

AN ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS OF

MICHELE SUZANNE HALLER for the MASTER OF SCIENCE  
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OREGON TENTH GRADE GIRLS

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Dr. May DuBois

Purposes and Method of Study

The purpose of this study was to find out if tenth grade girls were aware of the probability that a majority of them would work at some time during their lives, and if they planned to prepare for this possibility. A questionnaire was designed and validated to attempt to determine these aspirations and expectations. Six hundred questionnaires were then sent to 24 Oregon high schools where the home economics teachers administered them to the sophomore girls in their classes. A total of 508 usable questionnaires were returned.

The questions proposed for study were:

1. What do tenth grade girls aspire to educationally?
2. Are their educational goals related to the choices their mothers have made?
3. What are the future plans of the tenth grade girls?

- a. Do sophomore girls see themselves in the future as mainly wives and mothers?
- b. If they plan to marry, do they reject working as a part of their life pattern?
4. For what reasons will they work?
5. What are tenth grade girls' views of what they will be doing at age 30 and after their children are grown?
6. What are tenth grade girls' preferences for their mothers' working or not working? How does this influence their choice for themselves?
7. What influences the opinions of sophomore girls about women working?
8. Are sophomore girls aware of the facts about women working today?
9. Is there a need to place more emphasis on wage-earning skills in the home economics curriculum or is there a need to continue to emphasize home and family living?

### Findings

In general, the respondents aspired to graduate from high school. This choice was the same as the education the respondents' mothers received. The girls tended to see themselves mainly as wives and mothers, but a large majority included some work plans in the expectations for their lives. The respondents tended to be

unrealistic about the reasons they might take jobs. Though most said that the need for money would be the main reason for working, the next two largest groups said that they would take a job because they enjoyed working and in order to have something to do. They did not consider a husband's injury or death, divorce, or never marrying as good reasons for working.

A majority of the respondents expected to be home taking care of their children at age 30. Forty-two percent expected to be working part time after their children are grown, but just a few less (38 percent) expected to be keeping a home during these years. The largest number of respondents preferred their mothers to keep a home full time, but in many cases made different choices for themselves than they made for their mothers. Most of the respondents felt that no one had influenced their opinions about women working. Many others felt they were mostly influenced by their mother's opinions.

The respondents were quite accurate in estimating the average life-expectancy of teen-aged girls and the number of years they could expect to live after their children are grown. The respondents' estimates were not very accurate when they were asked to guess the average number of women working today (they estimated very high), and the average number of years a woman will probably work (they estimated very low).

## Implications

The main implication of this study is that students do not seem to be realistic about planning their lives. They appear to be aware of the facts about how many women are working today, how long they will probably live, and how many years of life they will have after their children are grown.

Of the 508 respondents, 80.3 percent planned to work, 56 percent after they married. Nevertheless, the respondents quite unrealistically did not plan to get very much training or education to prepare themselves for any type of job. Nearly one third of the respondents planned to go no further with their education than high school. Because of the unrealistic attitude of the girls toward preparation for their future employment, it seems that homemaking teachers need to find ways to help these girls to become more aware of the problems in the world of work, and to help them to learn skills that will make them more employable when they need or want to work. More than one fourth of the respondents expected to be working at age 30, and over half planned to be working after their children are grown.

However, family life instruction is still a definite need. So few of the respondents answered that they would take a job if their husband died or was injured, or if there was a divorce, that it points to a need for more emphasis on family interaction and even realistic family finance. To leave out these teachings in favor of job training

would be a mistake in light of these findings; but a combination of the two needs to be taught in the home economics curriculum.

Educational and Occupational Aspirations  
of Oregon Tenth Grade Girls

by

Michele Suzanne Haller

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APPROVED:

Redacted for privacy

\_\_\_\_\_  
Professor of Home Economics Education  
in charge of major

Redacted for privacy

\_\_\_\_\_  
Head of the Department of Home Economics Education

Redacted for privacy

\_\_\_\_\_  
Dean of Graduate School

Date thesis is presented March 6, 1969

Typed by Gwendolyn Hansen for Michele Suzanne Haller

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# EDUCATIONAL AND OCCUPATIONAL ASPIRATIONS OF OREGON TENTH GRADE GIRLS

## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

#### Purposes of Study

There are many predictions made about the future of teen-age girls and their role in the world of work. This study was made in order to explore some of the expectations of high school girls in the world of work. The purpose of the study was to find out the thinking of tenth grade girls about women in the world of work and to discover whether they were aware of their probable dual role in today's society as predicted by the experts. To do this, data were collected and analyzed to answer the following basic questions:

1. What do tenth grade girls aspire to educationally?
2. Are their educational goals related to the choices their mothers have made?
3. What are the future plans of the tenth grade girls?
  - a. Do sophomore girls see themselves in the future as mainly wives and mothers?
  - b. If they plan to marry, do they reject working as a part of their life pattern?
4. For what reasons will they work?

5. What are tenth grade girls' views of what they will be doing at age 30 and after their children are grown?
6. What are tenth grade girls' preferences for their mothers' working or not working? How does this influence their choice for themselves?
7. What influences the opinions of sophomore girls about women working?
8. Are sophomore girls aware of the facts about women working today?

It was assumed that when the results of these questions were tabulated, the answer to a final question should become apparent:

9. Is there a need to place more emphasis on wage-earning skills in the home economics curriculum or is there a need to continue to emphasize home and family living?

#### Method of Procedure

In order to answer the questions of the study it was necessary to obtain some information from high school students themselves. A questionnaire (Appendix A) was constructed to collect information needed to answer the questions proposed for study. It was revised and reconstructed after a trial with the writer's students and several conferences with the major professor.

### Validating the Questionnaire

After the initial revisions, 15 homemaking teachers or past homemaking teachers were asked to evaluate the questionnaire and to send their comments and suggestions. They were asked to evaluate it on the basis of these questions:

Is the wording suitable for sophomores?

Does it ask for enough information?

Is there too much repetition?

Does it fit the goals I have stated?

Do you have any suggestions?

The questionnaire was also tried out on 42 sophomore girls at Thurston High School to see if any problems arose necessitating changes in wording and content. After these suggestions from the teachers and the students were considered, and most of them implemented, a final copy of the questionnaire was printed.

### Collection of Data

In order for the study to be most useful, but still be a sample of a wide variety of students, it was decided to select every other high school on the Oregon State Department of Vocational Education's list of homemaking teachers and ask them to participate by distributing the questionnaires to their sophomore students. A reply postcard



was sent to one teacher at each of these 75 Oregon high schools, explaining the study and asking them if they would be willing to have their sophomore classes fill out questionnaires. Forty-two teachers returned the postcard saying they needed over 1400 questionnaires. Since the number desired for study was only 600, the respondents were narrowed down to the first group received which was still too large. This group was trimmed further by selecting a similar number of schools from each geographical region of the state wherever possible, and by eliminating those which requested as many as 200 questionnaires. This was felt to be too large a percentage of the total 600 to allow a representative sample.

Six hundred questionnaires were distributed to 25 teachers and 517 were completed and returned. Only one teacher who received questionnaires failed to return them. She received 25. Of the questionnaires returned, 508 were usable. Nine were unusable because the respondents were not sophomores in high school. The remaining ones were blank, or not returned due to the teachers' inaccurate estimates of the number of students in their classes.

#### Limitations of the Study

This study was limited by the following factors:

1. Only Oregon sophomore girls were included, so the study can be valid for this group only.

2. A very small sample of sophomore high school girls made up the study; the findings are only valid for this very small group.
3. More small schools were included than large or big-city high schools.
4. The occupational expectations of the respondents would have given more depth to the study and would have been interesting to compare to the occupations their mothers held.
5. Most of the statistics used in the questionnaire were based on the 1960 census.

### Summary

The purpose of this study is to find out the educational and occupational expectations and aspirations of tenth grade girls and to find out their attitudes about women working. To do this, the sophomore girls themselves were asked to respond to a questionnaire administered by their homemaking teachers. The analysis of the answers of the 508 respondents to this questionnaire will be found in Chapter III.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

#### Need for Clarification of Women's Roles in Society

The role of women today is definitely a topic of much concern. The number of government publications on this topic alone shows this; but in addition, myriads of magazine articles, studies, and books have been probing this problem. As Mary Mulvey, in her psychological study of women's career patterns, states, "sex seems to impose a special role on women, limiting their career motivation, as well as their opportunities" (1963, p. 317). In 1961, President Kennedy thought it necessary to establish the United States Commission on the Status of Women. One of its purposes was to:

review progress and make recommendations for constructive action with respect to: (a) new and expanded services that may be required for women as wives, mothers, and workers including education, counseling, training, home services, and arrangements for care of children during the day (International Labor Office, 1964, p. 21).

The President seemed to feel that it was necessary to add this commission to the already existing bureaus that are concerned with women's problems.

As in earlier times, the national needs in the 1960's have refocused attention on women. Interest in new kinds of science education has revealed a ". . . widening gap in the educational and

career expectations for boys and girls" (Mead, 1965, p. 4). Still, our nation is becoming increasingly aware that much of our "woman power" is being wasted. Information on changes in life expectancy emphasizes how many more years married women will have after their children have grown and left home; conversely, statistics on juvenile delinquency leave us new worries about "the adequacy of homes in which women must be simultaneously mothers and bread-winners" (Mead, 1965, p. 4).

In this country there seems to be a lack of a clear-cut definition of the woman's place in today's world. The role is contradictory, ambiguous, and inconsistent, and "it is common today to speak of confusion, conflict, and anxiety in discussing modern woman's adjustment to life" (Steinman, 1963, p. 279).

Hortense Glenn (1966, p. 706) emphasizes this conflict and gives some reasons why young women might be confused.

Much of the educational effort in America is dedicated to helping youth achieve as much as they can intellectually. . . . In many subtle ways we encourage young women to achieve in fields which take them out of the home, while at the same time we wonder about the effects of the gainful employment of young women on the personal development of their children. We encourage self-reliance yet stress the importance of mutual interdependence in marriage. We encourage young women to develop professional skills in highly specialized fields yet expect them to follow their husbands wherever the husband's employment takes them.

Tensions seem to arise because women appear to have either no role, or so many different roles as to be confusing to them, to

other members of their sex, and to men. In her book, The Second Sex, Simone de Beauvoir (1953, p. 682) tried to explain why this situation is so different from that of men.

The advantage which man enjoys, which makes itself felt from childhood, is that his vocation as a human being in no way counters his destiny as a male. . . . He is not divided. Whereas it is required of a woman that in order to realize her femininity she must make herself object and prey, which is to say that she must renounce her claim as sovereign subject. . . of her life.

The husbands and fathers, not having role conflicts themselves, seem to view women with as much confusion as women themselves have. They view women concurrently as mothers, housewives, career women, glamour girls, culture-bearers, and status symbols (Kluckhohn, 1953). This simply adds to the feelings of conflict in women. Mirra Komarovsky (1946, p. 184), who studied women college students, found that another main reason for this conflict was that girls have been preparing for two alternatives--homemakers and career girls--all through their lives. When the time comes for them to make a decision, they find it very difficult and "conflict-generating" both because of their dual preparation and because of the uncertain view of others around them.

More and more conferences and seminars are being held, books being written, and studies being done about the role of women today. This does not, however, clear up the picture very much, because there are so many diversified opinions. In 1957, when James P.

Mitchell was Secretary of the United States Department of Labor, he said that

. . . the fundamental job of the American woman remains what I consider to be the most difficult of jobs: being a good wife, a homemaker, and a mother. She is only secondarily an economic provider. I am sure to many ears that must sound either old-fashioned or heretical, but I sincerely believe it and I think that because this is so we encounter as much difficulty as we do in defining the role of women in the work force. . . . We all share in the conflict about the role of women in our society (National Manpower Council, 1957, p. 15).

There are many others of this same opinion, even though they are of a minority in the literature. Because their view is so traditionally well known, it is not spoken about as often. James T. O'Connell, past Under Secretary of Labor, emphasized at a Women's Bureau conference, ". . . the focus of a woman's life must remain in the home . . . nothing is more important to our society" (U.S. W. B., 1960b, p. 10). Earlier in his talk he was more dogmatic.

When, as in Russia, a woman comes to be viewed first as a source of manpower, secondly as a mere agent for reproduction of manpower, and only thirdly and distantly as a mother, as a creator of home life and basic source of the emotional strength of the family, then I think we are losing much of what supposedly separates us from the communist world (U.S. W. B., 1960b, p. 4).

Dr. Carl Hansen, Superintendent of Schools in the District of Columbia, at the same conference echoed these views. He felt one of the most important professions was the management of a home. "The person in charge has a tremendous influence upon the order

within the home, upon the development of people within the home, and upon the community and the nation as a whole" (U.S.W.B., 1960b, p. 17). Glenn further expounds this opinion, "To create a society in which young women are made to feel guilty if they want to be full-time homemakers is doing them an injustice, for in such activity some women will find their greatest fulfillment" (Glenn, 1966, p. 705).

By far the most common viewpoint was a rather eclectic one that recognized both the value of homemaking for its own sake and the role of women in the world of work. Even those authorities who emphasized the important role of the woman as a homemaker, felt that there was a definite place for working women. Hansen clarifies his position, "I am not envisioning a cloistered situation for the homemaker; she must be part of the community and should have many interests outside the home, and these may include working" (U.S.W.B., 1960b, p. 17). Mitchell, in his role with the Department of Labor, is a little less cautious about pointing out this side of the question:

This is not to say that women do not belong in the work force. On the contrary, I believe that women who want to work and who must work should be provided every opportunity possible to work. I believe, also, that we could not achieve in this country the high standard of living which we have reached, nor could we continue to advance our standard of living without the integration of women in greater numbers into the work force (N. M. C., 1957, p. 15).

It appears that the one thing on which experts do agree is that there is no single defined role for the woman of today. Her role is

rather a multi-faceted one with many dimensions, possibilities, opportunities, and conflicts.

### Changes in Women's Roles

This conflict about the feminine role has not been in existence for very long. Gainful employment of women is what the controversy seems to be about. The United States Women's Bureau publication, New Approaches to Counseling Girls in the 1960's (Midwest Regional Pilot Conference, 1965, p. 18) gives a different slant on this idea. The writer suggests that the gainful employment of women in many different occupations is really nothing new. Women have always made cloth, ground flour, prepared meals, woven baskets, gathered wood, and performed similar time-consuming tasks within the home setting. The Puritans even jailed idle women to put them to work for a living.

Only in the past century, in a few parts of the world has it become possible for average women to be not gainfully employed. Not gainful employment, but the lack of it, is the novelty in the lives of women today (M. R. P. C. , 1965, p. 18).

In spite of all the controversy over the increased numbers of women who work for wages, the actual participation of women in the work of our society is really less today than it was in colonial America (M. R. P. C. , 1965, p. 20). Ginzberg (1966, pp. 6-7) substantiates this idea by saying that earlier, most women in America worked throughout their whole adult lives. Often the affluence of the



family depended upon the competence of the wife.

Why then is there such a conflict? The answer is that employment has been relocated (M. R. P. C. , 1965, p. 19). "Women's work" is no longer in or near the home, thus making it harder for a woman to combine work and marriage. The industrial revolution with its mass production has, for all intents and purposes, technologically unemployed today's woman. "But the social and psychological needs which impell women to participate have by no means disappeared from the feminine world, and the feminine psyche" (M. R. P. C. , 1965, p. 20). There is a tendency to exaggerate recent changes and to "see a larger gap between the present and the past than more careful historical appraisal would justify" (Ginzberg, 1966, p. 6). Women have always worked, and will continue to work in varying capacities, no matter what the location.

A brief summary of the history of women at work in the last 100 years should serve to show the development of the controversial role that we consider a current problem, but which in actuality started quite a long time ago. The major change that has taken place in this century is a change in the attitude toward women's working outside the home for pay.

The first woman was admitted to an institution of higher learning at Oberlin College in 1837 (Blackwell, 1963, p. 33). The first ten-hour work day law to apply to women was passed in 1852

(U.S.D.L., 1956, p. 246), a real milestone! In the years since then, remarkable progress in the status of women has taken place. In those days a woman who had to work was considered unfortunate. "But the woman who did so because she wanted to was looked upon as perhaps not quite a lady" (U.S.D.L., 1956, p. 28).

Even at the turn of the century, a young girl was supposed to bring a "dowry of skills" to her marriage:

- . . . (a) how to cook and bake, including keeping the coal or wood stove stoked to proper temperature.
- (b) how to can and preserve fruits and vegetables to supply the requirement calculated at 125 quarts per person.
- (c) how to make her own and her children's clothes and husband's shirts and night shirts.
- (d) how to launder the clothes and household textiles and perhaps even how to make her own soap.
- (e) how to nurse the family's illnesses.
- (f) how to take care of the house.
- (g) how to teach her youngsters herself in case there was no school available.

Outside activities centered chiefly in her church, its missionary society and women's circle (Glenn, 1966, p. 704).

The growth of the movement to give American women more freedom took an upswing when the Women-in-Industry Service (complete with Stereoptican slides) was created in 1918 "to deal with the labor problems of the millions of women who went to work during World War I" (Mead, 1965, p. 3). The Women Suffrage Amendment was ratified in 1920 (Mead, 1965, p. 3).

In 1920, one out of every five workers was a woman and there were eight and a quarter million working women (Mead, 1965, p. 3).

In 1923, Mrs. Lillian Carleton (1923, p. iv) wrote a statement that sounds very much like it came from a 1968 journal, "Statistics show, magazine articles and modern fiction suggest, that society is facing a change in the status of the married woman of which it is slow to take cognizance and for which it is not fully prepared." Even though there were not nearly as many women gainfully employed in those days, the problem was beginning to be recognized.

One of the reasons fewer women worked for pay was that the wages were so small and the conditions so poor that it often did not make working worthwhile (Carleton, 1923). Even in 1938, a wage board recommended a minimum wage of \$16.00 for a 42 1/2 hour week (U.S.W.B., 1938a, p. 15). The cost of living was, of course, much lower than it is now, but it still was not as acceptable or profitable to work. A married woman could not take a job which a man might need and it was difficult to afford child care or other services to make it profitable to work. Also, the technology of homemaking tasks was not nearly as well-developed and the homemaker found even if she had the desire or need to work, homemaking consumed her full time. A 1928 housewife said: "At present, new equipment, new techniques, and the socialization of domestic processes belong in the realm of hope and not of accessibility for most of us" (Coyle, 1928, p. 36).

The main emphasis of the "Women-in-Industry Service"

centered on doing night work, cutting down the hours of household workers living in to 52 per week (U. S. W. B. , 1938b, p. 14), using women in war industries, and deciding whether or not married women should be allowed to hold a job (U. S. W. B. , 1919). Married women were often fired from their jobs when their husbands became employed. One of the first moves against this was made in 1938 when some married women teachers in Somerville, Massachusetts were reinstated by a court order (U. S. W. B. , 1939, p. 15).

Grace Coyle, in her book Jobs and Marriage? (1928, p. 26), took opinions from numerous interviews and current magazines. Most of them seemed to be against the combination of jobs and marriage; "the wives and mothers often support the entire family . . . and the man grows flabby in character and lazy in habit because it is easy for him to depend on his wife." Many others told how working had ruined their marriages and their homes. In her "Degree of Truth Test," a questionnaire about the effect on the families of married women who work for pay, she had such statements to respond to as these, which seem to slant toward the negative attitude:

No self-respecting man would let his wife work.  
The only time when it is all right for a woman to work is when her husband cannot support her.  
Married women should be allowed to work when there are plenty of jobs, but be discharged when jobs are scarce.  
It upsets the authority of the husband if the wife has her own income.  
The work of married women is breaking up the home and threatening family life (Coyle, 1928, p. 14).

There were no results given or any discussion of the questionnaire, but the fact that there were more negative than positive statements indicated to me that there might be a more prevalent attitude in this direction.

There were some positive statements which pointed out the other side of the picture, such as, "a wife is more interesting to her husband if she has a job," and "the married woman who stays at home misses the companionship of the women with whom she worked on the job" (Coyle, 1928, p. 14).

When the Women's Bureau was established in 1920, part of its purpose was to "promote the welfare of wage-earning women, improve their efficiency, and advance their opportunities for profitable employment" (U. S. W. B., 1960a, p. i). They and others made some progress in improving attitudes and opportunities. "Between the two wars, many barriers broke down, and there was progress on many fronts. Women won the vote and more and more of them went to work" (Mead, 1965, p. 3).

The major breakthrough, however, came in World War II. The leaders of the country called upon the married women to go to work to further the war effort. They responded in large numbers, causing "the barrier against married women in the upper-income classes" to be "eliminated dramatically" (Ginzberg, 1966, p. 10).

The Present Status of Women in Society

The situation now has definitely changed. The world is a different place. It has been changed by ". . . invention, industrial growth, two world wars, improved education, and above all the determination of women to fulfill their own destinies. In a few decades, crowded together swiftly upon the other, these forces pressed against the restrictions on the employment of women" (U. S. D. L. , 1956, p. 28). Other countries as well as our own are recognizing these changes, perhaps in some cases even more than we do. The representative of Russia at the International Labor Conference stated:

The performance of work useful to the community gives women economic independence and consequently, a position of respect in the home and in society. Furthermore, work often becomes a factor in the blossoming of women's personality and civic conscience (I. L. O. , 1964, p. 19).

He and other world leaders, including our own, are making every effort to facilitate the movement of women into employment. Russia has often been criticized for too much "facilitation," but they seem to be on the right track in making work possible for so many women, even though they do underestimate the importance of women in the home. Rumania, at an earlier conference, suggested some further ways to help the women workers. Their delegate felt, among other things, "that it would be desirable to add the hypothesis of absence from employment, . . . necessitated by care for a sick

child, as not constituting a loss of employment" (I. L. O. , 1965, p. 35).

The need to help women with family responsibilities to reconcile their home and work tasks was high-lighted throughout the conference. It was pointed out that community services, particularly for child care, could "play an essential role in this regard" (I. L. O. , 1965, p. 4).

The conference recommended that countries also work on the facilities required "to simplify and lighten household tasks and to extend maternity leaves" (I. L. O. , 1965, p. 54).

Kennedy's establishment of the U. S. Commission on the Status of Women in December, 1961, shows that our country, as well, is interested in improving the situation. Our former President Kennedy exhibited an enlightened, unbiased view when he declared:

Providence has distributed brains and skills pretty evenly over our people. To conclude that women are unfitted to the risks of our historic society seems to me the equivalent of closing male eyes to female facts. We need skill and intelligence and capacity for leadership. We need dedication and application and we need them wherever we find them. If we neglect these talents, our society is the first loser. But, equally, the women whose gifts are suppressed and passed over are losers, too . . . my whole aim in promoting women and picking out more women to serve in this Administration is to underline our profound belief that we can waste no talent, we can frustrate no creative power, we can neglect no skill in our search for an open and just and challenging society. There is no place for discrimination of any kind in American life. There must be places for citizens who can think and create and act (M. R. P. C. , 1965, p. 74).

It is because of attitudes like this, or perhaps to overcome opposing attitudes, that the Civil Rights Bill of 1964 included the elimination of

discrimination for reasons of sex.

Scientific and technological changes have played a major role in the changing opportunities for women and perhaps have added to the change in attitudes as well. These improvements give women new freedom by simplifying many tasks, taking more and more tasks out of the home, reducing the time required for the physical tasks of home-making and leaving mainly those chores which are easier to do (M. R. P. C. , 1965, p. 74; U. S. W. B. , 1960a, p. 3). "Today's young American middle-class wife leads a different life. She cooks with gas or electricity, thermostatically controlled. She buys her food at the local shopping center, much of it frozen or otherwise processed" (Glenn, 1966, p. 704). These technological improvements also create new employment opportunities in offices and factories (as well as deleting some) and mean more job specialization (U. S. W. B. , 1960a, p. 3). Our expanding economy has provided jobs for ever-increasing numbers.

Another major change that affects the role of women is the increase in the average expectation of life.

The girl baby born 50 years ago in the United States could expect, on the average, to live only a little more than 50 years. For the girl baby born today, the average expectation of life is close to 75 years. And the factors that have extended the average lifespan have reduced the incidence of disease and have given women greater vitality for the fuller enjoyment of those added years (M. R. P. C. , 1965, pp. 3-4).

This truly enables women to take part in a richer variety of activities



over a longer span of years.

Because of these changes in the attitude of the society, the life expectancy, and the new opportunities for employment, more and more women are working. In 1968 there were 29 million women working (U.S.W.B., 1968, p. 2), and it is forecasted that there will be 30 million in 1970--over one-third of the entire work force (Mead, 1965, p. 45). This is quite a change from the five million at the turn of the century and the 14 million in March, 1940 (U.S.W.B., 1960a, p. 4). Estimates of population growth place the total at 208 million persons by 1970. We "can reasonably expect to have 13.5 million more workers than in 1960, or a projected labor force of 87 million. Almost half of the additional workers predicted for 1970 will be women--resulting in a 25 percent increase for women workers as compared to a 15 percent increase for men" (U.S.W.B., 1960a, p. 6). Excluding teenage girls who are in school and women over 65, "it is anticipated that at least two-fifths of the women of working age will be in the labor force in 1970" (U.S.W.B., 1960a, p. 30). This will continue the trend of increasing the number of women in the labor force more rapidly than their number in the population. To account for this large increase in the number of women at work, it seems logical to assume that there has been a corresponding change in the patterns of women's lives--and there has been.

## A Profile of the Women Who Work

It used to be that the women who worked were mostly young and single. The 1960 Handbook on Women Workers revealed several distinct patterns in the different types of women who work. Women's work patterns seem to be much more complex than men's work patterns, "most women work sometime during their lives whether they marry or not. But marriage and the presence of children tend to curtail their employment, while widowhood, divorce, and the decrease of family responsibilities tend to attract them back into the labor force" (U.S.W.B., 1960a, p. 48). The work patterns as given in this handbook are:

1. SINGLE WOMEN--This group includes about one tenth of all the women. Their work pattern is simple; nearly like men's. They work most of their lives--about 40 years (three years less than men)--and live an average of 13 years after retirement.

2. WIDOWED, DIVORCED, AND SEPARATED WOMEN--A large percentage return to the labor force after losing their husbands. Their work-life-expectancy is slightly shorter than for single women, but is "more comparable to that group than any other" (U.S.W.B., 1960a, p. 49).

3. MARRIED WITH NO CHILDREN--This group includes about one tenth of all married women. They have a work-life-expectancy

of 31 years. After age 35, they have an average of 20 more working years (seven less than single women), mainly because they are in a better position to stop working when they have a minor disease.

4. MARRIED, WITH CHILDREN--Their work-life-expectancy is hard to estimate because it is so intermittent. They start at age 17 or 18, then after an average of four years they quit, marry, and have children. Then, after eight or ten years, they return to work. If they are 30 at this time, they can expect to work about 23 years more (U.S.W.B., 1960a, pp. 48-49; Greenwald, 1963, p. 348).

#### More Married Women Are Working

Part of the reason for the controversy about women's role today is due to the definite trend toward more married women in the labor force. "This increasing trend of married women to work has been the most important factor in the growth of the woman labor force" (New Figures on Working Wives, 1966, p. 707). Some statistics from the United States Women's Bureau about these married women are interesting to consider:

- Four out of five women have been married at some time in their lives.
- Over half (three out of five) of the women workers are married.
- Of all married women, over 33 percent are working.
- Seventy-five percent of all single women (20 to 64 years of age) are working.

- The number of married women in the labor force has increased between 1940 and 1964, representing a rise of 244 percent compared to a 47 percent rise of women in the population.
- Twelve and one-half percent of all women workers have children.
- Thirty percent of the mothers with children under 18 were working in 1959 (New Figures . . . , 1966, p. 707; Glenn, 1966, p. 703; U.S.W. B. , 1960a, p. 2; Mead, 1965, p. 45).

Why are there so many more married women in the labor force?

For one thing, the number of married women has risen sharply.

There are fewer single women now. In 1940, 28 percent of the women were single; in 1959, the figure was 19 percent. The total number of people has increased. However, the number of women has increased three times, and the women's labor force has more than quadrupled (U.S.W. B. , 1960a, p. 4).

Another factor is that women are getting married at younger ages, half of them before they are 20. "More women marry now at 18 than at any other age" (M.R.P.C. , 1965, p. 4). This leaves today's married woman with an average of 15 years after her youngest child is gone from the home (Glenn, 1966).

The factors such as whether or not there are children in the home, and the age, education, and health of the women seem to affect whether or not she will work, much more than her marital status (U.S.W. B. , 1960a, pp. 36-37). Mildred Weil (1959, p. 1125-A) found that a woman will perform a dual role as homemaker and

wage-earner when these factors are present:

- a. Her husband has a positive attitude
- b. She is highly trained or educated
- c. She continued to work after marriage
- d. Her husband helps with child care and household chores.

### More Older Women Are Working

Another current trend in the changing role of women is the tremendous increase in the number of women over 35 in the labor force.

. . . in 1940, by the time a woman reached the age of 45-54 years the chance of her being in the labor force was less than one out of four.

Today's picture is very different . . . the woman 45-54 years old is more than twice as likely to be in paid employment as she was before World War II. In fact, more than half of our women in this age bracket are in today's labor force. It is in this middle period of a woman's life that she is most likely to be at work (M. R. P. C. , 1965, p. 5).

The average woman worker of 1956 was 39 years old (M. R. P. C. , 1965, p. 5). In Oregon in 1958, 62 percent of the women workers were over 35 years old and these statistics "follow closely the nationwide figures for 1956 as published by the United States Department of Agriculture" (Oregon Bureau of Labor, 1958, p. 15). The department estimates suggest now that by 1980, 60 percent of all women aged 45 to 54 will be in the labor force (M. R. P. C. , 1965, p. 7).

Erwin D. Canham, Chairman of the National Manpower Council and Editor-in-chief of The Christian Science Monitor, calls this trend "grandmother power," and feels that it is some sort of a devilish scheme to put grandmothers out of their role of caring for their grandchildren (N. M. C. , 1957, p. 4). Another source disagrees and feels this is only natural,

By the time a large majority of women reach their mid-thirties, their children are launched at school and they can realistically anticipate at least another 30 or 35 years of active life which they will want filled with rewarding experience. Is it any wonder so many of them have been searching for new roles beyond the home? (M. R. P. C. , 1965, p. 4).

Anyway we do know that the number of older women has increased tremendously. "Between 1940 and 1964, the number of women aged 35 to 44 years in the labor force more than doubled. The number aged 45 to 54 years more than tripled; and the number aged 55 to 64 years has increased more than three and one half times" (M. R. P. C. , 1965, p. 5). The increase in the younger age group (18 to 34) has only kept pace with their growth in the population. So you can see that it is mainly women in their middle years, whose family responsibilities have tapered off who are in the work force.

### Why Women Work

These statistics show that not only are women of all ages in the work force and in ever-increasing numbers, but that they are there

to stay. Mrs. Margaret Banning, at a Women's Bureau conference, says, "We have then, a remodeled society and what I think can fairly be called a commitment of today's woman to work in it outside of her home--for part of her life at least" (U. S. W. B., 1960b, p. 37).

Why do so many of today's women find it necessary, desirable, or profitable to work? Some of the reasons have been mentioned in the brief history of changes in our society. And it is, basically our changing society which enables and encourages these women to work. The first and main reason is that all these technological changes and more liberal attitudes have freed women to make more choices. The founding of a family is no longer the only purpose of marriage. Instead, it is the personal satisfaction of the individuals concerned--and this satisfaction may be found in a variety of ways. De Beauvoir, the emancipated French woman, says of marriage:

. . . it is becoming a union, freely entered upon by the consent of two independent persons. The obligations of the two contracting parties are personal and reciprocal . . . woman is no longer limited to the reproductive function, which has lost in large part its character as natural servitude and has come to be regarded as a function to be voluntarily assumed (De Beauvoir, 1953, p. 400).

Reuben Hill in his article, "Changes in the American Family," points out that there are only two or three tasks still "monopolized by one sex: Childbearing and sewing by the wife and the most arduous physical maintenance chores by the husband" (1963, p. 170). This

leaves a greater variety of possibilities to fit the individuals.

Moreover, in the United States there is a basic legal principle that gives women the right to these possibilities, the right to make a choice. We give the husband the primary responsibility for the support of his wife and family (I. L. O. , 1964, p. 20) and the wife the main responsibility for taking care of the home and children. However "the more it becomes possible for women to be good mothers and good workers too, the freer, all women become to choose their role" (Weingarten, 1961, p. 25).

A second reason why women work is the increased lifespan and its corresponding improvement in health. The woman in America is emancipated, again by technology--in medicine this time. Women have a new, unique gift of time and energy. Ginzberg (1966, p. 13) agrees that "potent factors such as improvements in the health of the population and in medical care have gone far to ease the disturbances previously associated with the menopause," thus giving more women the energy, vitality, and desire to enter into expanded activities after their families have grown. Banning (U. S. W. B. , 1960b, p. 58) sums it up nicely by saying, "today a woman is younger when she is older."

A third reason why more and more women are making the choice to work is the growing demand for women's services (U. S. W. B. , 1960a, p. 3). Increasing opportunities in new fields and more



flexible jobs are attracting women to the world of work. Closely allied with this increase in jobs for women is the increased opportunity for education. "The nationwide development of free education for both boys and girls and the gradual achievement of equal opportunities have encouraged women to prepare for and seek employment in ever-expanding occupational fields" (U. S. W. B. , 1960a, p. 3). The Women's Bureau points out that the great improvement in educational opportunities has equipped women for new and more expanded roles. In 1964, close to a million girls graduated from high school--73 percent of the 17 year-old girls in the nation (M. R. P. C. , 1965, p. 4). This percentage is more than ten times larger than it was at the turn of the century. The number of women attending college has increased at a similar rate. In 1900, three girls per hundred aged 18 to 21 years were in college; in 1963, the figure was 30 per hundred (M. R. P. C. , 1965, p. 4).

A fourth reason, the most basic one for men as well as women, is economic. The Women's Bureau questioned a group of women workers about why they were working. Most of them gave financial reasons. The unmarried women were supporting themselves and most of the married women were contributing to necessary living expenses. Some were helping to send their children to college or to raise family living standards. "Very few of the women were working just for the satisfaction of having a job or for the purpose of keeping

their skills from getting rusty" (U. S. W. B. , 1960a, p. 27).

The remaining reason women have for working is for self-fulfillment. This, it seems likely, enters into almost every decision to work or to continue to work, regardless of the reasons verbalized in a study such as that done by the Women's Bureau. Some other research tells us that housewives feel trapped. If they were given a choice, they would probably spend only half as much time with their children as they actually do. It also claims that, "except in the case of large families, employed mothers are more satisfied with the relationship with their children than are the nonemployed mothers" (M. R. P. C. , 1965, p. 21). Dr. Mary Bunting, President of Radcliffe College, substantiates this idea, "It may be that the degree to which a woman functions well in her home reflects the degree to which she is doing some important and satisfying things outside of the home" (U. S. W. B. , 1960b, p. 14).

Thus we can see that there is considerable controversy over women's role today, that the world of work has changed greatly, and that women, especially middle-aged women, are flocking into gainful employment in large numbers for varying reasons. In order to help continue these new trends toward more open choices for today's women, we must propagate "neither the dogma that mother's place is in the home, nor that the mother to be a happy, worthwhile person must throw off the shackles of domesticity" (Weingarten, 1961, p. i).

Mrs. Katherine Oettinger, head of the Children's Bureau in 1960, when questioned about the proper decision to make and its effect on children, choruses a refrain, "It depends"

. . . on the kind of mother, the kind of child, the kind of family. It depends, among other things, on why the woman works, how much she works, what she does, what her work does to or for her, how old her children are, what provisions she makes for them while she works, etc. (Weingarten, 1961, p. 1).

We must continue to keep all of these different channels open, so that each woman can decide for herself how she can best fulfill her needs and potentialities.

#### The Future of Today's High School Girl

How then, does the high school girl of today, fit into this overall picture? What will she probably be doing when she leaves school, and how well-prepared will she be for the role she will be assuming?

Mrs. Banning states,

That she will work in increasing numbers outside her home is beyond question. It is beyond volition. Vast numbers of women need to work for wages and salaries. The average girl who graduates from college will work outside her home for 25 years. Girls with lesser education may work far longer. This has become the pattern of a woman's life, . . . . (U.S.W.B., 1960b, p. 37).

Ellen Abbott says that eight out of ten women will be employed at some time in their lives--married women for approximately 23 years (1967, p. 58; Mead, 1965).

### Too Many Dropouts

However, in spite of this certainty that most women will work, too many young people are dropping out of school. The Women's Bureau predicts that in this decade we can "reasonably expect" seven and a half million of our students to leave school before they graduate; and of these, "one out of three will not have gotten even as far as high school" (U. S. W. B. , 1960b, p. 6). More girls than boys do graduate from high school, but this is where most girls quit. The freshmen classes in college always include a much larger number of men than of women (N. M. C. , 1957, p. 32).

These students who drop out, boys as well as girls, find it difficult to fit into the work-a-day-world. Young jobseekers find it difficult to find work due to inexperience and lack of training, among other things (U. S. D. L. , 1963, p. 9). This is especially true of those who have not finished school.

Youths who drop out of school change jobs more frequently, earn less, and are out of work longer than those who complete high school as shown by studies of the U. S. Office of Education and the U. S. Department of Labor (Labor Research Associates, 1963, p. 51).

Salaries were higher and unemployment was lower for those who finished school than for those who did not (U. S. W. B. , 1960a, p. 101). Statistics show that the amount and type of education that women receive, greatly influence a woman's occupational choice and her

opportunity for further job advancement (U.S.W.B., 1960a, p. 90).

Excerpts from the 1964 Manpower Report to the President shows that two thirds of those who are unemployed have not graduated from high school. "One out of every twelve workers with only elementary schooling is unemployed, compared with only one out of 70 college graduates (Excerpts. . . , 1964, p. 8).

Unemployment has reached crisis proportions among young people. The number looking for work is increasing faster than the number of jobs . . . . During the school months of 1962, an average of 700,000 young people aged 16 through 21 were out of school and out of work. In this age group, unemployment rates are about three times as high as in the adult population. These official figures, cited by President Kennedy in his Youth Message to Congress on February 14, 1963 were regarded as an underestimate (Labor Research Associates, 1963, p. 50).

The rate of unemployment for women was 6.2 percent in 1962, but only 5.3 percent for men during the same period. The number of unemployed women went from 642,000 in 1953 to 1,519,000 in 1962 (L.R.A., 1963, p. 42). Among teenagers, one teenager in six cannot find a job (Excerpts. . . , 1964, p. 8), and the number looking for work is increasing faster than the number of jobs.

#### Unskilled Jobs Are Lessening

One of the major reasons for this increase in unemployment, is the decreased number of unskilled jobs. The number of women's jobs in manufacturing fell by 400,000 between 1956 and July, 1961 in spite

of a 12 percent increase in factory production (L. R. A. , 1963, p. 42). The demand is greater in professional, technical, clerical, and service occupations, so the requirements for education and training are increasing steadily. There is an increased concentration of women in relatively less skilled, less rewarding, and less rewarded fields of work (M. R. P. C. , 1965, p. 7). "Yet nearly a million young people are leaving our educational system each year before completing even elementary or secondary school. Each year more than 100,000 high school graduates with high aptitudes and interest in college fail to continue their education. . . ." (Excerpts. . . , 1964, p. 7-8).

#### Even Graduates Find it Difficult

Even those young people who do graduate from high school, and even college, find it difficult to get jobs. They are increasingly "confronted on the one hand by the demand for experience, and on the other hand by the difficulty of obtaining it" (L. R. A. , 1963, p. 51). A survey in 1961 of those who had graduated from one Detroit high school in 1958 showed that 48 percent had been unable to find any kind of employment in the three years after they had graduated (L. R. A. , 1963, p. 51). It is difficult to tell how actively these youngsters were looking, and we do not know how well trained they were, but it does point out that there is a definite problem. We encourage students not

to drop out of high school, yet graduation is not necessarily a guarantee of finding a job. Evidently students often do not gain sufficient skills in high school to qualify them for available jobs.

The AFL-CIO noted that nearly a million youths between 16 and 21 who were in the market for jobs in 1962 were unable to find them. In addition, several hundred thousand more were not counted in the labor force because they were 'not even bothering to look for work because they had lost hope of finding jobs.' Many thousands of unemployed youths are first-job-seekers who have not worked before and therefore are not included in the official unemployment figures. For the same reason these youths are also ineligible for unemployment compensation (L. R. A., 1963, p. 50).

These facts contain implications for our future women workers. They will need to be better acquainted with the types of skills needed, so they can be better prepared to meet the demands of available jobs when they are looking for work. The Women's Bureau Handbook on Women Workers repeatedly emphasizes this:

Population growth is expected to provide sufficient numbers of persons to meet future labor requirements quantitatively. But the complex nature of many jobs will place the emphasis on the quality of the labor force. The demand will be greatest for those with the needed training and experience. Women's goal therefore, must be to develop their individual talents to the fullest extent possible (1960a, p. 6).

By doing this, today's young women will prepare themselves better to be able to make a wide variety of choices instead of limiting themselves to one narrow role.

### Are High School Girls Aware of This Future Role?

What concept do high school girls have of their role? Are they thinking about the future? Do girls consider work an important part of their lives? These are questions the writer set out to answer. There were many opinions and few facts. Taylor (1963, p. 676) comments, "I have met eight- and nine-year-olds who have a little public relations program working for them, who know how to get through society and have their eye on a two-car garage, a wife, and 2.4 children as they go through the fifth grade." If fifth-graders, in Taylor's opinion, are this conscious of what they plan to do in life, are teenaged girls as well?

### Work is Looked Upon as a Remote Possibility

Most authors and speakers feel that high school girls tend to look upon work as a remote possibility in their lives. A publication of the United States Women's Bureau (M. R. P. C. , 1965, p. 41) seems to indicate that many teenaged girls make future plans on the assumption that marriage will end permanently their participation in the labor force. For some of them, this will be true, but many women are now working for the reasons given in the preceding section. "It is doubtful that many of them have considered this factor as a reality which will affect their lives" (M. R. P. C. , 1965, p. 41). Older women, too,



are credited with a lack of preparation. Many women tend to "think of work as a temporary expedient not to be trained for--who drift in, but nevertheless stay for extended periods of time" (M. R. P. C. , 1965, p. 8). They do not seem to be aware that of those women who retire, the average number of years they have worked is an impressive 33 (M. R. P. C. , 1965, p. 8).

Some teenagers interviewed by Seventeen-at-School (Talk of Many Things, 1968, p. 3) had some interesting attitudes about work. For the most part, boys were more conservative about the role of women in work, but not always was this true. Erik, a 17-year-old senior and vice president of his school's chefs' club said in the interview, "I don't think the man should do any housework at all if he's working and his wife is home all day." He qualifies this, though, "If she's working, that's a different story. But I really think she shouldn't have to work if the man is fulfilling his role as supporter."

Carole, 16, answers him, "But if the wife does want to work, then why shouldn't she? And then I think they should share the household duties." Most of the girls interviewed shared Carole's more liberal attitude.

Beth, a junior and president of the Nurse's club, says,

I think it's important for men as well as women to learn all homemaking skills, because once you're married, I think you both should share the responsibility of running the household. It shouldn't be left up to the wife to do

all the housework--I think the husband should pitch in and help (1968, p. 3).

Judi, a senior and president of the chemistry club agrees, "I think a man can help out around the house and not diminish his image or role."

A junior boy doesn't seem to feel his role would be threatened because he says, "Well I think it's great for the husband and wife to do a lot of things together. If she's out in the kitchen washing dishes, I can't see why he can't go out there and help her dry them."

Anthony, though, puts a limit on this, "I don't think a man's homemaking responsibilities should ever get beyond the kitchen."

These young people show us that they are thinking, and do have some fairly liberal ideas of the woman's role today. However, these students were definitely middle or upper class in our society, active in at least five school organizations each, and obviously involved in what is going on today. It is doubtful that they were typical of the high school population as a whole.

The results of research studies seemed to show that perhaps girls are a little more conscious of their role than we might think. One of the two studies the writer was able to find was completed at Purdue University. It was concerned with what high school girls' aspirations were, and consisted of interviews of "thousands of girls selected by grade, mother's education, religion, family income,

and region to be representative of our nation's teens" (Beck, 1965, p. 48).

In the February, 1965, Today's Health, Joan Beck has reported a national study known as the Purdue Opinion Panel which was made up of interviews of teenagers from various grades in school. This study reported that only six percent of the girls said they intended to work permanently when they became adults. Fifteen percent said they were not planning to work at all. However, 62 percent wanted to remain employed only until they have children and 11 percent believed that it was a good idea to work only until they were "financially secure." But almost all, (93 percent) said they thought high school girls should be prepared to earn a living, even if they were planning to marry, and 78 percent of the boys agreed (Beck, 1965, p. 48).

The second study was made at Washington State University in 1968 by Walter Slocum, Rural Sociologist, and used students in rural areas as the respondents. He compared farm and non-farm groups of about 3,600 students. This study tells us little about urban groups, but he compiled separate statistics for the boys' and the girls' replies. We are interested in only the latter. It was interesting to note his report of the educational aspirations of these rural girls:

ASPIRATIONS	GIRLS (percent)
Graduate Work	19.2
Bachelor's Degree	24.2
Some College	23.5
High School Only	<u>33.1</u>
Total	100.0
Number	1605 (Slocum, 1968, p. 5)

About one third of these girls indicated that they wanted to go no further with their education than high school. We can also probably assume that all those who aspire to go to college may not necessarily achieve this aspiration. Slocum found, and his findings agree with previous studies, that

Girls tend to have higher school grades but they tend to have lower levels of educational and occupational aspirations and expectations than boys. In my opinion, the explanation for this is primarily cultural. I believe it is due to the expectation in contemporary American society that the man will be the main breadwinner, while the woman will give her main attention to the roles of wife-mother-homemaker.

It is true, of course, that most American women do work for pay at some time or other in their lives but, except for the small minority who make career commitments to professional occupations, paid work roles tend to be supplementary rather than primary (1968, p. 21-22).

He described a typical employment pattern outlined earlier in this paper of working until marriage and possibly after the children are grown.

Slocum felt that these "occupational expectations for females . . . are evidently communicated to girls at an early age. They are

reflected in the occupational preferences of girls. Girls almost exclusively select occupations considered suitable for women, and relatively few girls aspire to graduate work" (Slocum, 1968, p. 22).

### Most Girls Underestimate Their Potential

Literature also seems to indicate that women and girls undervalue themselves. A report by the State of Wisconsin to a Women's Bureau conference states that they "settle for below grade level performance and fail to approach their potential" (M. R. P. C. , 1965, p. 64). Because too little is expected of them, many girl graduates who are intellectually capable, do not enter college. Only about seven percent of all women who are 25 years of age or older, are college graduates (M. R. P. C. , 1965). "Both they as individuals and the nation as a society are thereby made losers" (Mead, 1965, p. 19).

Girls continue to choose "conventional" occupations, often on the basis of outdated occupational information because they feel they are only suited to those occupations that women traditionally hold. "We know little of what motivates them to do this. Some of this may be because these occupations are highly visible to them" (M. R. P. C. , 1965, p. 41), but we need to make more and more vocations visible and real to these young girls. James T. O'Connell, Under Secretary of Labor in 1960, felt that many of these girls are

an exceptionally bright species of today's woman, looking askance at a tomorrow's world full of waiting on tables, clerking behind a counter or watching an automated piece of machinery perform a ritual of productivity.

This is essentially unskilled work. We already have an excess of people who can perform this sort of work. We already have a shortage of the type of soundly educated, highly trained people which the ever-advancing industrial and economic machine demands (U. S. W. B. , 1960b, p. 6).

Still, these girls do not take steps to prepare themselves for anything other than these unskilled jobs. Many are not willing to prepare for jobs that require long periods of training, or will quit to raise families as soon as they have been trained. This makes employers less likely to hire them and also tends to keep them in those traditionally feminine jobs. For some reason, high school girls either are not aware of their probable future, or do not translate the information they have into suitable action.

To expect her to consider the use of her potentialities . . . is to present her with a concept of self-hood that is completely alien to a projected image which glorifies physical attributes and to her own image of her future role as wife and mother. . . .

Those who counsel girls are only too aware of how little impact information-giving or prediction of the future life patterns has on the process of decision-making of adolescent girls concerned with the immediate and, as they perceive it, terminal goal of marriage (M. R. P. C. , 1965, p. 72-73).

Large numbers of students graduate inadequately prepared for employment or for college. Evidently, girls do not expect to need any training for gainful employment.

### Older Women Have Not Planned Their Lives

A few years ago, when the women of today were in high school, they apparently did not plan ahead either. The National Manpower Council reports, "We know that women in their thirties and forties are re-entering the labor force in very large numbers, but this re-entry is not planned for by the women themselves, nor does it have the prior approval from the men they marry" (1957, p. 30). In the report, American Women (Mead, 1965, p. 33), many mothers surveyed stated that they were reluctant to seek work because they had not been trained for any position which would give them status equal to that which they had as middle class homemakers.

Bunting, at a Women's Bureau Conference, echoed this belief when she says,

. . . the competent woman can find the right sort of job--in time. But, I think what we have to face more and more, right now, is that not many women have planned their lives to be able to make full use of their potentialities--to find the kind of satisfactions they will want, to do the kind of service that they and society will want and need (1960b, p. 40).

Women need to look ahead, know what possibilities they will likely encounter, and plan to be able to meet some of them. One of the best places to start is in high school.

### CHAPTER III

#### ANALYSIS OF DATA

When the questionnaires were grouped and tabulated, the data were assembled into tables so that the information would be more visible. The first section of the questionnaire gave background information about the students, giving needed insight into some of their responses. This background information will be discussed in the first section of this chapter. The second section will deal with the respondents' answers to some questions about their future plans. The third section will be a discussion of the respondents' knowledge of some facts concerning women working today.

#### Background of the Respondents to the Questionnaire

##### Ages of the Respondents

Table A (Appendix B) shows the age distribution of the respondents. As would be expected, by far the largest number of girls, 379 or 74.6 percent were 15 years old. However, 76 (14.9 percent) were 16, 20 (4 percent) were 14, 12 (2.4 percent) were 17, and only one girl (0.2 percent) was 18 years of age. Twenty did not give their age.

The respondents were given the choice of giving or not giving their names on the questionnaires. In most of the cases (16 out of



the 20) where an age was not given, the name was also not given. So it was assumed that the girls just inadvertently skipped the whole first section of the questionnaire. Also, the teachers were instructed to administer the questionnaires only to sophomore girls. For these reasons, the 20 questionnaires were included in the study even though the girls' years in school could not be ascertained.

#### Grades in Which Respondents Took Homemaking

Table B, also located in Appendix B, shows the grades in which the sophomore respondents had previously taken homemaking. It gives those who took homemaking in the seventh grade only, in the ninth grade only, or in a combination of seventh and eighth, seventh and ninth, eighth and ninth, in all three grades of junior high school, or no previous homemaking. The figures for each of these categories are given in the table. Of these many figures, the most significant items to notice are the total number of students who were enrolled in homemaking for the first, second, third, or fourth years. Table 1 groups the data from Table B with that view.

It can be observed that 19 respondents (3.7 percent) were taking homemaking for the first time as sophomores. Two hundred fifty-four students (50 percent) were in their second year of homemaking. This included the four who took homemaking in the seventh grade only, the 51 in the eighth grade only, and the 199 in the ninth grade

only. Table 1 also shows that 111 girls were in their third year of homemaking; including those who took homemaking in the seventh and eighth grades (20 or 4 percent), the seventh and ninth grades (nine or 1.8 percent), and the eighth and ninth grades (82 or 16.2 percent). Those who were in the fourth year of homemaking were the 120 students who enrolled in all three grades of junior high school. They comprised 23.6 percent of the group or nearly one fourth of the girls, and would certainly be a challenge to the sophomore teacher.

Table 1. Year of Homemaking in Which Sophomore Respondents Are Now Enrolled.

Year of Homemaking	No. of Girls	Percent
First	19	3.7
Second	254	60.0
Third	111	21.9
Fourth	120	23.6
(No responses)	4	.8
Total	508	100.0

#### Family Size of the Respondents

Table C in Appendix B gives the numbers of brothers and sisters of the respondents. Over half (273 or 53.8 percent) of the sophomore girls came from families with one to three brothers and sisters or families of from two to four children (including the respondent). One hundred sixty-two of the respondents (31.9 percent) had

from four to six brothers and sisters, and 61 or 12 percent came from larger families of from seven to 12 brothers and sisters. Eleven (2.2 percent) of the girls were "only children," having no brothers or sisters and one respondent gave no answer to the question.

#### Education of Respondents' Fathers

The level of education of the fathers of each of the respondents is given, by schools, in Table 2.

Thirty-one of the fathers (6.1 percent) did not get beyond grade school with their education, and 78 or 15.4 percent went as far as junior high school. The high school graduates and those who completed some high school were the two largest groups of fathers, each being close to one fourth of the total. There were 129 or 25.4 percent who attended at least one year of high school and 143 (28.2 percent) who obtained a high school diploma. Twelve of the respondents had no father living at home and 20 failed to give an answer, for unknown reasons. The remaining fathers achieved differing amounts of education after leaving high school. Twenty-eight of the respondents' fathers (5.5 percent) attended a trade school or a school other than a college, 40 (7.9 percent) attended college, 16 (3.2 percent) graduated from college with a bachelor's degree, and 11 or 2.2 percent did some graduate work.

Table 2. Education of Respondents' Fathers.

Schools	Total	Levels of Education								No Father	No Answer
		Grade School	Jr. High	High School	H. S. Grad.	Trade School	College	Bachelor's Degree	Grad. Work		
1.	27	2	2	6	9	1	3	1	1	2	0
2.	18	3	2	7	2	1	1	0	0	1	1
3.	9	0	3	3	2	1	0	0	0	0	0
4.	30	0	2	9	12	0	1	3	1	2	0
5.	12	0	0	4	7	0	1	0	0	0	0
6.	25	0	7	9	7	1	0	0	0	0	1
7.	6	0	0	0	2	4	0	0	0	0	0
8.	13	0	3	2	6	0	1	0	0	0	1
9.	20	2	2	7	5	0	2	1	0	0	1
10.	24	5	3	7	3	2	1	0	0	2	1
11.	9	1	1	3	4	0	0	0	0	0	0
12.	15	1	4	2	5	0	1	0	1	0	1
13.	12	0	4	2	1	1	2	2	0	0	0
14.	39	4	3	7	10	3	7	0	3	1	1
15.	15	2	1	4	3	1	3	1	0	0	0
16.	18	1	2	3	4	3	2	1	2	0	0
17.	68	1	7	16	23	4	7	2	1	2	5
18.	20	0	6	3	7	2	2	0	0	0	0
19.	15	0	1	3	6	1	2	2	0	0	0
20.	31	0	7	8	7	2	2	1	1	1	2
21.	38	7	5	12	7	1	1	0	0	1	4
22.	20	1	8	7	4	0	0	0	0	0	0
23.	9	1	3	1	3	0	0	1	0	0	0
24.	15	0	2	4	4	0	1	1	1	0	2
Total	508	31	78	129	143	28	40	16	11	12	20
Percent	100	6.1	15.4	25.4	28.2	5.5	7.9	3.2	2.2	2.4	4.0

### Education of Respondents' Mothers

Table 3 gives the same information about the girls' mothers. Nineteen (3.7 percent) of the mothers left school in grade school. This was about two-thirds the number of fathers (31) who did not go on to high school. Forty-seven or 9.3 percent of the mothers went as far as junior high school, compared to 15.4 percent of the fathers. Of the 495 mothers, 154 or 30.3 percent attended high school (129 or 25.4 percent for fathers) and 187 or 36.8 percent (fathers, 143 or 28.2 percent) graduated from high school. Twenty-four (4.7 percent) of the mothers attended a trade school and 41 went to college--very close to the number of fathers (40). Again the figures vary little in comparing the number of college degrees. The fathers had 16 (3.2 percent) bachelor's degrees compared to 11 or 2.2 percent for the mothers, and 11 did graduate work while the figure for the mothers is 10 or 2 percent. Thirteen girls had no mothers and two gave no answer. The comparisons between the education of the mothers and fathers of the respondents may be more easily visualized by looking at Table 4.

### Occupations of the Respondents' Fathers and Mothers

Two tables which give some additional background information about the respondents are Tables 5 and 6. The occupations of the

Table 3. Education of Respondents' Mothers.

Schools	Total	Level of Education							No Mother	No Answer	
		Grade School	Jr. High	High School	H. S. Grad.	Trade School	College	Bachelor's Degree			Grad. Work
1.	27	1	0	6	14	3	2	0	1	0	0
2.	18	1	2	9	3	1	1	0	0	1	0
3.	9	0	0	4	3	0	2	0	0	0	0
4.	30	0	2	8	12	2	2	3	0	0	1
5.	12	0	1	3	2	2	4	0	0	0	0
6.	25	1	4	6	13	0	0	1	0	0	0
7.	6	0	0	0	2	3	1	0	0	0	0
8.	13	1	2	4	4	0	1	0	0	1	0
9.	20	1	3	6	8	1	0	1	0	0	0
10.	24	1	1	11	9	0	1	0	1	0	0
11.	9	0	1	4	3	0	0	0	1	0	0
12.	15	0	2	3	6	1	2	0	0	1	0
13.	12	0	4	2	2	0	2	2	0	0	0
14.	39	1	3	10	18	2	3	0	1	1	0
15.	15	0	0	7	3	1	4	0	0	0	0
16.	18	0	1	8	4	1	0	1	1	1	1
17.	68	2	7	22	29	2	3	1	1	1	0
18.	20	1	1	4	6	3	4	0	1	0	0
19.	15	1	1	2	5	0	1	2	2	1	0
20.	31	2	0	8	13	1	4	0	1	2	0
21.	38	2	7	15	10	0	1	0	0	3	0
22.	20	3	2	8	6	0	1	0	0	0	0
23.	9	0	1	0	7	0	1	0	0	0	0
24.	15	1	2	4	5	1	1	0	0	1	0
Total	508	19	47	154	187	24	41	11	10	13	2
Percent	100	3.7	9.3	30.3	36.8	4.7	8.1	2.2	2.0	2.6	0.4

girls' fathers and mothers are given according to the categories in the United States Department of Labor publication, Dictionary of Occupational Titles (U. S. D. L. , 1965, p. xvii). The categories are numbered and listed in the dictionary as follows:

- 0,1 Professional, Technical, and Managerial Occupations
- 2 Clerical and Sales Occupations
- 3 Service Occupations
- 4 Farming, Forestry, and Related Occupations
- 5 Processing Occupations
- 6 Machine Trade Occupations
- 7 Bench Work Occupations
- 8 Structural Occupations
- 9 Miscellaneous Occupations

These headings are used in Tables 5 and 6.

Table 4. Comparison of Education of Fathers and Mothers of Respondents.

Level of Education	Total Fathers	Total Mothers
Grade School	31	19
Junior High	78	47
High School	129	154
High School Graduate	143	187
Trade School	28	24
College	40	41
Bachelor's Degree	16	11
Graduate Work	11	10
No Parent	12	13
No Answer	20	2
Total	508	508

Table 5. Occupations of the Respondents' Fathers.

Schools	Total	Occupations									No Father	No Answer
		1 Professional, Technical, Managerial Occupations	2 Clerical & Sales Occupations	3 Service Occupations	4 Farming, Forestry & Related Occupations	5 Processing Occupations	6 Machine Trade Occupations	7 Bench Work Occupations	8 Structural Occupations	9 Miscellaneous Occupations		
1.	27	7	0	2	1	2	6	0	2	4	2	1
2.	18	2	0	1	2	0	4	2	0	4	2	1
3.	9	1	0	0	3	0	2	0	2	0	1	0
4.	30	6	6	2	2	0	5	0	0	6	2	1
5.	12	2	2	0	3	0	1	0	0	2	0	2
6.	25	2	1	1	3	0	5	1	5	5	0	2
7.	6	0	0	0	3	0	2	0	0	1	0	0
8.	13	0	1	2	6	0	3	1	0	0	0	0
9.	20	3	0	3	6	0	3	0	1	2	1	1
10.	24	1	1	2	5	0	5	0	3	2	3	2
11.	9	0	0	0	2	0	4	1	0	1	0	1
12.	15	1	0	0	4	0	3	0	2	2	0	3
13.	12	1	0	2	4	0	2	2	1	0	0	0
14.	39	9	2	2	2	0	13	0	5	5	1	0
15.	15	0	2	0	9	0	2	0	0	0	0	2
16.	18	3	0	2	0	0	7	0	2	2	0	2
17.	68	5	6	5	1	0	17	2	11	12	6	3
18.	20	3	1	0	8	0	4	0	1	3	0	0
19.	15	1	0	2	5	0	3	0	2	2	0	0
20.	31	1	2	2	7	0	6	1	4	4	1	3
21.	38	0	4	5	6	0	3	0	7	6	2	5
22.	20	2	1	0	2	0	10	0	1	3	0	1
23.	9	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	3	4	0	0
24.	15	2	0	1	0	2	0	0	4	3	0	3
Total	508	53	29	34	84	4	111	10	56	73	21	33
Percent	100	10.4	5.7	6.7	16.5	0.8	21.9	2.0	11.0	14.4	4.1	6.5



Occupations of the Respondents' Fathers. Table 5 shows the occupations of the 508 respondents' fathers. The largest group of fathers (21.9 percent) was employed in the machine trade occupations. For this sample, the 111 persons in machine trades included 74 men employed in "mill work" which was otherwise undescribed by the girls. It also included smaller groups of 20 mechanics, 11 millwrights, four railroad employees, and 18 miscellaneous machine trade occupations. The second largest number of fathers (84 or 16.5 percent), was employed in farming, forestry, and related occupations. This included 43 farmers, 40 loggers, a brand inspector, and a handyman. The number of loggers could quite possibly be higher if some of the truck drivers included in the miscellaneous category were added. Most likely in many of these small Oregon communities some of those listed as truck drivers would be log truck drivers.

Miscellaneous jobs took in 73 or 14.4 percent of the fathers, the third largest group in size. This included a wide variety of occupations such as truck, caterpillar, or bus drivers, unemployed and retired persons, laborers, students, self-employed persons, veterans, those in the armed forces, the disabled, and a trainsman.

The fathers employed in the professional occupations and in the structural occupations comprised about the same size groups; 53 in the former and 56 in the latter. The professional, technical, and managerial group (10.4 percent) included ten managers or

supervisors, eight teachers, six engineers, four ministers, three surveyors, two pharmacists, a meteorologist, a photographer, and 19 miscellaneous occupations. The fathers employed in structural occupations comprised 11 percent of the group and included 22 in miscellaneous construction work, nine carpenters, six welders, six electricians, three telephone repairmen, three well-drillers, two graders, a heating man, a plumber, and a roofer.

The service occupations were the next largest group. Thirty-four or 6.7 percent of the fathers were in this category which included 28 general services such as mailmen, policemen, garbage men, custodians and barbers; two cooks, two bartenders, a bailiff, and a parks attendant. The fathers in clerical and sales positions numbered 29 (5.7 percent). Their positions were so similar that they didn't lend themselves to dividing into categories. The jobs included store, postal, and railroad clerks, salesmen, a bookkeeper, and a tallyman.

The smallest groups, processing and bench work occupations represented quite small percentages of the fathers. The four fathers (.8 percent) in processing occupations included a meat inspector, two meat wrappers, and a glass blower. The bench work occupations (there were ten or 2 percent) included five television repairmen, a jeweler, a sign man, and three miscellaneous occupations. Twenty-one of the girls had no fathers and 33 gave no occupation for their fathers.

Table 6. Occupations of Respondents' Mothers.

Schools	Total	House- wife	1 Prof. - Tech.	2 Clerical- Sales	3 Service	4 Farm	5 Proces- sing	6 Miscal- laneous	No Answer
1.	27	15	1	5	3	0	2	1	0
2.	18	12	1	1	3	0	0	0	1
3.	9	5	0	1	3	0	0	0	0
4.	30	16	2	10	2	0	0	0	0
5.	12	4	1	3	4	0	0	0	0
6.	25	12	3	1	6	0	3	0	0
7.	6	3	2	0	1	0	0	0	0
8.	13	10	2	0	0	0	0	0	1
9.	20	9	0	4	1	0	1	1	4
10.	24	12	0	5	5	0	0	0	2
11.	9	8	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
12.	15	7	1	3	1	2	1	0	1
13.	12	4	3	0	2	0	3	0	0
14.	39	18	6	6	5	0	3	0	1
15.	15	10	1	3	1	0	0	0	0
16.	18	10	3	3	1	0	0	0	1
17.	68	36	5	12	12	0	0	0	3
18.	20	15	1	2	1	0	1	0	0
19.	15	7	0	2	2	0	4	0	0
20.	31	17	3	6	4	0	0	1	0
21.	38	28	3	0	5	0	0	2	0
22.	20	14	0	4	1	0	0	0	1
23.	9	6	0	0	3	0	0	0	0
24.	15	4	1	3	3	0	3	0	1
Total	508	282	40	74	69	2	20	5	16
Percent	100	55.5	7.9	14.6	13.6	0.4	3.9	1.0	3.2

Occupations of the Respondents' Mothers. Table 6 gives the occupations of the respondents' mothers according to the same classifications from the Dictionary of Occupational Titles. However, an additional category, housewife was added and no mothers fell into three of the classifications: Number 6, machine trades; Number 7, bench work; and Number 8, structural occupations. In our culture, these tend to be masculine occupations and they were omitted from Table 6.

Predictably, more than half of the mothers were housewives. Two hundred eighty-two of the 508 mothers (55.5 percent) were not employed outside the home. Also not surprising is the fact that the largest group of employed mothers was in the clerical and sales occupations (74 or 14.6 percent). The breakdown of these jobs included 40 general clerical workers, 22 secretaries, seven bookkeepers, two demonstrators, two telephone operators, and a key-punch operator.

The second category, service occupations, included 69 mothers (13.6 percent) nearly as large a group as the first. These jobs included 20 waitresses, 18 cooks, eight general workers, five bartenders, five beauticians, four motel maids, three laundry workers, three babysitters, two dishwashers, and a cafe owner.

Forty (7.9 percent) of the mothers were employed in professional, technical, or managerial occupations. Some of these were

teachers (18), nurses (17), supervisors (three), librarians (two), and a florist. The next group in size was 20 (3.9 percent) processing workers. This category included mostly cannery and factory workers, but also included an inspector, an egg processor and a meat wrapper. The only remaining category listed the two farm workers. In addition five mothers were in the miscellaneous category. This one percent involved a painter and two bus drivers plus two other workers. Sixteen girls (3.2 percent) gave no occupation for their mother. In most cases this could be interpreted as having no mother at home, because of other questions on the questionnaire, but in a few cases it could also mean that the respondents' mother was a housewife. It was difficult to determine.

In Table 7, the total number of mothers and fathers in each occupational category is compared. It is interesting to note the differences. The outstanding comparison noted in Table 7 is the extreme difference between the number of women and the number of men employed in the same type of jobs. In nearly every case there were more men than women in each category, but this was mainly due to the fact that no men were housewives and very few were unemployed, leaving more men to each occupation. Yet there were three categories in which the women far exceeded the men: clerical, service, and processing; in most cases quite unskilled jobs. This sheds an interesting light on the kind of jobs women take, are

qualified for, or the kind of jobs that are available to women.

Table 7. Comparison of Fathers' and Mothers' Occupations.

	Total Fathers	Total Mothers
Housewife	--	282
1. Professional	53	40
2. Clerical	29	74
3. Service	34	69
4. Farm, Forestry	84	2
5. Processing	4	20
6. Machine Trades	111	0
7. Bench Work	10	0
8. Structural	56	0
9. Miscellaneous	73	5
No Father	21	--
No Answer	33	16
Total	508	508

Sixty-six of the respondents reported that their mothers worked part time. The types of jobs that lent themselves to part-time work are interesting. Table 8 lists the part-time jobs that the mothers in this group chose. Some of these were part-time year-round, but others (cannery, farm, etc.) were seasonally full time.

Educational and Occupational Aspirations  
of the 508 Respondents

Educational Plans of Respondents

In the second section of the questionnaire, "What Will I Do?", the students were asked to tell what their educational and occupational

Table 8. Part-time Occupations of the Respondents' Mothers.

Jobs	Number of Mothers	Jobs	Number of Mothers
Clerk	9	Avon Lady	2
Waitress	7	Beautician	2
Cook	6	Meat Wrapper	2
Teacher	5	Housekeeper	2
Secretary	4	Librarian	1
Cannery Worker	4	Bus Driver	1
Nurse, Aide	4	Dish Washer	1
Babysitting	4	Bartender	1
Maid	3	Demonstrator	1
Packer	3	Bookkeeper	1
Farm Worker	2	Custodian	1
		Total Part-time Workers	66

plans were. The responses to the first question about schooling are charted in Table 9. As the table illustrates, the greatest number of respondents (159 or 31.3 percent) indicated they planned to graduate from high school. Only nine students (1.8 percent) planned to leave school before graduating, a figure which is encouraging but quite a bit lower than the average. The United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare (1967, p. 32) records that 75 out of every 100 17 year-olds in the country (boys as well as girls) graduated from high school in 1966. This leaves 25 percent who "dropped out," a much larger figure than that of the girls in this study. This illustrates the limited application of the study to only these specific girls at the specific time of the study.

Two students (0.4 percent) planned to marry upon graduation, seven (1.4 percent) planned to enter the armed services, 43 or 8.5 percent did not know what they wanted to do, and one (0.2 percent) gave no answer. The remaining respondents (287) planned to continue their education beyond high school in some manner. Eighty-nine (17.5 percent) expected to go to college, 64 (12.6 percent) planned to graduate from college, and seven (1.4 percent) planned to go on to do graduate work. Thirty-four (6.7 percent) wanted to go to a community college and 93 (18.3 percent) girls planned to attend a trade school (business, beauty, airline stewardess and other schools).



Table 9. Educational Plans of Respondents.

Schools	Total	Expected Levels of Education										
		Drop Out	Grad. H. S.	Go to College	Grad. College	Commun. College	Grad. Work	Trade School	Don't Know	Other Marry	Other Service	No Answer
1.	27	0	6	9	3	2	0	7	0	0	0	0
2.	18	1	9	0	2	2	0	1	3	0	0	0
3.	9	0	2	1	1	0	0	2	1	0	2	0
4.	30	1	7	8	5	0	1	5	3	0	0	0
5.	12	0	1	2	2	0	0	5	1	0	1	0
6.	25	0	9	1	5	1	0	7	1	0	1	0
7.	6	0	1	0	2	0	0	2	0	0	0	1
8.	13	0	4	4	1	2	0	1	1	0	0	0
9.	20	0	3	6	6	1	0	2	2	0	0	0
10.	24	0	12	4	0	2	0	4	2	0	0	0
11.	9	0	2	3	0	2	0	1	1	0	0	0
12.	15	1	4	5	0	0	0	2	0	2	1	0
13.	12	0	4	2	3	0	0	3	0	0	0	0
14.	39	1	11	8	4	4	0	8	3	0	0	0
15.	15	0	5	1	3	0	1	4	1	0	0	0
16.	18	1	8	1	5	0	0	2	0	0	1	0
17.	68	3	23	12	12	1	1	8	8	0	0	0
18.	20	0	7	3	1	1	0	5	3	0	0	0
19.	15	0	1	3	5	2	2	2	0	0	0	0
20.	31	0	8	3	0	10	1	4	5	0	0	0
21.	38	1	15	6	1	1	0	10	4	0	0	0
22.	20	0	9	2	0	1	0	4	3	0	1	0
23.	9	0	1	2	1	1	0	4	0	0	0	0
24.	15	0	7	3	2	1	1	0	1	0	0	0
Total	508	9	159	89	64	34	7	93	43	2	7	1
Percent	100	1.8	31.3	17.5	12.6	6.7	1.4	18.3	8.5	0.4	1.4	0.2

Educational Aspirations of Respondents Compared to the  
Education of the Respondents' Mothers

Table 10 shows that 325 (63.9 percent) of the respondents, by far the largest number, aspired to a level of education higher than that their mother achieved. This is commendable and predictable, but it has to be remembered that these were the aspirations, not the actual levels of education that the respondents will eventually achieve. It would be interesting to show the actual disparity between the levels aspired to by the individual daughters and achieved by the mothers. It would be complicated to chart this multiplicity of variations, but in the majority of cases, the daughter aspired to one level higher than the mother. If the mother did not graduate from high school, the daughter planned to; if the mother went to business school, the daughter wanted to go to college; etc. This was not always true, but it seemed to be the prevalent pattern.

Eighty-nine (17.5 percent) of the respondents aspired to the same level of education, and only 39 (7.7 percent) of the girls aspired to a level of education lower than their mother achieved. These latter responses were the most interesting and unexpected. Some were extreme differences such as the girl whose mother did graduate work but who wanted to leave school before she graduated and join the service. However, these were exceptions and not typical of the group as a whole.

Table 10. Educational Aspirations of Respondents Compared to the Education of the Respondents' Mothers.

School	Total	Levels of Aspiration			Don't Know	No Answer
		Aspire to Lower Level Than Mother Achieved	Aspire to Same Level as Mother	Aspire to Higher Level Than Mother		
1.	27	2	6	19	0	0
2.	18	0	4	10	3	1
3.	9	1	2	5	1	0
4.	30	3	5	18	3	1
5.	12	1	3	7	1	0
6.	25	1	4	19	1	0
7.	6	0	1	4	0	1
8.	13	0	2	9	1	1
9.	20	0	3	15	2	0
10.	24	1	5	16	2	0
11.	9	1	0	7	1	0
12.	15	4	3	7	0	1
13.	12	1	3	8	0	0
14.	39	3	8	24	3	1
15.	15	3	2	9	1	0
16.	18	3	3	10	0	2
17.	68	5	12	43	8	0
18.	20	5	2	10	3	0
19.	15	2	2	11	0	0
20.	31	3	5	17	4	2
21.	38	0	4	28	4	2
22.	20	0	5	12	3	0
23.	9	0	2	7	0	0
24.	15	0	3	10	1	1
Total	508	39	89	325	42	13
Percent	100	7.7	17.5	63.9	8.3	2.6

### Future Plans of Respondents

The second question of this section asked the respondents if they felt it necessary to prepare themselves "to be a good homemaker," "to be able to earn a living," or to do both. The majority of respondents selected the combination choice "to be a good homemaker and be able to earn a living." Of the 508 girls, 398 or 78.4 percent chose this answer. As shown in Table 11, nearly equal numbers of students made the other two selections. Fifty-one (10.0 percent) felt they needed to prepare to be able to earn a living only. Fifty-four (10.6 percent) felt they needed to be prepared to be homemakers only, yet made some interesting responses about planning to work for quite a few years of their lives. Evidently they felt it unnecessary to do any preparation for this work. This may explain in part, the large percentage of women employed in the service, clerical, and processing occupations (See Table 7).

### Employment Plans of Respondents

Table 12 charts the 508 respondents' choices of when they would probably work during their lives. Interestingly, only two girls felt they would "never work," but 57 (11.2 percent) planned to marry and not work. So these 59 girls were the only ones who had no place for a job in their lives. This is fairly close to the number (54) in

Table 11. Future Plans of Respondents.

Schools	Total	Aspirations			No Answer
		Be a Good Homemaker	Be a Good Homemaker and Prepare to Earn a Living	Be Able to Earn a Living	
1.	27	3	21	3	0
2.	18	2	16	0	0
3.	9	1	8	0	0
4.	30	3	23	4	0
5.	12	0	12	0	0
6.	25	4	19	2	0
7.	6	0	6	0	0
8.	13	2	9	2	0
9.	20	1	18	1	0
10.	24	6	17	1	0
11.	9	0	8	1	0
12.	15	1	11	2	1
13.	12	1	8	2	1
14.	39	1	35	3	0
15.	15	1	12	2	0
16.	18	4	13	1	0
17.	68	8	52	7	1
18.	20	2	12	4	2
19.	15	0	14	1	0
20.	31	2	26	3	0
21.	38	5	27	6	0
22.	20	4	12	4	0
23.	9	1	7	1	0
24.	15	2	12	1	0
Total	508	54	398	51	5
Percent	100	10.6	78.4	10.0	1.0

Table 12. Employment Plans of Respondents.

Schools	Total	Never Work	Work until Married	Work until Retired	Marry, Not Work	Marry, Work	Marry, Work until Children	Marry, Work After Children are in School	Marry, Work After Children are Grown	Marry, Work Part time	Work, Not Marry	Don't Know	No Answer
1.	27	0	6	1	0	3	10	1	0	1	0	5	0
2.	18	0	4	0	1	2	5	0	0	0	0	6	0
3.	9	0	3	0	0	0	1	0	0	2	1	2	0
4.	30	0	5	0	1	2	9	1	0	4	0	8	0
5.	12	0	0	0	0	0	9	0	0	3	0	0	0
6.	25	0	6	0	1	3	2	4	2	3	3	1	0
7.	6	0	2	0	0	0	3	0	0	1	0	0	0
8.	13	0	2	0	0	1	7	0	0	2	0	1	0
9.	20	0	6	0	3	0	3	2	2	1	1	2	0
10.	24	1	5	0	2	4	6	0	0	1	0	5	0
11.	9	0	3	0	0	1	2	0	1	1	0	2	0
12.	15	0	0	0	1	6	3	0	0	1	0	4	0
13.	12	0	2	0	0	1	6	0	0	2	0	1	0
14.	39	0	12	0	0	3	7	3	0	9	1	3	0
15.	15	0	2	0	0	3	3	1	0	4	0	2	0
16.	18	0	3	0	1	1	2	3	0	4	0	4	0
17.	68	1	14	1	5	10	17	5	0	6	2	6	1
18.	20	0	8	0	1	2	3	1	1	1	0	3	0
19.	15	0	4	0	0	2	3	1	0	4	0	1	0
20.	31	0	3	0	1	5	6	6	0	2	0	8	0
21.	38	0	8	1	1	4	15	1	0	2	1	5	0
22.	20	0	8	1	2	0	4	0	0	2	2	1	0
23.	9	0	1	0	1	0	2	0	0	1	1	3	0
24.	15	0	2	0	1	4	4	0	0	1	1	2	0
Total	508	2	109	4	22	57	132	29	6	58	13	75	1
Percent	100	0.4	21.4	0.8	4.3	11.2	26.0	5.7	1.2	11.4	2.6	14.8	0.2

Table 11 who felt it unnecessary to prepare themselves to earn a living. However, it was only about one third of the number (168) in Table 9 who planned to either drop out of high school or to go no farther in their education than high school graduation. This seems to indicate a need for the development of some salable skill or some job abilities during high school.

The number of respondents who indicated they would probably be working all of their lives was smaller than the number who planned never to work. Only four (.8 percent) girls said they would "work until 62 or 65." Yet those who planned to "marry and work" (22 or 4.3 percent) and those who planned to "work and not marry" (13 or 2.6 percent) could also be considered in this category. They evidently planned to work most of their lives.

Seventy-five or 14.8 percent of the girls did not know what they would be doing and one girl did not check a response at all. The remaining respondents, 334 in all, predicted they would be working for varying intervals and varying amounts of time in their life cycles. One hundred nine (21.4 percent) said they would work until married, and 132 (26 percent) planned to marry and work until they had children. Twenty-nine (5.7 percent) respondents answered that they would marry and work after their children were in school and six (1.2 percent) planned to work after their children were grown. Fifty-eight students (11.4 percent) said they would probably marry

and work part time. These young women seemed to be aware of the increasing possibilities for combining marriage and a career. Sixty-nine of their mothers worked part time and fifty-eight of the girls planned to. Even though the number of girls who planned to work part time was smaller, many of them planned to work part time in the sense of working before, after and in between children. Some of the replies were a little more complicated than indicated in the table. Of those who said that they would work until married, five also indicated they would work after marriage until they had children; three also answered "work after children are grown." Three answered, "work after children are in school," and two gave both of these last choices in addition to the second one.

Of those who said they would "marry and work until I have children," 12 of the 132 gave a second response indicating they also planned to work after the children were in school. Nine said they would work again after their children were grown. These multiple answers allowed the respondents to indicate a break in their work life to have children and rear them for a few years.

#### Reasons Respondents Would Take a Job

Table 13 shows 11 predominant reasons women might take a job. On this question, the students were allowed to give as many responses as they felt appropriate, so there were a total of 1193



Table 13. Reasons Respondents Would Take a Job.

Schools	Total Respondents	Total Responses*	Reasons													No Answer
			Need the money	Husband Died	Never Married	Enjoy Working	Divorced	Husband Injured	Family's Feelings	Something To Do	Children Are Grown	Country Needs Workers	Save for Specific Goal	Other		
1.	27	66	15	6	4	8	3	7	1	8	5	1	6	1	1	
2.	18	68	15	9	7	6	5	8	0	7	5	1	5	0	0	
3.	9	22	4	2	1	4	2	3	0	4	0	0	2	0	0	
4.	30	38	11	0	0	11	0	2	0	5	0	0	5	1	3	
5.	12	56	11	11	5	6	8	8	0	2	1	1	3	0	0	
6.	25	46	9	4	3	9	4	5	0	5	1	1	4	0	0	
7.	6	18	5	3	0	2	1	3	0	2	1	0	1	1	0	
8.	13	21	8	2	0	3	1	0	0	3	0	0	4	0	0	
9.	20	25	10	1	0	5	0	1	0	2	0	0	5	1	0	
10.	24	35	15	2	2	5	1	5	1	1	0	1	2	0	0	
11.	9	19	7	0	0	4	0	1	0	3	0	0	4	0	0	
12.	15	27	7	2	0	5	1	3	0	2	0	1	5	1	0	
13.	12	30	6	1	2	5	1	3	1	2	0	0	9	0	0	
14.	39	102	23	11	3	18	5	10	0	17	4	1	8	1	1	
15.	15	42	12	5	4	11	0	3	0	2	1	0	4	0	0	
16.	18	43	10	8	2	6	2	6	0	4	2	1	2	0	0	
17.	68	189	39	16	16	23	5	20	0	31	8	11	20	0	0	
18.	20	53	11	7	4	4	3	10	1	4	1	0	7	0	1	
19.	15	77	12	10	8	8	5	9	0	6	4	5	10	0	0	
20.	31	70	22	7	3	8	2	6	3	7	4	3	4	1	0	
21.	38	74	19	4	5	19	4	4	0	10	1	1	7	0	0	
22.	20	23	4	0	2	4	0	0	1	2	0	0	8	0	2	
23.	9	17	4	1	4	1	2	2	2	0	0	1	0	0	0	
24.	15	32	5	2	1	8	1	1	3	4	1	1	5	0	0	
Total	508	1193	284	114	76	183	56	120	13	133	39	30	130	7	8	
Percent	100		23.8	9.6	6.4	15.3	4.7	10.0	1.1	11.2	3.3	2.5	10.9	.6	.7	

\* Multiple responses permitted.

answers given by the 508 respondents. The percentages represent the total number of answers, not the total number of respondents. Two hundred eighty-four of the 508 respondents gave as their main reason for taking a job, the very practical one of needing money. In contrast, only 13 (1.1 percent) of the respondents said they would take a job because of the feelings of other family members, such as the husband or children. One hundred eighty-three said they would take a job because they "enjoy working" and 133 would work for "something to do."

It is interesting to note that the more practical situations, where women find themselves having to work, were not selected as possibilities by very many of the respondents. Even though only 114 girls said they would work if their husband died, 76 if they never married, 56 if they were divorced, and 120 if their husband was injured; in most cases the girls would have to work unless very well-protected financially. The respondents did not seem to have a very realistic outlook in this case.

#### Respondents' Views of Selves at Age 30

The 508 respondents were asked to check one of five choices to complete the sentence, "At age 30 I see myself as . . . ," and the majority (313 or 61.6 percent) answered "married with children and keeping a home." Table 14 shows this and the other responses. It

Table 14. Respondents' Views of Selves at Age 30.

Schools	Total	Respondents' Expectations					No Answer
		Working, Keeping Home for Self	Married, No Children Home	Married, No Children, Working	Married, Children Home	Married, Have Children, Working	
1.	27	0	1	0	18	7	1
2.	18	1	0	0	16	1	0
3.	9	3	0	1	4	1	0
4.	30	1	0	0	19	10	0
5.	12	0	0	0	9	3	0
6.	25	2	0	0	17	4	2
7.	6	0	0	0	5	1	0
8.	13	0	0	0	11	2	0
9.	20	1	1	0	9	9	0
10.	24	3	0	0	15	6	0
11.	9	0	0	1	6	2	0
12.	15	0	0	2	9	3	1
13.	12	1	0	0	7	4	0
14.	39	3	0	0	23	13	0
15.	15	0	0	0	10	5	0
16.	18	2	0	0	12	4	0
17.	68	4	4	0	40	19	1
18.	20	0	1	2	14	3	0
19.	15	1	0	0	7	6	1
20.	31	4	3	2	9	12	1
21.	38	2	1	2	27	5	1
22.	20	3	1	0	12	4	0
23.	9	2	0	0	5	2	0
24.	15	1	2	2	9	1	0
Total	508	34	14	12	313	127	8
Percent	100	6.7	2.8	2.4	61.6	25.0	1.6

could be expected that more respondents would give this answer than any other, but the responses in Table 12 "Employment Plans of Respondents" do not quite agree. That table shows a total of 265 who indicated they would not be working after they had children, as compared to the 313 on Table 14 who said they would be home with their children at age 30. However, there are 29 who planned to work again after their children were in school and nine who wanted to work after their children were grown. These women might be home with their children at age 30, so this would total 303 on Table 12 compared to 313 on Table 14--a discrepancy of only ten.

In contrast to this, quite a large number, 127 (25 percent), planned to be married, with children, and working. Of these, 33 (26 percent) would work full time and 86 (67.7 percent) indicated part-time work plans. Eight or 6.3 percent checked neither full time nor part time. The remaining respondents expected never to marry or to have no children if they did marry. Thirty-four (6.7 percent) planned to be working and keeping a home for themselves at 30--an interestingly larger number than had been expected. Fourteen of the respondents (2.8 percent) planned to have no children when they married and to stay home and keep house for their husbands. An additional 12 (2.4 percent) planned to marry and have no children, but to work.

One of the purposes of the study was to find out if sophomore girls (a) see themselves in the future as mainly wives and mothers

and, (b) if they do plan to marry, do they reject working as a part of their life pattern? The answer to these questions appears to be "yes" and "no." In reply to the first part of the question, the girls did appear to view themselves as mainly wives and mothers. In Table 14, "Respondents' Views of Selves at Age 30," only 34 or 6.7 percent see themselves working and keeping a home for themselves at age 30. Twenty-six (5.2 percent) planned not to have children, so they do not appear to view themselves as wives and mothers. Table 12 shows that 13 did not plan to marry. The remaining respondents expected to marry and have children. However, many of these also included work in their lives; some giving it a full-time role. Thirty-three planned to work full time while they had children (Table 14). Table 12 shows 57 (11.2 percent) respondents planned to marry and work (presumably from then on) and four planned to work until they retired, with no mention of marriage. These 61 respondents can also be excluded from those who see themselves as being mainly wives and mothers.

The second part of the question asks, "if they plan to marry, do they reject working as a part of their life pattern?" Again, Tables 12 and 14 point out that the respondents definitely included work as a possibility. As previously discussed, only two of the respondents felt they would never work, and only 22 answered "marry, and not work." The remaining students gave various combinations of working before and after marriage, and before, after, and during their childbearing years, so work appeared to be a very real part of their life plan.

### Respondents' Plans after Children Are Grown

Indicated in Table 15 are the respondents' expectations for the time after their children are grown. Of course, some of the respondents did not plan to have children and could be expected to give no answer to this question. However, not nearly as many gave no answer (only 21 or 4.1 percent) as planned not to have children. This is an interesting answer to contemplate. Either the respondents were not serious (or unsure) about having no children or they presumed this was a hypothetical question asking if they did have children, what would they do after the children were grown.

The largest number of respondents (214 or 42.1 percent) selected the third choice of working part time after their children were grown. This seemed to be the most appealing possibility to these sophomore girls. Nearly as many (193 or 38 percent) expected to keep a home full time. Eighty, a much smaller percentage (15.8 percent) planned to work full time. This is interesting considering that 144 of their mothers (see Table 8) worked full time.

### Respondents' Preference for Their Mothers' Work-life

The 508 respondents were given seven choices to end the statement, "I would prefer my mother to . . .," and the answers are recorded in Table 16. The total number of students who wanted their

Table 15. Respondents' Plans After Children Are Grown.

Schools	Total	Keeping a Home Full Time	Working Full Time	Working Part Time	No Answer
1.	27	2	3	21	1
2.	18	9	3	5	1
3.	9	5	0	3	1
4.	30	7	3	18	2
5.	12	6	2	4	0
6.	25	10	5	7	3
7.	6	1	1	4	0
8.	13	9	1	3	0
9.	20	8	4	7	1
10.	24	11	2	11	0
11.	9	3	0	6	0
12.	15	11	2	2	0
13.	12	4	4	4	0
14.	39	12	9	18	0
15.	15	5	2	7	1
16.	18	8	3	7	0
17.	68	30	11	25	2
18.	20	13	0	6	1
19.	15	4	2	9	0
20.	31	6	11	11	3
21.	38	12	8	17	1
22.	20	11	2	6	1
23.	9	0	0	7	2
24.	15	6	2	6	1
Total	508	193	80	214	21
Percent	100	38.0	15.8	42.1	4.1

Table 16. Respondents' Preference for Their Mothers' Work-life.

Schools	Total	"I Would Prefer My Mother To . . ."							No Answer
		Keep a Home & She Does	Keep a Home & Doesn't	Work Full Time & She Does	Work Full Time & Doesn't	Work Part Time & Does	Work Part Time & She Works Full	Work Part Time & Keeps Home	
1.	27	8	5	1	2	2	3	5	1
2.	18	9	1	1	2	0	3	2	0
3.	9	4	1	0	0	1	1	2	0
4.	30	11	4	6	0	2	1	4	2
5.	12	2	3	1	0	2	2	2	0
6.	25	5	6	1	1	1	5	6	0
7.	6	1	0	0	0	3	0	2	0
8.	13	11	1	0	0	0	1	0	0
9.	20	6	2	3	1	1	0	6	1
10.	24	4	4	1	3	2	2	8	0
11.	9	5	1	0	0	0	3	0	0
12.	15	5	3	0	0	2	1	2	2
13.	12	1	4	1	1	3	0	2	0
14.	39	13	0	2	2	4	13	3	2
15.	15	7	6	0	1	1	0	0	0
16.	18	6	5	1	0	1	1	2	2
17.	68	24	9	4	6	5	9	7	4
18.	20	12	2	1	0	0	2	3	0
19.	15	6	4	1	0	0	3	1	0
20.	31	11	3	4	2	3	5	3	0
21.	38	20	7	0	0	2	4	3	2
22.	20	11	2	1	1	1	1	3	0
23.	9	5	2	0	1	0	0	1	0
24.	15	2	6	1	2	1	1	2	0
Total	508	189	81	30	25	37	61	69	16
Percent	100	37.2	15.9	5.9	4.9	7.3	12.0	13.6	3.2



mothers to keep a home full time was 270 (53.2 percent), quite reassuring to mothers about their value and importance in the home. One hundred eighty-nine (37.2 percent) of the mothers did keep a home full time, whereas 81 (15.9 percent) worked either full or part time; but both groups wished their mothers were full-time homemakers. A total of 55 (10.8 percent) preferred their mothers to work full time. Of these, 25 (4.9 percent) did not work full time.

One hundred sixty-seven (32.9 percent) respondents preferred their mothers to work part time. Of these, 37 (7.3 percent) of the mothers did work part time, 61 (12 percent) worked full time, and 69 (13.6 percent) were housewives with no outside employment.

Comparison of Respondents' Preferences for Their Mothers' Work-life with What They Themselves Plan to Do at Age 30 and After Their Children Are Grown

In Table 17 the three major headings show whether the respondents preferred their mothers to be homemakers full time or to work full time or part time. Of those who preferred their mothers to be full-time homemakers, 205 (40.4 percent) planned to be homemakers themselves at age 30 (after their children are grown, 122 planned to be homemakers). Twenty-five or 4.9 percent (30, 5.7 percent, after children grown) expected to work full time when they are 30 years of age, and 40, or 7.9 percent (115, 22.7 percent) planned to work part time. In this group then, the greatest number planned to do what they

Table 17. Comparison of Respondents' Preferences for Their Mothers' Work-life with What They Themselves Plan to Do at Age 30 and After Their Children Are Grown.

Respondents' Preferences and Plans	Respondents' Plans For Age 30		Respondents' Plans for After Children Are Grown	
<u>Prefer Mothers to Keep a Home</u>	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Daughter Plans to:				
Keep a Home	205	40.4	122	24.0
Work Full Time	25	4.9	30	5.9
Work Part Time	40	7.9	115	22.7
 <u>Prefer Mothers to Work Full Time</u>				
Daughter Plans to:				
Keep a Home	26	5.1	13	2.6
Work Full Time	19	3.7	21	4.1
Work Part Time	11	2.2	18	3.5
 <u>Prefer Mothers to Work Part Time</u>				
Daughter Plans to:				
Keep a Home	95	18.7	51	10.0
Work Full Time	27	5.3	30	5.9
Work Part Time	42	8.3	78	15.4
No Answer	18	3.5	30	5.9
Total	508	100	508	100

preferred their mothers to do.

Of the 56 respondents who preferred their mothers to work full time, 26 (5.1 percent) expected to be homemakers at age 30 (13 or 2.6 percent after children grown); 19 or 3.7 percent planned to work full time themselves (21, 4.1 percent after children grown), and 11 (2.2 percent) expected to work part time (18, 3.5 percent after children grown). It is interesting to note that most girls in this group planned to be at home at age 30 (though less after children are grown), when they would prefer their mothers to work full time. On the surface this seemed contradictory, but there could have been many reasons for this. The mother may have been working full time and been happy doing it, so the daughter preferred her to; or the mother may have had to work due to divorce, separation, disablement of husband, etc., and the daughter may understandably have hoped to have a different situation; or the respondent may not have gotten along with her mother and wanted to have her away from home more often. Certainly there were many more reasons, but in this and all three sections, it seemed odd that more respondents did not consider their preference as a daughter and plan to do the same thing they would have preferred their mothers to do.

Of the 87 respondents who preferred their mothers to work part time, 42 or 8.3 percent planned to do the same (78 or 15.4 percent after children are grown). Again, the largest number, 95 or 18.7

percent (51 or ten percent, after children are grown) expected to be keeping a home for their children at age 30 while at the same time they preferred their mothers to work part time. Twenty-seven (5.3 percent) expected to work full time (30 or 5.9 percent, after children are grown).

#### Respondents' Opinions About Women Working

The last questionnaire item of this section attempted to discover what the respondents felt mostly influenced their thinking about women working. It was surprising to see the number of girls who wrote in "myself," or "my OWN opinion," 69 in all (13.6 percent). Some of them were very indignantly against the idea that anyone had influenced them in any way and wrote in and underlined, "no one influences me." Probably the wording of the question was not good for this age group because so many of them answered in this way and such a large number (25 or 4.9 percent) gave no answer.

As Table 18 shows, 163 (32.1 percent) respondents indicated their mothers' attitudes (both positive and negative) influenced them most and 44 or 8.7 percent said their fathers' attitudes did. Thirty-three indicated their friends' attitudes were most influential; 52 (10.2 percent) gave school (presumably teachers, counsellors, friends, classwork) as their choice; 31 (6.1 percent) gave their boy friends' attitudes as most important; and 25 (4.9 percent) said

Table 18. Respondents' Opinions About Women Working.

Schools	Total	Influenced by . . .										No Answer
		Mothers' Attitudes	Friends' Attitudes	School	Fathers' Attitudes	Boy Friends' Attitudes	Television & Newspapers	My OWN opinion	Multiple answers	Necessity	Other	
1.	27	9	2	5	2	0	4	2	2	1	0	0
2.	18	6	0	2	5	0	0	1	4	0	0	0
3.	9	1	0	1	2	0	1	4	0	0	0	0
4.	30	15	4	2	2	1	0	4	1	0	0	1
5.	12	2	1	0	1	2	0	2	0	3	1	0
6.	25	12	1	2	2	2	1	3	1	0	0	1
7.	6	2	2	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
8.	13	2	1	2	3	0	2	2	1	0	0	0
9.	20	5	0	6	2	3	1	1	1	0	1	0
10.	24	9	0	2	3	1	0	3	2	0	0	4
11.	9	4	2	0	0	1	0	0	2	0	0	0
12.	15	6	0	3	0	2	0	1	1	0	2	0
13.	12	1	0	0	1	0	0	4	2	0	3	1
14.	39	11	5	2	0	5	1	3	7	0	3	2
15.	15	4	0	1	0	0	0	7	2	0	0	1
16.	18	8	2	2	2	0	1	0	0	0	2	1
17.	68	20	5	10	4	3	5	9	7	3	0	2
18.	20	4	3	1	5	2	1	2	1	0	1	0
19.	15	9	1	0	0	0	0	2	3	0	0	0
20.	31	10	1	2	2	1	2	3	6	0	0	4
21.	38	9	0	3	4	2	4	11	2	0	0	3
22.	20	6	2	1	0	4	0	2	1	0	0	4
23.	9	1	0	3	3	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
24.	15	7	1	2	1	0	1	3	0	0	0	0
Total	508	163	33	52	44	31	25	69	46	7	13	25
Percent	100	32.1	6.5	10.2	8.7	6.1	4.9	13.6	9.1	1.4	2.6	4.9

television and newspapers influenced them most. In addition to these responses, there were also 46 (9.1 percent) students who gave more than one choice. The most common combination was both mothers' and fathers' attitudes. Eleven respondents gave this reply.

#### Respondents' Knowledge or Guesses About Women Working Today

The final section of the questionnaire was designed to get a sample of what knowledge and awareness these sophomore girls have of the women's employment picture today. The girls were encouraged to guess if they did not know the answers, so their responses will simply give an idea of how aware the high school girls are.

#### Respondents' Estimates of the Average Number of Years a Woman Works Outside the Home

The average number of years a woman works outside the home according to the United States Department of Labor is 25. Only 48 of the respondents (9.4 percent) selected this choice, indicating that not too many of this sample of sophomore girls were aware of their predicted future employment role. As might be expected, Table 19 shows that the majority of the respondents estimated in the lower figures of five, ten, or 15 years of work life. One hundred three (20.3 percent) selected five years, 113 (22.2 percent) chose ten years, and 108 (21.2 percent) guessed 15 years. Only 82 or 16.1

Table 19. Respondents' Estimates of the Average Number of Years a Woman Works Outside the Home.

Schools	Total	Number of Years								No Answer
		0	5	10	15	20	25	30	Over 30	
1.	27	1	7	3	8	2	1	2	1	2
2.	18	0	6	0	2	4	1	2	2	1
3.	9	0	1	1	0	5	2	0	0	0
4.	30	2	5	6	7	4	3	0	2	1
5.	12	0	1	1	2	5	1	2	0	0
6.	25	0	6	3	9	4	3	0	0	0
7.	6	0	0	3	1	1	1	0	0	0
8.	13	0	2	6	2	2	0	1	0	0
9.	20	0	3	6	4	5	1	1	0	0
10.	24	0	11	1	5	5	1	1	0	0
11.	9	0	0	5	2	0	1	1	0	0
12.	15	0	3	4	2	0	3	0	1	2
13.	12	0	0	4	2	3	1	2	0	0
14.	39	0	5	11	12	3	4	2	2	0
15.	15	0	8	1	0	0	5	0	1	0
16.	18	0	1	2	7	5	3	0	0	0
17.	68	0	11	17	10	16	7	3	4	0
18.	20	0	5	12	2	1	0	0	0	0
19.	15	0	1	3	4	4	0	2	1	0
20.	31	0	8	6	6	2	5	2	0	2
21.	38	0	10	11	4	5	3	2	2	1
22.	20	0	6	2	8	2	1	0	1	0
23.	9	0	1	2	3	1	0	1	0	1
24.	15	0	2	3	6	3	1	0	0	0
Total	508	3	103	113	108	82	48	24	17	10
Percent	100	0.6	20.3	22.2	21.2	16.1	9.4	4.7	3.3	2.0

percent selected 20 and 24 or 4.7 percent selected 30 years, the two answers closest to the correct answer. From these results, it can probably be assumed that home economics teachers need to include curriculum that will help these girls become more aware of their probable future role by the time they are seniors.

Respondents' Estimates of the Number of Women  
Working in the United States

Table 20 gives the respondents' estimates or guesses as to how many women are now working in the United States. They were told that there are 74 million men working to have a starting point to work from so they could estimate if there were one fourth, half, three-fourths, etc. as many women working as men. The largest number of respondents (101) estimated that 55 million women were working in the United States today. This is unusual in light of the fact that the largest group also said a woman works an average of ten years of her life. It seems contradictory then, that such a large number of women could be employed at the same time. The actual number of women working in 1967 was 29 million (U. S. W. B. , 1968, p. 2) and only 50 (9.8 percent) respondents estimated 30, the closest to being correct.

Equal numbers (75 or 14.8 percent) said 40 and 45 million women were now employed. Forty-seven respondents (9.3 percent)



Table 20. Respondents' Estimates of The Number of Women Working in the United States.

Schools	Total	Millions										No Answer
		5	15	25	30	35	40	45	55	65	75	
1.	27	0	1	3	1	3	5	3	7	2	0	2
2.	18	2	0	1	2	3	2	1	4	0	3	0
3.	9	0	1	0	0	0	2	3	1	1	1	0
4.	30	0	0	2	4	3	3	1	12	2	1	2
5.	12	0	0	0	0	1	4	3	1	3	0	0
6.	25	0	0	1	2	3	4	4	6	3	2	0
7.	6	0	0	0	0	2	1	2	1	0	0	0
8.	13	1	0	0	0	0	5	0	4	1	2	0
9.	20	0	1	1	3	3	2	2	5	3	0	0
10.	24	1	1	2	5	3	3	1	4	3	1	0
11.	9	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	3	2	0
12.	15	0	0	1	1	2	2	5	1	0	0	3
13.	12	0	0	0	0	2	0	2	4	3	1	0
14.	39	1	1	5	6	3	4	7	9	3	0	0
15.	15	0	0	0	1	2	2	2	6	2	0	0
16.	18	2	1	0	1	5	2	5	1	0	0	1
17.	68	3	1	6	7	9	12	9	13	4	4	0
18.	20	0	3	1	1	1	3	2	5	2	2	0
19.	15	0	0	1	1	2	2	0	7	2	0	0
20.	31	0	1	3	3	4	3	8	4	4	0	1
21.	38	0	1	5	4	4	8	5	5	5	1	0
22.	20	0	0	4	1	5	2	5	0	1	2	0
23.	9	1	0	2	1	1	2	2	0	0	0	0
24.	15	0	0	4	5	2	1	3	0	0	0	0
Total	508	11	12	43	50	63	75	75	101	47	22	9
Percent	100	2.2	2.4	8.5	9.8	12.4	14.8	14.8	19.4	9.3	4.3	1.8

estimated 65, 22 said 75 million, and nine gave no answer. In the lower figures, 63 (12.4 percent) estimated that 35 million women were now working in the United States. Forty-three (8.5 percent) respondents guessed 25 million, 12 (2.4 percent) said 15 million, and 11 (2.2 percent) estimated five million.

Respondents' Estimates of the Percentage of  
Women Who Work Outside the Home

Table 21 charts the respondents' opinions of the percentage of women who work outside the home. This question serves as a kind of check on Table 20. Of the 508 respondents, 144 or 28.4 percent estimated that 50 percent of the women in the United States are employed, and the next largest number (124 or 24.4 percent) guessed 40 percent.

The answers in the rest of the table approximate a slightly skewed bell-curve progressing downward on each side of the center. Those respondents answering less than 40 percent included 66 (13 percent) who said 30, 14 (2.8 percent) who said 20, and seven (1.4 percent) who estimated ten percent of the women in the United States work outside the home. On the other side of the scale, 94 girls (18.5 percent) guessed 60 percent, 34 (6.7 percent) said 70 percent and 20 (3.9 percent) estimated 80 percent. Five respondents gave no reply.

Table 21. Respondents' Estimates of The Percentage of Women Who Work Outside the Home.

Schools	Total	Percent								No Answer
		10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	
1.	27	0	0	4	8	1	5	5	2	2
2.	18	0	2	0	3	6	4	0	3	0
3.	9	0	0	1	1	4	2	1	0	0
4.	30	0	1	5	8	8	5	2	0	1
5.	12	0	0	0	0	5	4	2	1	0
6.	25	1	0	4	6	6	4	2	2	0
7.	6	0	1	0	2	2	1	0	0	0
8.	13	1	1	1	3	5	0	0	2	0
9.	20	0	0	1	7	4	4	4	0	0
10.	24	0	2	5	8	5	2	2	0	0
11.	9	0	0	1	1	3	4	0	0	0
12.	15	1	0	2	1	8	2	0	0	1
13.	12	0	2	1	1	4	2	2	0	0
14.	39	0	0	4	9	11	13	2	0	0
15.	15	0	0	1	6	3	3	2	0	0
16.	18	2	0	0	4	7	5	0	0	0
17.	68	1	1	10	14	23	11	3	5	0
18.	20	0	2	3	6	8	1	0	0	0
19.	15	0	1	2	3	2	3	2	2	0
20.	31	0	0	1	8	8	10	1	2	1
21.	38	0	0	12	7	13	4	2	0	0
22.	20	0	1	3	9	5	0	2	0	0
23.	9	1	0	3	4	0	1	0	0	0
24.	15	0	0	2	5	3	4	0	1	0
Total	508	7	14	66	124	144	94	34	20	5
Percent	100	1.4	2.8	13.0	24.4	28.4	18.5	6.7	3.9	1.0

### Respondents' Estimates of Teenage Girls' Life Expectancy

In order to find out if sophomore girls were aware of their probable life expectancy, they were asked to tell what it is for their age group. It was surprising to find that quite a large number of the respondents had a realistic picture of the number of years they might live. In Table 22, the largest group of respondents, 140 or 27.6 percent, selected the correct answer of 75 years (U.S.W.B., 1965, p. 3). Those who selected figures lower than the average life expectancy included 82 (16.1 percent) who said 70 years, 39 (7.7 percent) who said 65 years, and 32 (6.3 percent) who estimated 60 years' life expectancy.

Quite a large number of respondents estimated high life expectancies. Ninety (17.7 percent) girls chose an 80 year life expectancy, 115 (22.6 percent) chose 85 years, and one girl each, wrote in that they expected to live 95 and 100 years. This large number of high estimates is not too surprising since many 80 to 100 year-olds are living now.

### Respondents' Estimates of the Years of Life After Children Are Grown

In the last item on the questionnaire, the students were asked to respond to "This means that you will probably have this many years of life after your children are grown:" This was to survey

Table 22. Respondents' Estimates of Teenage Girls' Life Expectancy.

Schools	Total	Estimates in Years								No Answer
		60	65	70	75	80	85	95	100	
1.	27	0	1	6	6	7	5	0	0	2
2.	18	1	1	7	2	3	3	0	0	1
3.	9	0	2	3	4	0	0	0	0	0
4.	30	0	0	3	10	5	10	0	0	2
5.	12	0	1	0	5	3	3	0	0	0
6.	25	2	1	3	9	7	3	0	0	0
7.	6	0	0	1	1	1	3	0	0	0
8.	13	0	2	0	4	1	4	1	1	0
9.	20	2	1	3	7	5	2	0	0	0
10.	24	2	3	8	4	0	7	0	0	0
11.	9	0	3	1	2	1	2	0	0	0
12.	15	1	5	4	3	1	0	0	0	1
13.	12	1	1	2	5	0	3	0	0	0
14.	39	1	5	5	9	8	11	0	0	0
15.	15	0	0	1	4	5	5	0	0	0
16.	18	0	2	1	7	4	4	0	0	0
17.	68	6	4	10	21	9	18	0	0	0
18.	20	1	1	3	4	6	5	0	0	0
19.	15	1	1	1	4	6	2	0	0	0
20.	31	4	1	4	8	3	10	0	0	1
21.	38	4	0	9	10	6	8	0	0	1
22.	20	1	1	2	4	5	7	0	0	0
23.	9	1	2	3	2	1	0	0	0	0
24.	15	4	1	2	5	3	0	0	0	0
Total	508	32	39	82	140	90	115	1	1	8
Percent	100	6.3	7.7	16.1	27.6	17.7	22.6	0.2	0.2	1.6

their concept of how many years they are likely to be relatively alone or with a husband after the time-consuming tasks of child-rearing are nearly finished.

The responses in Table 23 were quite spread out, most girls (96 or 18.9 percent) answering approximately 35 years. Assuming your children are "grown" when you are age 40, this estimate of 35 years would agree with the life expectancy of 75. Nearly equal numbers selected 45 (84 girls, 16.5 percent) and 30 (86 girls, 16.9 percent). Sixty-two respondents (12.2 percent) said they would have about 40 years left and 69 (13.6 percent) said 25 years. Fifty-two estimated 20 (10.2 percent), 30 (5.9 percent) estimated 15 years and 14 (2.8 percent) selected ten years of life after the children are grown. Fifteen girls, three percent, gave no response.

The figures do not seem to vary a great deal for the eight columns, but since there is no "correct answer" this could be expected. There could be eight (or many more) different possibilities depending on the spacing of the children and the age at which they are considered grown. Several of the respondents pointed this out and some did not give an answer for this reason.

Table 23. Respondents' Estimates of the Years of Life After Children Are Grown.

Schools	Total	Approximate Years								No Answer
		10	15	20	25	30	35	40	45	
1.	27	0	0	5	1	5	7	3	4	2
2.	18	1	0	3	1	7	3	0	3	0
3.	9	0	2	3	3	1	0	0	0	0
4.	30	0	2	2	4	5	6	5	3	3
5.	12	0	0	0	2	0	6	2	2	0
6.	25	1	1	1	5	5	4	3	5	0
7.	6	0	1	0	1	0	2	1	1	0
8.	13	0	1	2	0	2	3	0	5	0
9.	20	0	3	3	2	7	2	1	2	0
10.	24	0	3	5	2	2	3	2	7	0
11.	9	0	2	0	1	1	4	1	0	0
12.	15	1	1	4	3	1	1	0	2	2
13.	12	0	2	1	1	1	4	0	3	0
14.	39	0	2	2	5	10	8	5	6	1
15.	15	1	0	2	0	1	4	2	5	0
16.	18	1	1	1	4	3	2	5	1	0
17.	68	4	3	5	9	8	8	16	14	1
18.	20	1	0	1	3	4	3	4	4	0
19.	15	1	0	2	4	2	5	1	0	0
20.	31	1	2	2	3	5	5	4	5	4
21.	38	0	1	4	8	7	7	4	6	1
22.	20	2	0	2	2	4	3	3	3	1
23.	9	0	0	1	3	1	3	0	1	0
24.	15	0	3	1	2	4	3	0	2	0
Total	508	14	30	52	69	86	96	62	84	15
Percent 100		2.8	5.9	10.2	13.6	16.9	18.9	12.2	16.5	3.0

## CHAPTER IV

### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this study was to find out if tenth grade girls were aware of the probability that a majority of them would work at some time during their lives, and if they planned to prepare for this possibility. A questionnaire was designed and validated to attempt to determine these aspirations and expectations. Six hundred questionnaires were then sent to 24 Oregon high schools where the home economics teachers administered them to the sophomore girls in their classes. A total of 508 usable questionnaires were returned.

#### A Profile of the Tenth Grade Girl

From the data in these questionnaires, the answers most often given to each question have been chosen to complete a composite picture of a typical tenth grade girl:

She is 15 years old.

She is in her second year of homemaking.

She has 1-3 brothers and sisters.

Her father and mother are high school graduates.

Her father is employed in a machine trade occupation.

Her mother is a homemaker.

She plans to graduate from high school.



She feels she should prepare to be a good homemaker and be able to earn a living (even though she plans to stop her education with high school).

She plans to work before and after marriage until she has children.

She would take a job if she "needed the money."

At age 30 she pictures herself as being a homemaker with children and no outside job.

After her children are grown she expects to be working part time.

She prefers her mother to be a homemaker full time and her mother is.

Her opinions about women working are influenced mostly by her mother's attitude.

She estimates the average woman works for about ten years. She estimates that 55 million or 50 percent of the women in the United States are working.

She believes she will live to be 75 years old.

She expects to have 35 years of life after her children are grown.

According to reliable statistics this high school girl will work an average of 25 years of her life. Twenty-nine million women were working in 1968. Her life-expectancy is 74 and on the average she

will have about 30 years of life after her children are grown. So she has "guessed" two of the four facts correctly.

### Comparison of Findings with Other Studies

A Purdue Opinion Panel study quoted in Chapter II, used a widely representative sample of United States' teen-agers (not just sophomores). A comparison is shown in Table 24. The writer was unable to find a way to secure the original study, so only those figures quoted by Beck in a popular magazine (1965, p. 48) were available for comparison. Even these are not too comparable because the figures for this study are only for a small sample of Oregon sophomores, while the Purdue figures were for nation-wide teen-agers of several grades in school. Also, the items asked were not the same, making it difficult to compare. Still, it is interesting to note some likenesses and differences.

Another study, undertaken by Slocum (1968, p. 21), of 1605 rural Washington girls gives some figures showing their educational aspirations that are interesting to compare to this study. Table 25 illustrates the variances. Slocum's figures seem to be unrealistically high. One fifth of the girls aspire to graduate school, and a total of 66.9 percent hope to go to college.

Slocum also gives some figures showing the education obtained by the rural Washington girls' mothers (Slocum, 1968, p. 8).

Table 24. Comparison of the Results of this Study with Purdue Study.

	Purdue Respondents (percent)	This Sample (percent)
Intended to work permanently	6	14.6
Did not plan to work at all	15	4.7
Wanted to work only until married	--	21.4
Wanted to work only until they have children	62	26.0
Wanted to work only until their children are in school (or grown)	--	6.9
Felt it was a good idea to work only until "financially secure"	11	----
Felt they should prepare themselves to earn a living even if they planned to marry	93	78.4

Table 25. Comparison of Educational Aspirations with Slocum Study.

Aspirations	Washington Girls (percent)	Oregon Sophomores (percent)
Drop out	----	1.8
High school only	33.1	31.3
Some college	23.5	17.5
Trade school or community college	----	25.0
Bachelor's degree	24.2	12.6
Graduate work	19.2	1.4

Table 26 compares these figures to the figures of this study previously reported in Table 3.

Table 26. Comparison of Mothers' Educations in this and Slocum's Studies.

Mothers' Education (Highest level)	Washington Girls (percent)	Oregon Sophomores (percent)
Grade school	13.7	3.7
Junior high school	----	9.3
High school	19.6	30.3
High school graduate	46.5	36.8
Some college	12.8	12.8
Bachelor's degree	4.9	2.2
Graduate work	2.5	2.0

The main difference in the figures is that the Oregon respondents' mothers had as large or larger percentages up to the level of "some college," but a smaller percentage of mothers had bachelor's degrees or had done some graduate work.

#### Implications

One of the main implications of the results of this study is that students did not seem to be realistic about planning their lives. They appeared to be more aware than this writer expected of the facts about how many women are working today (they even overestimated the number), how long they will probably live, and how many years of life they will have after their children are grown. Also, only 4.7 percent of the girls felt that they would never be working at any

time in their lives (Table 12). The remaining 80.3 percent (excluding those who did not know or did not answer) planned to work part time or full time for some period of their lives, and 286 (56 percent) planned to work after they married. But the length of time they expected to work in their adult lives was low.

Therefore, the statement of the United States Women's Bureau, quoted in Chapter II, that "many teenage girls make future plans on the assumption that marriage will end permanently their participation in the labor force" (M. R. P. C. , 1965, p. 4) does not appear to be entirely true for this sample of 508 adolescent girls.

Nevertheless, the respondents quite unrealistically did not plan to get very much training or education to prepare themselves for any type of a job. Nearly one third of the respondents, 33.1 percent, (Table 9) planned to go no further with their education than high school. This seems to indicate a lack of awareness of what types of jobs are available with no technical training or degrees beyond a high school education. It is, perhaps, encouraging that only 1.8 percent of the respondents planned to leave school before graduating. However, it must be remembered that these figures represent aspirations or expectations, and do not necessarily guarantee the attainment of that desired level of education. Therefore, it is assumed that many of the respondents will not reach their aspiration of high school graduation, but a few will go beyond that level. Also,

many of those who reached for higher goals will not attain them, so the number of girls who will not get any training beyond high school probably far exceeds this 33 percent.

This lack of a realistic outlook gives us an answer to the final question for study in the Statement of the Problem for this study.

The question was, "Is there a need to place more emphasis on wage-earning skills in the home economics curriculum or is there a need to continue to emphasize home and family living?"

Because of the unrealistic attitude of sophomore girls toward preparation for their future employment, it seems that homemaking teachers need to find ways to help these girls to become more aware of the problems in the world of work, and to help them to learn skills that will make them more employable when they need or want to work. More than one fourth of the respondents (27.4 percent, Table 13) expected to be working at age 30, and over half (57.9 percent, Table 14) planned to be working after their children are grown. Therefore, even those girls who do not plan to work immediately will need some skills to fall back upon or brush up on for future years. Home economists need to increase their offerings in realistic career planning for the single or married woman and to help them develop or learn how to go about obtaining these skills. One of the recommendations of the 1965 International Labor Conference in Geneva was "to encourage girls to obtain a sound vocational preparation as a basis

for their future work lives" (p. 52), but the conference also recommended that girls be ensured a good general education as well.

However, family life instruction is still a definite need.

John F. Kennedy, quoted by Margaret Mead, emphasized this: "We have by no means done enough to strengthen family life and at the same time encourage women to make their full contribution as citizens" (1965, p. 16). Table 13 of this study indicates a lack of understanding of family problems and solutions. So few of the respondents answered that they would take a job if their husband died or was injured, or if there was a divorce, that it points to a need for more emphasis on family interaction and even realistic family finance. To leave out these teachings in favor of job training would be a mistake in light of these findings; but a combination of the two needs to be taught in the home economics curriculum. An article entitled, "Homemaking Education in California" sums it up nicely:

Although preparation for the job of homemaking will remain the most important educational responsibility . . . we so firmly believe in the relationship of the ability to work for income to one's assessment of himself and how he relates to others, that we see a reversible equation between the programs . . . (of) training for the job of homemaker and training for gainful employment (1968, p. 2).

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## APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

TENTH GRADE HOME ECONOMICS STUDENTS' EXPECTATIONS  
OF THEIR FUTURE LIFE STYLES

Fall, 1968

WHAT DO YOU THINK?

You may not know the answers to the next questions, but I am just interested in what you THINK might be the closest answer. Don't be afraid to guess.

The average woman today works outside the home for about:

- |   |   |
|---|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 0 years of her life  | <input type="checkbox"/> 20 years of her life |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 5 years of her life  | <input type="checkbox"/> 25 years of her life |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 10 years of her life | <input type="checkbox"/> 30 years of her life |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 15 years of her life | <input type="checkbox"/> over 30 years        |

About 74 million men are working in the United States. The number of women working is approximately:

- |                                     |                                     |
|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 5 million  | <input type="checkbox"/> 40 million |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 15 million | <input type="checkbox"/> 45 million |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 25 million | <input type="checkbox"/> 55 million |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 30 million | <input type="checkbox"/> 65 million |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 35 million | <input type="checkbox"/> 75 million |

The percentage of women who work outside the home is about:

- |                              |                              |
|------------------------------|------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 10% | <input type="checkbox"/> 50% |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 20% | <input type="checkbox"/> 60% |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 30% | <input type="checkbox"/> 70% |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 40% | <input type="checkbox"/> 80% |

Teenage girls can expect to live to be:

- |                                       |                                       |
|---------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 60 years old | <input type="checkbox"/> 75 years old |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 65 years old | <input type="checkbox"/> 80 years old |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 70 years old | <input type="checkbox"/> 85 years old |

This means that you will probably have this many years of life after your children are grown:

- |                             |                             |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 10 | <input type="checkbox"/> 30 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 15 | <input type="checkbox"/> 35 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 20 | <input type="checkbox"/> 40 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 25 | <input type="checkbox"/> 45 |

This questionnaire is part of a thesis leading to a Master of Science Degree at Oregon State University. It is designed to find out what the high school girls of today are thinking about and planning to do in the future.

YOU, as a high school girl, can help by filling out the questions honestly and completely. You may omit your name if you want to, but the other information about you is necessary. It will not be shown to anyone else.

Thank you for your help.

(Mrs. ) Michele Haller  
555 Stafford Court  
Eugene, Oregon 97405

-----  
Name \_\_\_\_\_

Age \_\_\_\_\_ Grade \_\_\_\_\_

Directions: Please answer the questions and check the spaces that apply to you:

I took homemaking in grades  7,  8,  9

I have not had homemaking before

Mother's occupation \_\_\_\_\_

Part time  Full-time

Father's or guardian's occupation \_\_\_\_\_

My sisters (and step-sisters) are ages \_\_\_\_\_

My brothers (and step-brothers) are ages \_\_\_\_\_

Put the ages of your brothers in the top blank to the left and the ages of your sisters at the right. BELOW the age of each brother or sister, place a check in the blank next to the highest education they received or are receiving. If you need more blanks--add them in the margins.

BROTHERS' ages:

SISTERS' ages:

<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	not in school yet	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	grade school	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	junior high	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	high school	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	high school graduate	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	school other than college	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	college	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	bachelor's degree (4 yrs. )	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	graduate work	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
other: (specify)																				

Check the blank next to the HIGHEST level of education each of your parents received:

My father:

My mother:

<input type="checkbox"/>	grade school	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	junior high	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	high school	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	high school graduate	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	school other than college	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	college	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	bachelor's degree (4 yrs. )	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	graduate work	<input type="checkbox"/>
other: (specify)		

WHAT WILL YOU DO?

I plan to:

<input type="checkbox"/> leave school before I graduate	<input type="checkbox"/> go to community college
<input type="checkbox"/> graduate from high school	<input type="checkbox"/> do graduate work
<input type="checkbox"/> go to college	<input type="checkbox"/> go to trade school
<input type="checkbox"/> graduate from college	<input type="checkbox"/> don't know
other plans: _____	

I feel that I should prepare myself to:

- be a good homemaker
- be a good homemaker and be able to earn a living
- be able to earn a living

I will probably:

- never work
- work until I marry
- work until I retire at 62 or 65
- marry and not work
- marry and work
- marry and work only until I have children
- marry and work after the children are in school
- marry and work after the children are grown
- marry and work part-time
- work and not marry
- don't know

For which reasons would you take a job?

<input type="checkbox"/> need the money	<input type="checkbox"/> feelings of other family members
<input type="checkbox"/> husband died	<input type="checkbox"/> want something to do
<input type="checkbox"/> never married	<input type="checkbox"/> children are grown
<input type="checkbox"/> enjoy working	<input type="checkbox"/> the country needs workers
<input type="checkbox"/> divorced	<input type="checkbox"/> to save for a specific goal
<input type="checkbox"/> husband injured	Other: _____

At age 30 I see myself as:

- working and keeping a home for myself
- married with no children and keeping a home
- married with no children and working
- married with children and keeping a home
- married with children and working
- part-time
- full-time

After my children are grown, I see myself as:

- keeping a home full-time
- working full-time
- working part-time

I would prefer my mother to:

- keep a home full-time
- work full-time
- work part-time

I feel my opinions about women working were mostly influenced by:

<input type="checkbox"/> my mother's attitude	<input type="checkbox"/> my father's attitude
<input type="checkbox"/> my friends' attitudes	<input type="checkbox"/> my boy friend's attitude
<input type="checkbox"/> school	<input type="checkbox"/> television & newspapers

Others: \_\_\_\_\_

## LIST OF SCHOOLS IN THE STUDY

High Schools from the Following Areas:	Total Questionnaires Used
1. Gresham	27
2. Sutherlin	18
3. Joseph	9
4. Hermiston	30
5. Union	12
6. Estacada	25
7. Dufur	6
8. Gervais	13
9. Coquille	20
10. Cottage Grove	24
11. Marcola	9
12. Brookings	15
13. Jefferson	12
14. Toledo	39
15. Cloverdale	15
16. Newport	18
17. Klamath Falls	68
18. Glide	20
19. Malin	15
20. Madras	31
21. Turner	38
22. Winston	20
23. Boardman	9
24. Hood River	15
	<hr/>
Total	508



APPENDIX B

Table A. Ages of the Respondents.

Schools	Total	Ages					No Answer
		14	15	16	17	18	
1.	27	3	19	5	0	0	0
2.	18	1	15	2	0	0	0
3.	9	0	7	1	1	0	0
4.	30	3	21	5	0	0	1
5.	12	1	11	0	0	0	0
6.	25	1	18	5	0	0	1
7.	6	0	6	0	0	0	0
8.	13	0	8	1	0	1	3
9.	20	2	11	6	1	0	0
10.	24	0	17	4	2	0	1
11.	9	0	5	4	0	0	0
12.	15	0	13	0	1	0	1
13.	12	2	6	4	0	0	0
14.	39	0	36	3	0	0	0
15.	15	2	13	0	0	0	0
16.	18	1	12	2	1	0	2
17.	68	2	47	14	3	0	2
18.	20	1	13	5	1	0	0
19.	15	0	15	0	0	0	0
20.	31	0	23	2	1	0	5
21.	38	0	28	8	0	0	2
22.	20	1	16	2	1	0	0
23.	9	0	7	0	0	0	2
24.	15	0	12	3	0	0	0
Total	508	20	379	76	12	1	20
Percent	100	4.0	74.6	14.9	2.4	0.2	4.0

Table B. Grades in Which Tenth Grade Respondents Previously Took Homemaking.

Schools	Total	Grades							none	No Answer
		7 only	8 only	9 only	7 & 8	7 & 9	8 & 9	7, 8 & 9		
1.	27	0	0	24	0	2	1	0	0	0
2.	18	0	0	15	0	0	1	2	0	0
3.	9	0	0	8	0	0	1	0	0	0
4.	30	0	8	0	0	0	15	4	3	0
5.	12	0	0	3	0	0	1	8	0	0
6.	25	0	0	8	1	1	4	11	0	0
7.	6	0	0	5	0	1	0	0	0	0
8.	13	0	0	13	0	0	0	0	0	0
9.	20	1	0	1	1	0	1	16	0	0
10.	24	0	0	4	4	1	0	14	1	0
11.	9	0	0	8	0	0	0	0	1	0
12.	15	0	0	11	0	0	2	0	0	2
13.	12	0	0	11	0	0	0	1	0	0
14.	39	3	0	3	7	0	2	24	0	0
15.	15	0	0	12	0	1	0	1	1	0
16.	18	0	1	0	1	0	0	16	0	0
17.	68	0	9	5	4	0	36	10	4	0
18.	20	0	1	16	0	0	0	1	2	0
19.	15	0	14	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
20.	31	0	11	4	0	0	8	2	5	1
21.	38	0	1	25	0	2	3	6	1	0
22.	20	0	6	11	0	1	1	1	0	0
23.	9	0	0	8	1	0	0	0	0	0
24.	15	0	0	4	0	0	6	3	1	1
Total	508	4	51	199	20	9	82	120	19	4
Percent	100	0.8	10.0	39.2	4.0	1.8	16.2	23.4	3.7	0.8

Table C. Family Size of the Respondents.

Schools	Total	Number of Brothers and Sisters				No Answer
		1-3	4-6	7-12	0	
1.	27	18	5	1	3	0
2.	18	6	10	2	0	0
3.	9	5	2	2	0	0
4.	30	18	8	4	0	0
5.	12	7	4	1	0	0
6.	25	14	7	4	0	0
7.	6	4	1	1	0	0
8.	13	5	6	2	0	0
9.	20	15	5	0	0	0
10.	24	12	10	1	1	0
11.	9	6	3	0	0	0
12.	15	8	5	2	0	0
13.	12	6	4	2	0	0
14.	39	25	8	5	1	0
15.	15	10	2	2	0	1
16.	18	9	7	2	0	0
17.	68	37	21	9	1	0
18.	20	13	7	0	0	0
19.	15	6	6	2	1	0
20.	31	17	10	4	0	0
21.	38	10	17	9	2	0
22.	20	12	6	2	0	0
23.	9	2	4	2	1	0
24.	15	8	4	2	1	0
Total	508	273	162	61	11	1
Percent	100.	53.8	31.9	12.0	2.2	0.2