicable

12. Did your mother work while you were living at home?

_____ yes

_____ no

If yes, for how many years? _____

What did she do? _____

13. What led to your choosing to take Seminar when you did? Check the ones which apply.

_____ I was dissatisfied with my life-style at that time.

_____ My children were at an age when I had time to do so.

_____ I wanted help making a career decision.

_____ I was feeling bored/frustrated/depressed.

_____ I felt different and out-of-place with my friends and neighbors.

_____ I thought I might want to go back to school.

_____ I wanted to find a job.

_____ I was experiencing a change or anticipated a change in my marital status due to death or divorce.

_____ other (please state) _____

14. During the six months before taking the Lifespan Planning Seminar, what were you doing? Check the ones which apply.

caring for home and children

in school to earn a degree

part-time full-time

taking courses for personal enrichment

working at a paid job

part-time full-time

doing volunteer work

average number of hours per week:

other (please state) _____

15. Did you make any decisions as a result of your experience in Seminar?

yes

no

16. If you did make a decision or plans, what did you decide? Check the ones which apply?

to center energies and time on family/home

to begin or continue college in order to prepare to enter a career

part-time full-time

to take college courses for reasons other than career preparation

part-time full-time

to enter a specialized job preparation program

part-time full-time

to get a paid job

part-time full-time

to change jobs

to take courses for personal enrichment (such as yoga, cooking, painting, etc.)

- began specialized job preparation/education
 part-time full-time
 type of preparation: _____
 signed up for personal enrichment course
 separated from my husband
 attempted on my own to change certain attitudes I had
 began marriage counseling
 began volunteer work
 average hours per week: _____ type of work: _____
 talked to college officials about enrolling and/or applied to get in college
 talked to potential employers and/or sent applications to potential employers
 have not followed through with my decision or plans
 other (please state) _____

19. What has hindered you as you have taken action or attempted to take action on your decisions?

- family responsibilities
 lack of personal motivation and effort
 family moved to new location
 lack of opportunity
 lack of money
 unclear goals
 anxieties or fears
 nothing
 other (please state) _____

 have made no decisions

20. Which of the following activities have you completed since Seminar or are you currently involved in? Check the ones which apply.

homemaker

caring for my children

currently enrolled in college as preparation for a career or for job enrichment

part-time

full-time

currently taking college courses for reasons other than career preparation

part-time

full-time

completed college since taking Seminar

major: _____

currently enrolled in specialized job preparation/education

part-time

full-time

type of preparation: _____

currently enrolled in graduate or professional school

part-time

full-time

type of program: _____

completed graduate or professional school since taking Seminar

type of program: _____

currently working at paid job

part-time

full-time

type of work: _____

volunteer work

average hours per week: _____

type of volunteer work: _____

currently getting counseling

other (please state) _____

21. How satisfied are you with your present life-style?

_____ very satisfied

_____ dissatisfied

_____ satisfied

_____ very dissatisfied

_____ neutral

22. What positive changes do you see in yourself as a result of the Lifespan Planning Seminar?

23. What negative changes do you see in yourself as a result of the Lifespan Planning Seminar?

24. How important was the Seminar experience to you in reassessing yourself and making the decisions you made?

_____ very important - I needed a program like it to help me.

_____ important - It was very helpful to me although I could be doing what I am now without it or some such program.

_____ not important - It had little to do with my current life-style.

_____ unhelpful - It made it harder for me to plan my current life-style.

25. How would you rate your ability to make decisions for yourself and accomplish what you choose to do? Circle one number.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

very low

very high

26. Do any special aspects of the Seminar experience (such as certain exercises, reading selections, tests, special topics or discussions) stand out in your mind as having been important to you and your life planning? If so, what are they?

27. List below an accomplishment you feel you have made since taking the Lifespan Seminar (if possible make it related to the reason you took the Seminar). It can be in the areas of personal, academic, or career activities.

Now rank in order 1, 2, 3, 4 to what you attribute your success in this accomplishment. "1" means most important, "4" means least important.

_____ my own skill or ability

_____ the task was easy

_____ good luck

_____ hard work

28. List a failure or setback you have had since the time you were in Seminar, something you tried that didn't work out as you wanted. It can be in the areas of personal, academic, or career activities.

Now rank in order 1, 2, 3, 4 to what you attribute your failure to accomplish what you wanted to do. "1" means most important reason, "4" means least important reason.

_____ lack of ability on my part

_____ the task was too difficult

_____ bad luck

_____ not enough effort on my part

29. Do you have any suggestions for new programs you would like the Lifespan Center to offer?
30. If you know the new addresses of any other former Lifespan Planning Seminar participants who have moved, please jot them down below.

Please feel free to share any other comments about your reaction to your Seminar experience and the changes you have made since then.

Return to: Judy Anstad
Lifespan Center
Salem College
Winston-Salem, N.C. 27108
723-7961, ext. 278

APPENDIX D

INITIAL LETTER TO SEMINAR PARTICIPANTS

September 26, 1977

Dear Former Lifespan Planning Seminar Participant,

This fall will begin the sixth year that the Lifespan Planning Seminar has been offered to the women of Winston-Salem and surrounding communities. We at the Lifespan Center want to know what you have been doing since you participated in the Lifespan Planning Seminar. We have designed the enclosed questionnaire for this purpose.

Would you please help us with our study by answering the enclosed questionnaire and returning it in the stamped envelope? It is extremely important that you answer each question. Although the questionnaire may seem lengthy, it will take only 20-30 minutes to complete. Please fill it out and drop it in the mail today.

Individual responses will be kept confidential. Results of the study will be available to you and will be used to plan new and more effective programs. If you have any questions or comments, please call Judy Aanstad at 723-7961, extension 278.

Thanks for your time and effort in helping us with this project.

Sincerely,

Judy Aanstad
Lifespan Center Counselor

Judie Homer
Lifespan Center Director

Martha Fleer
Lifespan Center Counselor

P.S. Please enjoy a cup of coffee on us as you fill out this questionnaire!

APPENDIX E
FOLLOW-UP CARD TO SEMINAR PARTICIPANTS

October 17, 1977

Dear Former Lifespan Planning Seminar Participant,

Hopefully about 3 weeks ago you received a questionnaire concerning your past participation in the Lifespan Planning Seminar. We have received many completed questionnaires, but still need yours in order to begin to tabulate the data. Please complete the questionnaire and return it to us this week if it is at all possible! If you need a new copy of the questionnaire just call the Lifespan Center (723-7961) and we will send one. Thanks so much for your help!

Sincerely,

Judy Aanstad, Counselor

APPENDIX F
FOLLOW-UP LETTER TO SEMINAR PARTICIPANTS

November 4, 1977

Dear

A month and a half ago we mailed you a questionnaire like the one enclosed in this letter. So far, we have not received it back. It may not have reached you, you might have misplaced it, or you may have put it aside intending to fill it out and just haven't gotten it done.

Whatever the reason, we didn't receive your questionnaire. WE NEED YOUR HELP! Both the acceptability of a Ph.D. thesis and the usefulness of a follow-up study of the Lifespan Planning Seminar depend on us getting back a completed questionnaire from every woman we can reach. Will you help us by filling out the questionnaire and returning it right away? It should take only 20-30 minutes to fill out. Please answer all of the questions.

This is extremely important to us and we need you help. If you have any questions or problems with the questionnaire, please call Judy Aanstad at work--723-7961, extension 278 or at home 748-8455. We appreciate your help very much.

Gratefully yours,

Judy Aanstad
Counselor

Martha Fleer
Counselor

Judie Homer
Director

JA;MF;JH:ch

(Lindbloom, 1974)

APPENDIX G

TABLES

Table 1. Number and Percent of Women Returning Questionnaire from Each Seminar Class

	Returned	Not Returned	Not Located	Class Total
Fall 1972	18 (62%)	8 (28%)	3 (10%)	29
Spring 1973	13 (87%)	1 (7%)	1 (7%)	15
Fall 1973	31 (82%)	6 (16%)	1 (2%)	38
Spring 1974	16 (84%)	1 (5%)	2 (11%)	19
Fall 1974	13 (87%)	1 (7%)	1 (7%)	15
Spring 1975	7 (70%) ^a	3 (30%)	0 (0)	10
Fall 1975	13 (93%)	1 (7%)	0 (0)	14
Spring 1976	6(100%)	0 (0)	0 (0)	6
Fall 1976	9 (90%)	1 (10%)	0 (0)	10
Spring 1977	10 (91%)	1 (9%)	0 (0)	11
Totals	136 (81%)	23 (14%)	8 (5%)	167

^aIncludes one questionnaire returned with no answers

Table 2. Factors Leading to Choice to Take the Seminar

	Number	Percent of Total
Feelings of Boredom, Depression, Frustration	80	59%
Dissatisfaction With Current Life-Style	79	55%
Thinking About Return to School	68	50%
Wanted Help With Career Decision	61	45%
Children Old Enough	57	42%
Wanted to Find a Job	26	19%
Other	26	19%
Feeling Out-of-Place With Peers	24	18%
Anticipating Change in Marital Status	17	13%

Table 5. Women's Marital Status at Time of Participation in the Seminar

	Single	Married	N = 135		Widowed	Divorced	Separated
Number	5	120	3		3		4
Percent of Total	4%	89%	2%		2%		3%

Table 6. Number of Children at Time of Seminar Participation

	0	1	N = 135		2	3	4	5
Number	12	12	52		36		18	5
Percent of Total	9%	9%	38%		27%		13%	4%

Table 7. Number of Women With Children Under Five Years of Age

	Number of Women With Youngest Child Under 5
At Time of Seminar	32
Fall 1977	14

Table 8. Women's Highest Level of Education at Time of Seminar Participation

		High School	Some College	College Degree	Some Graduate Work	Graduate Degree
Home-Based (N = 73)	No.	11	20	30	9	3
	% of Total	15%	27%	41%	12%	4%
Career-Oriented (N = 62)	No.	12	20	17	9	4
	% of Total	20%	32%	27%	15%	6%

Total (N = 135)	No.	23	40	47	18	7
	% of Total	17%	30%	35%	13%	5%

Complex Chi Square = 2.72, df = 2
Not Significant, $p < .05$.

Table 9. Means and Percentile Rankings on Edwards Personal Preference Schedule for All Women

	Mean	Percentile
Ach	16.30	79
Def	11.96	27
Order	11.03	19
Exh	11.95	61
Aut	13.92	72
Aff	15.78	33
Int	17.07	70
Suc	12.47	50
Dom	13.13	56
Aba	14.81	34
Nur	14.56	21
Chg	18.38	71
End	12.50	22
Het	15.51	85 ^a
Agg	10.89	63

^aConsidered a "high" need

Table 10. Myers-Briggs Types for 111 Respondents

SENSING TYPES with THINKING		INTUITIVE TYPES with FEELING		INTUITIVE TYPES with THINKING			
ISTJ N = 7 % = 6	ISFJ N = 14 % = 13	INFJ N = 11 % = 10	INTJ N = 5 % = 5	JUDGING	E 43 39%		
ISTP N = 2 % = 2	ISFP N = 8 % = 7	INFP N = 16 % = 14	INTP N = 5 % = 5		INTROVERTS	I 68 61%	
ESTP N = 1 % = 1	ESFP N = 2 % = 2	ENFP N = 16 % = 14	ENTP N = 4 % = 4			PERCEPTIVE	S 41 37%
ESTJ N = 0 % = 0	ESFJ N = 7 % = 6	ENFJ N = 9 % = 8	ENTJ N = 4 % = 4				EXTRAVERTS
				JUDGING			
					F 83 75%		
					J 57 51%		
					P 54 49%		
					IJ 37 33%		
					IP 31 28%		
					EP 23 21%		
					EJ 20 18%		
					ST 10 9%		
					SF 31 28%		
					NF 52 47%		
					NT 18 16%		
					SJ 28 25%		
					SP 13 12%		
					NP 41 37%		
					NJ 29 26%		
					TJ 16 14%		
					TP 12 11%		
					FP 42 38%		
					FJ 41 37%		
					IN 37 33%		
					EN 33 30%		
					IS 31 28%		
					ES 10 9%		

NOTES:

Table 11. Women's Activity Involvement Six Months Prior to the Seminar

	Caring for Home's Children	School		Work		Enrichment Courses	Volunteer Work	Other
		Part-time	Full-time	Part-time	Full-time			
Number	112	2	1	21	12	35	77	14
Percent of Total	83%	1%	1%	16%	9%	26%	57%	10%

NOTE: Some subjects checked more than one category.

Table 12. Number and Percent of Women Who Reported Making Life Planning Decisions at the Conclusion of the Seminar

		Reported Yes	Reported No	Reported No But Checked Decisions	Total
Home-Based	No.	53	15	5 ^a	73
	%	72%	21%	7%	
Career-Oriented	No.	57	5	0	62
	%	92%	8%	0	
Total	No.	110	20	5	135
	%	81%	15%	4%	

Phi = .19

Chi Square = 4.84

Significant at $p < .05$, $df = 1$

^aNot included in chi square calculations.

Table 13. Decisions Made by Women at the Conclusion of the Seminar

	Number	
Center Time on Family/Home	25	
Attend College, Career in Mind ^a	8	
Part-Time	18	} 35
Full-Time	9	
Attend College, No Career Plans ^a	6	
Part-Time	15	} 21
Full-Time	0	
Enter Specialized Job Training ^a	0	
Part-Time	13	} 17
Full-Time	4	
Get Paid Job ^a	5	
Part-Time	16	} 29
Full-Time	8	
Change Jobs	8	
Personal Enrichment Courses	48	
Volunteer Work	20	
Separate or Divorce	9	
Get Marriage Counseling	10	
Get Personal Counseling	10	
Start Business ^a	5	
Career Commitment	1	} 7
Side Interest	1	
Develop Different Attitudes	50	
Other	10	
Did Not Answer or Checked no Decision	20	

NOTE: Some subjects indicated more than one answer

^aNumber given only if part-time or full-time not specified

Table 14. Number and Percent of Women Who Reported Taking Action on Their Life Planning Decisions Within Six Months of the Seminar

	Took Action	No Action	Reported "No" Action But Listed Actions	Total
Home-Based	47 64%	25 34%	1 ^a 1%	73
Career-Oriented	54 87%	8 13%	0 0	62
Total (Both Groups)	101 75%	33 24%	1 1%	135

Phi = .25

Chi Square = 8.37

Significant at $p < .005$, $df = 1$

^aLeft out of chi square calculations.

Table 15. Actions Taken to Implement Decision Within Six Months After the Seminar

	Number
Spent More Time/Energy With Family	19
Enrolled in College, Career in Mind ^a	1
Part-Time	19
Full-Time	4
	} 24
Enrolled in College, No Career Plans ^a	1
Part-Time	6
Full-Time	0
	} 7
Accepted Job for Pay ^a	2
Part-Time	7
Full-Time	7
	} 16
Changed Jobs	3
Began Specialized Job Training ^a	0
Part-Time	9
Full-Time	4
	} 13
Took Enrichment Course	25
Separated from Husband	6
Attempted Attitude Change	43
Began Marriage Counseling	9
Began Personal Counseling	9
Began Volunteer Work	17
Inquired into College Admission	13
Inquired about Specific Jobs	11
Other	14
No Answer	33

NOTE: Some subjects indicated more than one answer

^aNumber given only if part-time or full-time not specified.

Table 16. Factors Hindering Women from Action on Decisions

	Number
Family Responsibilities	63
Unclear Goals	42
Anxieties or Fears	36
Other	25
Lack of Personal Motivation and Effort	24
Nothing	22
Blank	21
Lack of Money	17
Family Moved	17
Lack of Opportunity	13
Have Made No Decision	1
Total	281

Table 17. Activity Involvement of Women, Fall 1977

	Number	
Homemaker	102	
Caring for Children	94	
Enrolled in College (Career) ^a	0	} 22
Part-Time	17	
Full-Time	5	
Enrolled in College (Not Career) ^a	2	} 13
Part-Time	10	
Full-Time	1	
Completed College Since Seminar	8	
Enrolled in Specialized Job Preparation ^a	2	} 13
Part-Time	10	
Full-Time	1	
Enrolled in Graduate School ^a	2	} 12
Part-Time	7	
Full-Time	3	
Completed Graduate School Since Seminar	2	
Working ^a	0	} 53
Part-Time	27	
Full-Time	26	
Volunteer Work	52	
Currently in Counseling	7	
Other	33	
Total	411	

NOTE: Some subjects indicated more than one answer.

^aNumber only indicates those who fail to indicate part-time or full-time.

Table 18. Situational Factors Which Do Not Differentiate the
the Two Life-Style Groups

	df	Test	p
Age	133	t = 1.47	NS
Number of Children	133	t = .78	NS
Presence of Child Five or Under in Home	1	chi sq. = .0134	NS
Whether Mother Worked	1	chi sq. = 1.20	NS
Family Income Level	3	chi sq. = 6.36	NS
Number of Years Since Seminar	133	t = -.72	NS

Table 19. Comparison of Two Life-Style Groups in Relation to Self-Rated Decision-Making Ability

	Decision-Making Ability										Total	Mean	SD
	Low 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	High 10			
Home-Based	2	2	3	4	9	9	15	21	6	2	73		
	3%	3%	4%	5%	12%	12%	21%	29%	8%	3%	100%	6.53	2.03
Career-Oriented	0	1	0	1	1	3	9	19	19	9	62		
	0	2%	0	2%	2%	4%	14%	31%	31%	14%	100%	8.14	1.49

t = -5.6, Significant at $p < .001$, df = 133.

Table 20. Comparison of Two Life-Style Groups on Basis of Myers-Briggs Type Indicator Personality Styles

	Home-based (N = 58)		Career-oriented (N = 54)		Total (N = 112)		t
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Extrovert-Introvert	109.16	24.11	104.03	25.41	106.68	24.73	1.10
Sensing-Intuitive	105.58	24.15	107.86	28.24	106.67	26.12	-.47
Thinking-Feeling	111.34	25.06	114.55	17.14	112.88	21.24	-.78
Judgment-Perceptive	95.15	24.99	103.33	30.54	99.09	27.66	-1.55

Table 21. Comparison of Two Life-Style Groups on Edwards Personal Preference Schedule Needs

	Home-Based (N = 51)		Career-Oriented (N = 36)		Total (N = 87)		t
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Ach	16.16	4.48	16.50	4.26	16.30	4.38	-.35
Def	12.71	4.30	10.91	3.61	11.96	4.01	.65
Order	11.33	3.65	10.61	4.18	11.03	3.86	.85
Exh	11.20	4.15	13.02	3.40	11.95	3.83	-2.36
Aut	14.07	4.20	13.72	3.03	13.92	3.71	.43
Aff	15.72	3.55	15.88	4.45	15.78	3.92	-.19
Int	16.47	4.51	17.94	4.67	17.07	4.57	-1.47
Suc	12.88	4.89	11.91	3.51	12.47	4.31	.34
Dom	12.49	5.61	14.05	5.45	13.13	5.54	-1.29
Aba	16.08	5.03	13.02	4.71	14.81	4.89	3.11
Nur	15.05	4.45	13.88	4.89	14.56	4.63	1.15
Chg	18.82	4.70	17.77	4.86	18.38	4.76	1.00
End	12.07	3.88	13.13	4.78	12.50	4.25	-1.13
Het	15.23	5.71	15.91	5.36	15.51	5.56	-.56
Agg	10.35	4.20	11.66	4.32	10.89	4.24	-1.41

$p < .05$,
df = 85

$p < .01$,
df = 85

Table 22. Comparison of Two Life-Style Groups on Basis of Attribution of Success

	Own Ability ^a	Easy Task ^b	Luck ^c	Effort ^d
Home-based (N = 43)	1.37 SD = .53	3.44 SD = .62	3.27 SD = .62	1.88 SD = .87
Career-oriented (N = 50)	1.38 SD = .57	3.67 SD = .55	3.14 SD = .64	1.75 SD = .66

NOTE: Average rating on scale 1-4, 1 being most important; 4 being least important

$$a_t = -.13$$

$$b_t = 1.87$$

$$c_t = 1.02$$

$$d_t = .79$$

Table 23. Comparison of Two Life-Style Groups on Basis of Attribution of Failure

	Own Ability ^a	Difficulty of Task ^b	Luck ^c	Effort ^d
Home- based (N = 43)	2.29 SD = .71	2.41 SD = .95	3.47 SD = .96	1.88 SD = 1.14
Career- oriented (N = 50)	2.20 SD = 1.05	2.42 SD = 1.09	3.25 SD = .91	2.11 SD = 1.07

NOTE: Average rating on scale 1-4, 1 being most important; 4 being least important

$$a_t = .43$$

$$b_t = -.06$$

$$c_t = .94$$

$$d_t = -.86$$

Table 24. Positive Outcomes from the Seminar Experience
Reported by Women

	Number
More Self-Confidence, Self-Awareness, Sense of Identity	51
Increased Ability to Make Decisions and Plan Goals	32
Assume More Responsibility for Self	28
None or Cannot Say	24
More Assertive	16
Success with School or Work	15
Increased Personal Growth	11
Improved Marriage and/or Family Life	10
More Success in Relationships with Others	9
More Positive Outlook on Life	5
Better Time Management	5
Others (Single-Mention)	5
Awareness of Women's Issues	4
Increased Awareness of Not Being Alone	<u>4</u>
Total	219

NOTE: Some subjects indicated more than one answer.

Table 25. Negative Outcomes from the Seminar Experience
Reported by Women

	Number	Percent
No Negative Outcome	105	78
Frustration at Not Being Able to Implement Plans/Lack of Success	8	6
Expectations of Self Too High	4	3
Less Concern or Interest in Family Matters	4	3
Too Self-Centered, Independent	4	3
Others (Single-Mention)	4	3
Some Turmoil for Short Time Following Seminar	3	2
Feel Stuck in Low-Level Job	<u>2</u>	<u>1</u>
Total	134	99 ^a

^aOne percent lost in rounding error.

Table 26. Importance of Seminar to Decision-Making of Women in Two Life-Style Groups

		Importance of Seminar					Total	Mean	SD
		Very Important 1	2	3	Unhelpful 4	No Answer			
Home-Based	No.	27	29	15	0	2	73	1.83	.75
	%	37%	40%	20%	0	3%	100%		
Career-Oriented	No.	39	19	3	0	1	62	1.4	.58
	%	63%	31%	5%	0	1%	100%		
Total Group	No.	66	48	18	0	3	135		
	%	49%	36%	13%	0	2%	100%		

t = 3.52, Significant at $p < .001$, $df = 130$.

Table 27. Special Aspects of Seminar Mentioned as Helpful by Women

	Number
Testing	59
Contact With Other Women, Group Discussion	35
Other Items (Mentioned 3 Times or Fewer)	28
Reading Material	20
No Comment	20
Assertiveness	11
Contact With Leaders	9
Setting Goals Information and Exercise	10
Gestalt Exercise on Taking Responsibility for Self	7
Carl Rogers Article on Values	7
Overall Program	5
Lifeline Exercise (on Decision-Making)	6

NOTE: Some subjects mentioned more than one aspect.

Table 28. Mother's Work History While the Seminar Participants Were Living at Home

N = 135				
Worked 1-4 Years	Worked 5-9 Years	Worked 10+ Years	Worked, Years Unsure	Did Not Work
31	4	14	5	81
23%	3%	10%	4%	60%

Table 29. Husbands' Attitudes Toward Wives' Participation in the Seminar

		N = 135				
Enthusiastic	Comfortable	Neutral	Some Objections	Much Against	Not Applicable	
40	37	31	10	0	17	
30%	27%	23%	7%	0%	13%	

Table 30. Husbands' Attitudes Toward Life Planning Decisions Made by Wives After the Seminar

		N = 134 ^a				
Enthusiastic	Comfortable	Neutral	Some Objections	Much Against	Not Applicable	No Answer
29	36	20	11	6	21	11
22%	27%	15%	8%	4%	16%	8%

^aOne respondent who checked all six categories not included.

Table 31. Comparison of Two Life-Style Groups in Relation to Satisfaction with Present Life-Style (Fall 1977)

	Satisfaction					Total	Mean	SD
	High 1	2	3	4	Low 5			
Home-Based	11 15%	30 22%	14 10%	13 10%	2 1%	3 2%	73 100%	2.50 1.05
Career-Oriented	21 34%	27 43%	8 13%	6 10%	0 0	0 0	62 100%	2.00 .92

$t = 2.87$, Significant at $p < .01$, $df = 130$.

Table 32. Marital Status of Women in Fall 1977

	Married	Separated	Divorced	Widowed	Single	Missing Data ^a	Total
Home-Based	60 82%	4 5%	4 5%	2 3%	0 0	3 4%	73
Career-Oriented	41 66%	5 8%	8 13%	2 3%	5 8%	1 2%	62

Phi = .21
Chi Square = 5.78

There is a difference $p < .025$, $df = 1$, between life-style groups on dimension married versus not married.

^aNot included in chi square calculations.

Table 33. Ratings Given by Women to Each of Four Possible Attributions of a Success

Rating	Skill	Task Difficulty	Luck	Effort	Total Number of Women ^a
1st	68	0	1	33	102
2nd	30	5	8	53	96
3rd	3	29	51	5	88
4th	0	54	29	5	88

A test for the significance for a proportion showed a greater than expected proportion of the group chose skill or effort for 1st and 2nd place and task difficulty or luck for 3rd and 4th place ($p < .001$).

^aSome women did not specify all four ratings.

Table 34. Ratings Given by Women to Each of Four Possible Attributions of a Failure

Rating	Skill	Task Difficulty	Luck	Effort	Total Number of Women ^a
1st	18	19	10	36	83
2nd	28	16	8	20	72
3rd	19	26	15	9	69
4th	6	10	42	11	69

A test for the significance for a proportion showed a greater than expected proportion of the group chose effort for 1st place ($p < .05$).

^aSome women did not specify all four ratings.

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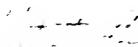
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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Judy Ann Aanstad was born in Minneapolis, Minnesota, on October 9, 1946. After a few years her family moved to Austin, Minnesota, where she graduated from Austin High School in 1964. Judy attended Macalester College in St. Paul, Minnesota, graduating in 1968 with a B.A. in psychology and education. The following year she worked as a research assistant at the Institute of Child Development at the University of Minnesota. She began graduate work in the Counselor Education program at the University of Florida in Gainesville, Florida, in 1969, with an Education Professional Development Act Fellowship. In 1971, Judy received her Master of Education Degree and Educational Specialist Degree. She completed her doctoral course work before leaving in 1972 to take a doctoral internship position at the counseling center at Virginia Polytechnic and State University in Blacksburg, Virginia. After a second year at the counseling center in a staff position, Judy moved to Winston-Salem, North Carolina, where she is currently working as a counselor at the Lifespan Center of Salem College.

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.



Robert O. Stripling
Distinguished Service Professor of
Counselor Education

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.



E.L. Tolbert
Associate Professor of Counselor
Education

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.



Robert Ziller
Professor of Psychology

This dissertation was submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the Department of Counselor Education in the College of Education and to the Graduate Council, and was accepted as partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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Dean, Graduate School

UNIVERSITY OF FLORIDA



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