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A Study of the Background Characteristics, Current Lifestyles, and Career Patterns of High Achieving Women

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A STUDY OF THE BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS, CURRENT LIFESTYLES,
AND CAREER PATTERNS OF HIGH ACHIEVING WOMEN

by

Gahan Ann Jacobs

A Dissertation Submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate School
of Loyola University of Chicago in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

September

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VITA

The author, Gahan Ann Jacobs, is the daughter of Dr. William Francis Jacobs and Mary Margaret (Haskins) Jacobs. She was born September 29, 1947, in Chicago, Illinois.

Her elementary education was obtained in the parochial schools of Oak Park and River Forest, Illinois. She was graduated from Trinity High School in River Forest in 1965.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.	ii
VITA.	iv
LIST OF TABLES.	viii
CONTENTS OF APPENDICES.	x
 Chapter	
I. INTRODUCTION	1
Statement of the Problem	1
Purpose of the Study	5
Definitions of Terms	7
Limitations of the Study	8
Organization of the Study.	10
II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE	11
Background and Current Lifestyle Characteristics of High Achieving Women	11
Women's Career Development	11
Control for Age.	29
Control for Occupational Area.	41
Summary.	43
Hypotheses	46
Career Development Factors to be Examined.	46
III. METHODOLOGY.	49
Introduction	49
Population	49
Procedure.	50
Data Collection.	51
Instrumentation.	57
Data Analysis.	58
IV. PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE DATA.	60
Introduction	60
Demographics	60
Analysis of the Data	66
Hypotheses	66
Birth Order	68
Family Income Level	70

Parents' Occupational and Educational Status	74
Parental Influence on Career Choice	77
Father as an Important Achievement Role Model	79
Mother's Employment History	83
Mother's Feelings About Work and/or Homemaking.	84
Female Role Models.	90
Marital Status and Age at Time of Marriage.	95
Husband's Attitude Toward Wife's Career	98
Results of Inquiry Into Career Issues.	99
Employment History.	99
Decision to Pursue a Career	101
Three People Who Most Influenced Career to Date	104
Person Currently Depended on For Encouragement and Moral Support for Career	106
Factors Contributing to Career Development.	108
Problems or Obstacles Encountered in Developing Career	110
Role Conflict in Career	114
Role Activities and Satisfaction.	119
Satisfaction with Career and General Happiness.	121
Greatest Career Rewards	121
Attributes for Success in Career.	123
 V. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	126
Summary.	126
The Problem	126
The Purpose	128
Research Questions.	130
Hypotheses.	131
Instrumentation	132
The Design.	132
The Findings.	132
Conclusions.	135
Implications	144
Recommendations for Further Study.	150
 REFERENCES.	154
 APPENDIX A.	164
 APPENDIX B.	171
 APPENDIX C.	193

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Distribution of All Subjects and The Potential Interview Subjects Into One of Three Age Categories	54
2. Distribution of All Subjects and The Potential Interview Subjects Into General Occupational Areas.	56
3. Distribution of Subjects' Ages.	61
4. Subjects' Racial or Ethnic Identification	61
5. Subjects' Educational History	63
6. Subjects' Occupations Using D.O.T. Occupational Groupings	64
7. Subjects' Marital Status.	65
8. Subjects' Number of Children.	65
9. Subjects' Birth Order Position.	67
10. Subjects' Family Income Level	70
11. Parents' Educational Level.	75
12. Parents' Usual Occupation	76
13. Parents' Influence on Career Choice	78
14. Mothers' Employment History	83
15. Working Mothers' Feelings About Work.	85
16. Homemaking Mothers' Satisfaction with Homemaker Role. . .	85
17. Means, Standard Deviations, and t 's for Strength of Male and Female Role Models While Subjects Were in High School.	92
18. Means, Standard Deviations, and t 's for Strength of Male and Female Role Models While Subjects Were in College	93
19. Means, Standard Deviations, and t 's for Strength of Male and Female Role Models While Subjects Were in Graduate School	94

20.	Age at Time of First Marriage	97
21.	Husband's Attitude Toward Wife's Career	99
22.	Interruption in Employment.	100
23.	Employment History.	100
24.	Decision to Pursue a Career	101
25.	Influential Persons in Subjects' Careers.	105
26.	Persons Depended Upon Most for Support.	107
27.	Factors Most Helpful in Career Development.	109
28.	Problems or Obstacles Encountered in Developing Career. .	112
29.	Role Conflicts Listed by Subjects	115
30.	Experience of Role Conflicts: Relationship to Motherhood Status.	117
31.	Subjects' Satisfaction in Dealing with Life Roles	120
32.	Subjects' Satisfaction with Career.	121
33.	Subjects' Listed Important Attributes for Career Success.	124

CONTENTS FOR APPENDICES

	Page
Appendix A.	164
I. Letter Explaining the Nature of the Study.	165
II. Thank You Letter Returning Consent Form.	167
III. Letter Sent With Second Mailing.	168
IV. Letter Sent to Twelve Subjects to be Interviewed . . .	169
V. Thank You Letter Sent to Each Interviewed Subject. . .	170
Appendix B.	171
I. Consent Form A	172
II. Consent Form B	173
III. Survey Questionnaire	174
IV. Interview Questionnaire.	184
Appendix C.	193
C-1 Frequencies, Percentages, and Chi-Square Results: Relation Between Age and Occupation	194
C-2 Frequencies, Percentages, and Chi-Square Results: Relation Between Age and Occupation to Birth Order Position.	195
C-3 Summary: Chi-Square Results on the Age and Occupation Variables.	196
C-4 Frequencies, Percentages, and Chi-Square Results: Relation Between Age and Occupation to Family Income Level.	197
C-5 Frequencies, Percentages, and Chi-Square Results: Relation Between Age and Occupation to Modified Family Income Level	198
C-6 Frequencies, Percentages, and Chi-Square Results: Relation Between Age and Occupation to Parents' Combined Occupational/Educational Status.	199
C-7 Frequencies, Percentages, and Chi-Square Results: Relation Between Age and Occupation to Parents' Influence on Career Choice.	200
C-8 Frequencies, Percentages, and Chi-Square Results: Relation Between Age and Occupation to Father's Influence on Career	201
C-9 Frequencies, Percentages, and Chi-Square Results: Relation Between Age and Occupation to Mother's Employment History.	202
C-10 Frequencies, Percentages, and Chi-Square Results: Relation Between Age and Occupation to Mother's Feelings About Career or Homemaking	203

C-11	Strength of Role Model Influencers at Three Points in Time	204
C-12	Frequencies, Percentages, and Chi-Square Results: Relation Between Occupation and Marital Status. . . .	205
C-13	Frequencies, Percentages, and Chi-Square Results: Relation Between Occupation and Modified Marital Status Categories	206
C-14	Frequencies, Percentages, and Chi-Square Results: Relation Between Age and Occupation to Subject's Marital Status and Age at Time of Marriage.	207
C-15	Frequencies, Percentages, and Chi-Square Results: Relation Between Age and Occupation to Husband's Attitude Toward Wife's Career	208
C-16	Frequencies, Percentages, and Chi-Square Results: Relation Between Age and Occupation to Experiencing of Role Conflicts	209
C-17	Frequencies, Percentages, and Chi-Square Results: Relation Between Experience of Role Conflicts and Level of Satisfaction in Dealing with Life Roles. . . .	210
C-18	Frequencies, Percentages, and Chi-Square Results: Relation Between Age and Occupation to Level of Satisfaction in Dealing with Life Roles	211
C-19	Frequencies, Percentages, and Chi-Square Results: Relation Between Age and Occupation to Level of Satisfaction with Career.	212

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

Achievement motivation has been the subject of numerous studies in psychological research. Its beginnings are usually traced to the expectancy-value theory of achievement motivation proposed by McClelland, Atkinson, Clark and Lowell in 1953. Since that time, achievement motivation research based on male subjects typically has yielded significant and readily replicable findings (Alper, 1974, p. 194). Research with female subjects, on the other hand, has been sparse. Until recently, that research has focused on reasons why women are less likely to achieve than men, and has often yielded conflicting results.

Researchers have examined these inconsistent results in the light of both internal-psychological and external factors, with the former taking precedence in most studies. Factors researched have included: Horner's (1968) focus on fear of success, the attribution theorists' emphasis on the importance of perceptions about both the causes of events and expectancies for success, and studies examining need for achievement versus need for affiliation in men and women.

While these theories offer much in the way of explanation, other research has led to the conclusion that the original definitions and measures of achievement focus exclusively on masculine models of

success. These models place emphasis on achievement stressing leadership and competition. O'Leary (1977) notes that the achievement goals of males and females may be different. "As a result, it is difficult to evaluate the meaning of sex differences in achievement" (p. 105).

Additional studies have attempted a broader definition of achievement motivation and a clear distinction between achievement behavior and achievement motivation. Spence's (1983) book on achievement and achievement motives provides a conceptual synthesis of the major theoretical ideas and empirical results in the field over the past few decades. In her review, Horner (1983) notes that throughout Spence's book, achievement behavior, like other behaviors, is assumed to be complexly determined, "the result of an interaction between characteristics of the individual and those of the situation in which the behavior takes place" (Horner, p. 261).

Horner states that Spence and Helmreich (1983) successfully establish the fact that neither achievement motivation nor achievement behavior can be considered a monolithic concept. This confirms an earlier observation by Veroff, McClelland, and Ruhland (1975) that "achievement motivation per se is a significantly more differentiated phenomenon than the original conceptualization suggested" (p. 152) (Horner, p. 262).

All along, there has been a strong link between achievement research and career research in women's studies. The foundation is being laid for a career development theory which can be applicable to women, but it is in its infancy. Its development has suffered

because, as in achievement motivation research, many of the subjects in past career studies were males. "It is assumed that the potential career development of women, although not fundamentally different from that of men, is a great deal more complex due to the combination of attitudes, role expectations, behaviors, and sanctions known as the socialization process" (Fitzgerald & Crites, 1980, p. 95). That socialization process very often produces a response set among women which constricts their consideration of options to traditional roles and occupations (Fitzgerald & Crites).

While women entered predominantly male occupations in increasing numbers during the 1972-1981 period (U.S. Women's Bureau, 1983), women continue to be underrepresented in many professions, e.g., in law and medicine, in mathematics, science, and engineering, in the skilled trades, and in managerial and administrative positions. Accordingly, many studies of high achieving women over the past two decades have used subjects in nontraditional occupations as examples of high achievers.

Other research is beginning to look more closely at high achievers in such "women's occupations" as teaching or nursing. While achievement has usually been defined by what men do, many women may be just as strongly motivated to achieve different goals (Williams, 1983, p. 186). This continuing research has focused on the high achieving woman in more traditional occupations, analyzing her own strengths as well as comparing her to women in nontraditional fields.

There is now a small but growing body of research relevant to the vocational development of women. Career theorists are investigating

factors that are part of woman's career patterns, and are comparing them, when appropriate, to what is known about men's career development. Key variables in this research include the following: the effect of sex-role socialization on career choices, the role of family and school on career choices, and the importance of role models and mentors in women's lives.

Additional studies have examined the role of personality factors in women's achievement. Some of these studies have provided personality profiles of women in nontraditional occupations, comparing them to both women and men in a wide variety of fields. Others have been designed to answer accusations that women who achieve in nontraditional occupations must be unfeminine and deviants from society. It has been shown that for participants in relevant studies to date, there appears to be no general trend for nontraditional women to be less emotionally healthy than comparison women (Lemkau, 1979, p. 228).

Many past studies of women's achievement were conducted with student groups. Some of those studies use need for achievement (nAch) measures, while others link achievement motivation with the subject's stated career choice, focusing on those factors which seemed to affect that career goal. Recent recommendations have been for more research with adult female populations, partly because of the poor predictive quality of stated career goal with later achievement. Other investigations note the need for comparisons among achieving women in different age brackets. To address both of these concerns, this study will focus on presently achieving women who span a wide age range.

While individual studies define achievement in different ways, (e.g. the attainment of a Ph.D., an administrative position, a professional degree, or publications), most studies generally adhere to the idea of high achievement as the attainment of success. In The Competent Woman, Barnett and Baruch (1978) discuss the difference between competence and success.

Success is defined in the dictionary as the attainment of a desired goal or as the favorable outcome of an undertaking. But success is also socially defined; it implies social recognition, social rewards, social position. Competent people may or may not be successful, in their own eyes or in the opinion of others. Success refers to evaluative judgments made about behavior by the self and others (Barnett & Baruch, p. 23).

"There are many points at which our social system has channeled women's competence away from fields in which success brings the highest rewards" (Barnett & Baruch, p. 24). Also, many of the interpersonal and organizational skills helpful for success in, for example, corporations and other workplaces--coordination of roles, resolution of disagreements--have remained relatively undeveloped in women (Barnett & Baruch, p. 25). Barnett and Baruch see that at each step in a woman's career similar obstacles arise, often increasing in intensity as the top is approached. Women who have chosen nontraditional fields and have been successful or have distinguished themselves in more traditional areas may have faced and overcome these obstacles. "Many successful women, therefore, are survivors (or escapees) and their lives deserve our attention" (Barnett & Baruch, p. 25). This study will focus on a group of these women.

Purpose of the Study

This study will develop a profile of a group of women

distinguished by their achievements in business, the professions, and the arts. The study will focus on the background characteristics and current lifestyles of these women who have been designated by their peers as high achievers. The study will also describe aspects of the subjects' career patterns, emphasizing those issues relevant to women's career development.

The primary goal of the study will be to identify those characteristics which are common to these women as high achievers per se. Secondly, the study will examine any significant differences among the women related to the variables of age and occupation.

The questions guiding the analytical section of this study are:

1. What characterizes a group of women who have been designated by their peers as high achievers? How do the background characteristics and current lifestyles of these women compare to findings in previous research on high achieving women?
2. Are there significant differences in the backgrounds and current lifestyles of these women when they are compared on the variables of age and/or occupation?

Questions guiding the descriptive section of the study include the following:

1. What career patterns have these women followed in their career development?
2. What people have influenced their career to date and on whom do they currently depend most for encouragement and support for their careers?
3. What factors have contributed to their career development?

4. What obstacles, if any, have they encountered in their career development?
5. Have they experienced role conflict in managing their careers?
6. What is their degree of career satisfaction?

Definition of Terms

Achievement: Achievement is a task-oriented behavior that allows the individual's performance to be evaluated according to some internally or externally imposed criterion that involves the individual in competing with others, or that otherwise involves some standard of excellence (Spence, 1983, p. 12 & Horner, 1985, p. 261).

High Achieving Women: The subjects of this study are members of a women's group in a metropolitan area of the midwest. They are women from the fields of art, science, labor, social services, management, and the media, who have attained a high level of accomplishment, leadership and influence. They have been recognized by their peers as women distinguished by their achievements in their respective fields.

Career: "Career has come to be used in a broad sense to describe an individual's lifelong work pattern - the way in which the individual expresses self and relates to society through work" (Isaacson, 1977, p. 7).

Career Development: A long-range, gradual process involving the acquisition of self-understanding and of knowledge of the world of work (Isaacson, 1977, p. 59).

Career Pattern: The sequence of occupations and jobs in the lifetime of the individual. Career patterns reflect sequences in the

work force and/or patterns of combining careers with other life activities (Phillips, 1978, p. 4).

Nontraditional Job: The phrase "nontraditional career choice" usually refers to the selection of an occupation for which one's sex is a contradiction because that occupation has been stereotyped as the proper and exclusive domain of only one sex (Auster & Auster, 1981, p. 253). As defined by the Women's Bureau of the U.S. Department of Labor, nontraditional jobs for women are those in which women make up 25% or less of the total number of workers. The Bureau notes that there is, however, no clear-cut consensus on this definition among researchers.

Limitations of the Study

As in any research study, there are some limitations of this study which should be noted. All subjects are members of a women's group and have been invited to join that group on the basis of their high level of accomplishment, leadership, and influence. While the members are chosen judiciously under written specifications, the possibility of bias or omission in the selection process should be considered.

On the positive side, the membership committee looks for diversity in its members. The group's uniqueness is its broad base of support, pulling from women in the arts, the professions, and business, providing a process by which the women bolster one another to move forward in their careers and life. This group affords a unique opportunity to work with a sample of adult women presently achieving at a high level in both traditional and nontraditional fields.

Response to mail questionnaires are often poor. Thus, there can be some question about the characteristics of the nonrespondents versus the respondents (Kerlinger, 1973, p. 414). This researcher, through both phone and written follow ups to non-returned questionnaires, felt that time commitments and pressures from other responsibilities, were at least two reasons for a decision not to participate in the study. By the very nature of their membership in this group, these women are involved in a number of career, professional, and community activities, making it difficult to comply with a research request.

A disadvantage to survey research is that ordinarily it does not penetrate very deeply below the surface. The scope of the information sought is usually emphasized at the expense of depth (Kerlinger, 1973, p. 422). The typical mail questionnaire contains few, if any, open-ended questions. This researcher was pleased with the incisive answers given to the five open-ended questions on the questionnaire. In addition, 86% of the respondents agreed to be considered for the interview phase of the study, where greater depth of information could be attained, and checking of more effective communication is possible.

Age and occupational area are the key independent variables of this study. While assigning each subject to an age category was no problem, the classification by occupation posed a unique situation. A few of the women, regardless of their primary professional grouping (e.g. biologist, attorney, or accountant), have reached managerial and/or administrative positions within their fields and at their work settings.

This fact presented the possibility of overlap in the two major occupational groups of the study: professional and technical workers, and managers and administrators. This researcher used the occupational history given on the mail questionnaire to assign each subject to the most appropriate occupational group. Each subject was also given a three digit Dictionary of Occupational Titles (D.O.T.) number, which offered a more specific occupational grouping for further comparison.

Organization of the Study

This study is organized under five major headings. Chapter I of this report includes the statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, the hypotheses, definition of terms, and limitations of the study. Chapter II will review the literature that pertains to the background characteristics and current lifestyles of high achieving women, the variables of age and occupational fields as they relate to the present study, and the career development of women. Chapter III discusses the research methodology and includes a description of the subjects and a review of the instrumentation and procedure. The data will be analyzed in terms of the study's hypotheses and areas of inquiry in Chapter IV. Chapter V will examine the results for their implications and will offer recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter will present a review of the related literature. In the first section, a review is given of past studies of high achieving women and focuses on those background and current lifestyle factors found to characterize them. The studies reviewed cover a broad range of occupations, and include research on high achieving women in both traditional and nontraditional occupations. Section two discusses research pertinent to women's career development. Sections three and four deal with the variables of age and occupation as they related to the present study.

Background and Current Lifestyle Characteristics of High Achieving Women

While women entered predominantly male occupations in increasing numbers during the 1972-1981 period (U.S. Women's Bureau, 1983), they continue to be underrepresented in many of those professions. Accordingly, the great majority of studies of high achieving women over the past two decades, have used subjects in nontraditional occupations as examples of high achievers. One explanation for this trend has been that women who have chosen nontraditional fields and have been successful, or have distinguished themselves in more traditional areas, may have faced and overcome obstacles typical of women's career development, and thus deserve our attention (Barnett &

Baruch, 1978, p. 25).

Common themes are being found in the backgrounds of these high achieving women. What these characteristics are showing is some combination of factors which have helped to provide a background or potential for high achievement in women. To come from such backgrounds is clearly not a sufficient guarantee that a girl will be successful; in fact, most girls from such families are not (Barnett & Baruch, 1978). Some factors, such as birth order, are out of the control of the women or their families. However, "the ways in which these characteristics affect individuals and the reasons they are associated with success, can be analyzed so as to guide decisions and actions that are a matter of choice" (Barnett & Baruch, p. 28).

Standley and Soule (1974) studied women in the male-dominated professions of architecture, law, medicine, and psychology, comparing their personal and vocational histories. While some differences were found among these groups of professionals with respect to their histories and their vocational and social lives, several similarities were also discovered. Chief among these was a feeling among the women that they were raised as "special" children and are now "special" women (p. 257).

Barnett and Baruch (1978) cite certain characteristics as common in the backgrounds of successful women: being foreign born; having immigrant parents; coming from an affluent family; having one or both parents with high occupational and/or educational status; being an eldest or only child; and having no brothers (Barnett & Baruch, p. 26). They note that these characteristics can occur singly or in

combination. Among the studies cited to support their conclusions are those of Astin (1969), Constantini and Craik (1972), Cartwright (1972), and McDonagh (1975).

Astin carried out a large-scale survey of women who had received Ph.D.'s in 1957-1958. She found that women coming from a high socioeconomic background and having foreign-born parents were more frequent than in the general population, as were those with the status of eldest or only child. Studies of female political leaders (Constantini & Craik, 1972) and of women medical students (Cartwright, 1972), have also revealed that such women come from affluent families. According to McDonagh, that same is true of women listed in Notable American Women (Barnett & Baruch, p. 26). "Reasons for the advantage of high socioeconomic status seem relatively clear. All other things being equal, in such families money is available for girls' education; and, in addition, parents exemplify and model the values, traits, and goals salient to achievement" (Barnett & Baruch, p. 27).

Helson (1971), in her study of women mathematicians considered especially creative, found that a significantly higher percentage of creative female mathematicians had either been born outside the United States or had at least one foreign-born parent, compared to less creative women mathematicians or to creative male mathematicians. Reviewing the results of a number of studies on women in male-dominated occupations, Lemkau (1979) notes that the foreign origin contributes to Ph.D. and professional status, but not to attainment in politics or business. Helson also found that although eldest child status distinguishes creative male mathematicians, the lack of a

brother is what distinguishes creative females (Barnett & Baruch, pp. 26-27).

In Margaret Hennig's (1970) study of 25 of the then-existing 100 top-level women executives in large companies, not one had a brother, and all were first-born or only children. "It appears that when achievement-oriented parents have no boys, a girl, usually the eldest, is sometimes selected as the 'son'--the vehicle for parents' achievement wishes and goals (Barnett & Baruch, p. 27).

In a later study, Lemkau (1983) found that women in atypical professions are more frequently firstborn than equally educated women in sex-typical professions. However, contrary to prediction, the former are not less likely to have brothers than the subjects in sex-typical professions. Steward, Steward, and Dary (1983), studying women who choose to enter the ministry, found a trend for the older women in their sample to be first born. In contrast, significantly more younger women were the last born in the family.

In a review essay of women and business management, Brown (1979) profiles the successful woman manager. Noting that marital status and husband's attitude are immediate influences that may affect career patterns, Brown then focuses on the antecedent influences, or, those certain aspects of socialization that may shape later work experiences of women who become managers. She points to the "discernible but restricted effect of: 1) Birth order position; 2) Social class, occupation of father and personal relationship to father; and 3) Mother's work experience" (Brown, p. 287).

Lemkau (1979) found that no single constellation of personality

and background factors emerges as consistently characteristic of the woman who pursues a male-dominated occupation. The subjects represented in her review include: only children, children from large families, immigrant women, daughters of well-established American professional couples, children of employed mothers, children of women who never worked outside the home, and so forth (Lemkau, p. 236). Even with such heterogeneity, Lemkau notes trends which include the following:

She is the oldest child of a stable marriage. Her mother is probably as well-educated as her father and was employed during her childhood. Her father is better educated than most and employed in a professional or managerial position. In keeping with the educational and employment status of her parents, her family tended to be upwardly mobile. If her atypical role is one requiring high education, the probability that she, or one, or both parents were foreign born is higher than expected in the general population (Lemkau, p. 236).

This prototypic woman reports having been close to both of her parents, recalling that they emphasized achievement, hard work, and education. Her parents conveyed by work and example that competence was as appropriate for girls as for boys. She reports that they were supportive of each other in diverse endeavors, and that they encouraged her to experiment with "masculine" as well as "feminine" activities and behaviors (Lemkau, pp. 236-237).

Frieze, Parsons, Johnson, Ruble, and Zellman (1978) compiled a list of characteristics of successful women and women with high career aspirations. Their sources were the following: Ginzberg (1966); Angrist and Almquist (1975); Parsons, Frieze, and Ruble (1976); and Rossi (1967). The characteristics are:

Characteristics of Successful Women and Women with High Career Aspirations

Family Background

Supportive father

Mother who is happy in a career or who is unhappy as a traditional homemaker

Marriage/Children

Husband who supports the idea of the woman's career

Late marriage or is single

No children or children after the career of the woman is established

Early return to work after having children

Personality Characteristics

Nontraditional values

Enjoy solitary activities

Tomboy as a child

Other Influences

Female role models (Frieze et al., p. 248)

In a 1981 article examining the empirical evidence concerning factors influencing women's choices of nontraditional careers, Auster and Auster focus on the role of the family, peers, and counselors. They found that if the phrase "more likely than not" is placed before the following generalizations, then it can be provisionally stated that women entering nontraditional careers will more likely than not emerge from an environment in which:

1. The mother works, probably in a high-level, nontraditional occupation.
2. The father is an achievement role model and source of

occupational identification for the daughter's career orientation.

3. Both parents are supportive of their daughter's career orientation, sometimes in different ways and with varying importance at different stages of their daughter's life.
4. Family socioeconomic status is high.
5. Family size is small and she is the first born.
6. The peer group serves as a supportive influence.
7. The influence of vocational counselors is negligible (Auster & Auster, p. 260).

The research cited thus far lays the groundwork for the important background and lifestyle characteristics of high achieving women. The present study will focus on ten of those characteristics as being those most representative of a majority of the studies. First, the studies point to the high achieving woman as being one who was an eldest or only child, or one with only female siblings. Second, the chances are that her family's socioeconomic status was high. And third, one or both parents had high occupational and/or educational status.

A fourth characteristic is that both parents emphasized achievement, hard work, education, and were supportive of an atypical orientation. "Apparently, when an achievement-oriented woman finds environmental support for the view that the consequences of success are positive, she has little reason to fear success" (O'Leary, 1977, p. 91). Similarly, Williams (1981) study of women in medicine and law shows familial support for the subjects' diverse achievement efforts, as well as a basic theme of the subjects' preference for, and parental tolerance of, nontraditionally feminine activities.

In her 1982 study of the role model influencers of nontraditional professional women, Lunneborg's findings support those of others (Auster & Auster, 1981; Birnbaum, 1975; Brown, Aldrich, & Hall, 1978; Lemkau, 1979; Standley & Soule, 1974), that "nontraditional careers are fostered more by identification with and the emotional support of both parents rather than mother or father in high school, during the undergraduate studies, and in graduate school" (Lunneborg, p. 280).

The fifth characteristic, an adjunct to parental support, is the finding of the father as an important role model for his daughter. He acts as a guide, mentor, and facilitator, and is supportive of the daughter's career aspirations. Subjects in atypical professions report paternal encouragement for their working with science projects, Erector sets, and other problems, experiences that allows a young girl to assess the "goodness of fit" between her own skills and proclivities and those appropriate to atypical fields (Lemkau, 1983, p. 163). With data based on Hennig's (1970) dissertation, Hennig and Jardim (1976) note that all 25 top-ranked executives in the original study had strong father-daughter relationships (Greenfield, Greiner, & Wood, 1980, p. 293).

Standley and Soule (1974) note the importance of the father as a respected role model:

It appears, then, that these proud fathers were respected role models of career success, and their daughters feel that they are following these examples of accomplishment instead of the feminine model of social competence and physical attractiveness. However, there are indications that the women's relationships with their mothers were especially formative and are differently supportive. The family pattern described is classically patriarchal, with the proviso of a strong "power behind the throne"; the distinction here is that there seems to have been a particular brand of

court ideology which encouraged the daughter to emulate the father's work style - to achieve in a traditionally male pattern (Standley & Soule, p. 251).

Brown (1979) found that as a young person, the female manager enjoyed a very close relationship with her father and identified with his occupational role. The feminine model of the mother, however, was never rejected (p. 287). Williams (1983) concludes that fathers can model instrumental behavior for girls and encourage them toward achievement in nontraditional as well as traditional fields.

A sixth characteristic is the presence of a working mother who often serves as a nontraditional role model. O'Leary cites a number of studies that have examined the influence of mothers' occupational choices and role satisfaction on the work orientation (traditional versus nontraditional) of their daughters (Almquist & Angrist, 1971; Astin, 1968; Siegel & Curtis, 1963; Tangri, 1972; White, 1967).

In general, the findings suggest that nontraditionally oriented mothers who serve as role models, successfully combining family and career and expressing satisfaction with their life styles, have daughters who are similarly oriented (Baruch, 1972). The availability of such a model within the home apparently encourages daughters to adopt the working-mother role (O'Leary, 1977, p. 123).

Hoffman (1979), in an article focusing solely on maternal employment, found that there is a great deal in the family of a working mother to increase the daughter's academic and occupational competence and to contribute to positive adjustment generally.

Their mothers provide models more consistent with the roles they themselves are likely to occupy as adults; data indicate that they are more likely to admire their mothers than are daughters of non-working women and that they hold the female role in high-esteem, particularly with respect to competence (Hoffman, 1974; Romer & Cherry, Note 1). Since lack of independence training has been one of the factors hypothesized to account for

the lower occupational achievement of females (Hoffman, 1972), this difference is a particular advantage for girls. Furthermore, research has shown that high-achieving women often have a background that includes a close relationship with a warm and encouraging father, and the greater participation of the father in child care would seem likely to provide this. In addition, the husband of a working mother is more likely to approve of and encourage competence in females (Hoffman, 1974). Having household responsibilities has been found to contribute to self-esteem (Smokler, 1975), so this pattern also works in a positive direction. Thus it is not surprising that daughters of working mothers are higher achievers than daughters of nonworking mothers and show more positive adjustment on several different indices (Hoffman, 1979, p. 862).

Lemkau (1983) found that overall maternal employment is higher among subjects in nontraditional professions than those equally educated subjects in traditional professions. However, while maternal employment is higher for the former than the latter within each age cohort and for every time period assessed, groups differ significantly only for the time span between marriage and the participant's birth (Lemkau, p. 158). A post-hoc analysis of Steward et al.'s family data on women ministers indicates that significantly more of the professional mothers than professional fathers served as role models for their daughters (Steward et al., p. 171).

A seventh characteristic of high achieving women can be stated as: having a mother who is happy in a career or who is unhappy as a traditional homemaker (Frieze et al., 1978). Several studies about mothers and their relationships to their daughters' sense of self-competence have focused on the importance of the mother's own self-esteem. In a 1973 study of feminine self-esteem, self-ratings of competence, and maternal career commitment, Baruch found that maternal preference for a career has a positive effect upon subjects'

self-esteem and evaluations of their own competence; maternal employment does not.

Baruch speculates that the finding of higher self-ratings of competence among daughters of nonworking mothers may be an indirect reflection of the difficulties, conflicts, and self-doubts many working mothers still experienced at that time. The effect came mainly from the few subjects whose mothers worked but preferred not to work (Baruch, 1973, p. 488).

The subjects in Crawford's (1977) study of women in middle management had working mothers who demonstrated how to combine the demands of home and an outside job (Brown, 1979). In Hennig's (1970) earlier survey, the mothers did not work outside the home.

This discrepancy can be explained by Fogarty, Rapoport, and Rapoport's (1971) assertion that the influence on work patterns does not come from the variable of whether or not the mother worked, but from the mother's attitude toward her work situation. For example, nonworking mothers who were unhappy with their situation are associated with daughters who are more likely to work (Brown, 1979, p. 287).

In her book on women in law, Epstein (1981) found that for many women in the 1970's, their mothers were in some ways negative role models. "They felt their mothers' lives had been frustrating and unfulfilling, and their talents had been subordinated to their roles as wives and mothers. Further, many mothers encouraged their daughters not to follow in their footsteps" (Epstein, p. 31).

Studying successful women in medicine and law, Williams and McCullers (1983) highlight the feelings expressed by many of their subjects toward their mothers. "She was perceived as a positive influence and a source of emotional support; this runs counter to much

of the literature, which portrays the mother of achieving women as rather hostile, critical, and rejecting" (p. 355). Likewise, Epstein found that the influence of the mother, "Not as a model but as a 'force', may have been more important than any other single factor in guiding some of those daughters into law, although it is difficult to say exactly how their influence was manifested" (Epstein, 1981, p. 30).

In a book based on a major, three-year study of American women between the ages of 35-55, Baruch, Barnett, and Rivers (1983) said that, in addition to a growing fondness and admiration for their mothers, the adult women in the study often cited their mothers as important role models in a variety of ways.

In the psychological literature on women, one missing consideration is how a mother can function as a model for her daughter in areas other than her erotic life or her capacity for mothering. In the past, women who achieved success in the world outside home and family most often singled out their fathers as vocational models. This may be because so few of their mothers were able to achieve occupational success. In fact, only a small portion were even in the workforce. But for women whose mothers were involved in careers, the mother often was the most influential model for her daughter... So mothers have not often been "mentors" to their daughters in the strictest sense since so few worked or were in a position to be helpful with careers. But many served as models of personal strength through such qualities as perseverance, courage, drive (Baruch et al., 1983, pp. 203-204).

An eighth characteristic of high achieving women is their having had exposure to female role models. The shortage of female role models in many professions has resulted in some nonexperimental papers emphasizing the importance of female role models (Goldstein, 1979, p. 407). "Arguments for female role models have emphasized the importance of women's identification with female role models, the

significance of information provided by the model's behavior, and positive incentive through illustrative process" (p. 407).

Basow and Howe (1979) note that female teachers and college faculty have been found to be important influences on female students in regard to their achievement and success (Tidball, 1973), goals and values (Douvan, 1976), and subsequent professional achievement and productivity (Epstein, 1970; Goldstein, 1979). Douvan cites the role of a crucial older woman as prominent in the biographies of women successful in politics (Kirkpatrick, 1974), poetry (Dickinson, 1894), the academic world (Angrist & Almquist, 1975; Mead, 1972), and psychoanalysis (Deutsch, 1973; Erickson, 1965).

Steinberg (1979), in a study that included women physicians, lawyers, home economists, nurses, and homemakers, found that the backgrounds and present lives of women who enter nontraditional careers are not that different from women who enter traditional or homemaking careers. In terms of the specific variables tested, her most salient finding seems to be that the presence of both positive role models and encouragement throughout the woman's life are important to nontraditional career development, particularly for physicians (Steinberg, p. 18).

Some of the more recent literature has emphasized the importance of both males and females as role models and mentors for the high achieving woman. When the woman managers and executives in Phillips' (1977) study of mentoring were asked to name the most influential persons in terms of their career development, the women named male bosses, husbands, and both parents. Lunneborg (1982) examined five

types of influencers on professional women employed in nontraditional careers - parents, siblings, teachers, friends, and other adults. When the influence of these persons of both sexes was compared, there was no evidence that females or males were more effective at influencing nontraditional professional women.

Likewise, Lemkau (1983) found that women in atypical professions more frequently mentioned the positive influence of their fathers, boyfriends, and male teachers than did the women in sex-typical professions, who were more likely to mention female relatives (other than mothers) and female teachers as positive influencers.

Reflecting a difference in response due to age and experience, Steward et al. (1983) note that the experienced career women in their study, who entered the ministry at a time when there were few women colleagues, even in related fields such as academia, rated women role models as more valuable to them than men for all kinds of learning. The younger seminary women mentioned fewer women in ministry than the other women in the study, although they perceived the female role models they did choose as being more central to their career development than did women at other stages (Steward et al., p. 172).

In a 1979 study of career goals of college women and men and perceived achievement-related encouragement, Stake and Levitz' findings support the hypothesis that for women, the perception of greater encouragement from significant others in the immediate environment is necessary to compensate for the sex role expectation of nonachievement. Women who set high goals believe that they are acting in accord with significant others (Stake & Levitz, p. 157).

A ninth characteristic of high achieving women found in reviews of numerous studies, is that the subjects had married late or were single at present. Astin's (1969) Ph.D.s had an overall rate of marriage that is rather low compared with women in general. They also had smaller families than women in the general population, with twice as many Ph.D.s being childless, usually getting married much later.

Epstein (1973), in a comprehensive paper examining the success of black professional women, notes that her subjects generally married late if married at all. She says that traditionally, marriage has not been such a safe haven for black women, a fact that "gives them the independence, motivation, and perhaps more reinforcement of self-confidence than the white woman who may retreat to full-time marriage at the first feeling of fear or insecurity as a professional" (Epstein, p. 927). Mueller and Campbell (1977) found that, for white females, a positive relationship is observed between occupational achievement and the likelihood to remain single; for black females, the relationship is much weaker (Mueller & Campbell, p. 587).

Brown (1979) found that the executive role imposes a more demanding schedule on the personal lives of women than of men.

Although marriage has not been proven to slow career advancement, the women in these studies are only a third to a half as likely as male managers to be married. Compared with the general population, a substantially larger percentage of women in middle management are not married, and those who are married tend to marry late (Brown, p. 286).

Although causality has not been determined in the major pattern finding among the female population that is one of a strong direct relation between economic attainment and unmarried status, some fairly

impressive conjunctions have been illuminated between the economic position of females and marital status (Havens, 1978).

The findings suggest that the greater the economic independence of females, the greater the likelihood that they will be unmarried. From this datum, one might project that, the higher the economic achievement of females, the less their desire to accept the confining traditional familial sex-role of wife-mother-homemaker or to be evaluated solely in terms of that sex-role. This `rejecting marriage` inference is at least as plausible as the oft-heard `marital reject` explanation for female unmarried and is deserving of further exploration (Havens, p. 980).

Allen (1980) finds that late-marrying professional women retrospectively evaluate their career goals as relatively higher in priority than marriage, during their normative years (20 to 24), than do the normative marrying women. Also, the concept of adult identity development is used to explain many of the findings. It seems that the late marriers develop their adult identities in a more independent fashion, organized around career competence. The normative marriers have a less integrated and developed sense of themselves previous to marriage and look to marriage as an organizing factor in their development.

Yorkis (1981), in a study of women administrators in institutions of higher education, finds that women who have made a marriage relationship commitment do not seem to hold top level positions as frequently as single women. In addition, childless women have risen to top level positions more frequently than women with children.

In a 1978 study of family status and professional achievement in women doctorates, Broschart finds that married women and women with children are found in lower-ranking positions than single or childless women, but they do not exhibit lower levels of professional

productivity or professional recognition. "Further analysis suggests that different patterns of labor force participation may account for the observed discrepancies between the professional status and the professional recognition and productivity of married and single women doctorates" (Broschart, p. 71).

Lemkau's (1983) study of women in male-dominated professions shows most women in her study (including those in sex-typical occupations) are married. In addition, many are mothers. It should be noted that the average age of the subjects in that study was 31 years and 9 months. Lemkau says that her results contradict the image of the professional woman as occupationally competent at the expense of nurturant and expressive roles.

Interestingly, Epstein (1981) reports that one of her strongest findings is that women who achieve unusual success are more likely to be married than single. This is true both for the women lawyers interviewed in the mid-1960s and those interviewed in the mid- and late-1970s (Epstein, p. 342). She footnotes that Jonathon Cole (1979), writing on women in the scientific community, finds that married women, including those with children (but small families), tend to publish more than unmarried women (Cole, p. 6). Epstein adds that all women Nobel Laureates were married (Epstein, p. 342).

Of the 49 married lawyers interviewed by Epstein in the 1960s, about half had married after the age of 26, and nine married after 30 (p. 332). Epstein notes that this pattern of late marriage is also characteristic of women in other male-dominated fields, such as medicine, science, engineering, and dentistry. "Their median marriage

age is considerably later than that of women college graduates who do not proceed to advanced degrees, who normally marry at the age of 23, or those with some postgraduate education but no profession who marry at 24.9 years (Epstein, 1981, p. 333).

These figures must be viewed in the light of fast-changing trends in America. In February of 1980, the average age of all women marrying for the first time was 21.3. The average for men was 23.8 (New York Times, February 9, 1980). A recent report by the United States Census Bureau indicates that more and more young Americans are "putting off marriage, possibly to begin careers, as three-quarters of the men and more than half of the women under 25 are still single" (Chicago Tribune, August 23, 1984, p. 4).

The last characteristic found in most of the research on high achieving women is that their husbands support the idea of the woman's career. Husbands provide ongoing facilitative environments for their wives' careers (Anderson, 1974). "These men appear not only to have the ability to tolerate but also to take pleasure in and actively support the professional functioning of their wives" (p. 205). Surveys of women executives support the proposition that career women generally have supportive husbands with strong self-images who are not threatened by their wives' success (Brown, 1979).

In her research with lawyers, Epstein (1981) found that economic interest was only one reason husbands supported their wives. Many of the husbands are proud of their wives' accomplishments and have encouraged their climb up the ladder. "Most married partners (in law firms) we spoke to had very positive things to say about their

husbands. "He was always there, just 100 percent supportive", was the comment of one lawyer, but it typified the response of most of the others" (Epstein, p. 354).

Women's Career Development

As stated earlier, the development of a career theory which can be applicable to women has suffered because, as with achievement motivation research, many of the subjects in past career studies were males. Few would argue the existence of major and significant differences in the career development patterns of men and women, or the questionable applicability of available theories of career development to an understanding of the career development of women (Osipow, 1973). "Women's increased participation in the labor force has been accompanied by greater awareness on the part of psychologists that our ability to predict, explain, and modify women's vocational behavior is at best inadequate" (Osipow, 1973; Vetter, 1978) (Hackett & Betz, 1981, p. 326)

Fitzgerald and Crites (1980) trace the attempts by numerous researchers to apply current theories of career choice to women, turning to writers who made early attempts to construct separate theories for females.

It appears likely that the difficulty inherent in constructing separate theories of women's career development is well captured by Zytowski's (1969) remarks on the nonstatic quality of women. Osipow (1973) also focuses on this notion asserting that "so much social change is now occurring in the area of sex and vocation that any theoretical proposal made now is likely to be premature, as is any generalization about women's career development" (p. 265)" (Fitzgerald & Crites, p. 46).

Fitzgerald and Crites (1980) concede that because the role of

women in American society is changing with great rapidity, and because women are a much more heterogeneous group with respect to their life-career patterns than men, theory building is a "risky enterprise" at this point. However, they do not believe that this lack of theory for women should be taken as a rationale for ignoring theory altogether. They suggest that counselors become aware of theoretical constructs that apply to a greater or lesser degree to all persons, such as self-concept implementation and person/environment interaction (p. 46).

O'Leary (1977) provides an overview of these factors, citing role conflict, role strain, the effect of nontraditional role models, and the importance of significant others, as examples. Fitzgerald and Crites suggest that counselors working with women be thoroughly grounded in classical career development theories as well as aware of factors, such as those listed above, complicating the applications of such theories to women. This section of the review of the literature will focus on career patterns and role conflict as factors affecting women's career development. The importance of role models and the effect of significant others were already covered in this review.

Career Patterns

A number of studies have examined the general features associated with how careers unfold and how individuals adjust to various career demands across a life span (Osipow, 1976, p. 138). Traditionally, women's career plans and patterns have been closely linked to their roles as wives and mothers. Hence, in 1957, Super defined career patterns of women in terms of homemaking and/or work activities, while

for career patterns of men, only work activities are considered (Levitt, 1971, p. 376).

In 1966, Ginzberg and his associates noted that girls cannot realistically plan on a career until they know what kind of man they will marry (provided they plan to marry).

Their financial status and freedom to continue their education will be determined partially by the husband's career and his attitude toward educated and working women. In addition, the number of children that a woman plans for or bears will affect the pattern of her career life. She may elect an interrupted or a parallel system. Ginzberg postulated that this greater uncertainty in planning is probably the major difference between the sexes in their career development (Farmer, 1976, p. 13).

In Careers and Contingencies, Angrist and Almquist (1975) reported the results of a study of women attending college from 1964-1968. Chapter Four of the book is appropriately titled, "Women Choose a Life-Style, Not an Occupation". The authors note that, "The values women apply in living constantly reflect their hesitancy to make long-range plans, their urge to stay involved with people and in service, above all their orientation toward family and homemaking" (p. 125).

The authors stress that occupational choice theorists must pay more attention to the ways in which women seek to mesh occupational roles with their other concerns. "For women, the exact occupation may be less important than how much work, at which times in life, and with what kind of involvement" (Angrist & Almquist, p. 145).

In her longitudinal study of personality and situation in the prediction of women's life patterns, Stewart (1980) concluded:

The results indicate that a woman's family situation sets some limits on her career activity. That is, career persistence and

career type were both strongly negatively predicted by marriage and children in this study. However, the magnitude of the correlations left ample scope for other variables to contribute to the variance of life pattern. In short, while family situation contributes to a woman's life pattern, it does not entirely determine it (Steward, p. 204).

Baruch et al. (1983) found that some women in high prestige jobs did have an early sense of their place in the world of work.

"Sometimes this idea was definite and well articulated; at other times it was less specific - a sense of a personal destiny to do and be something important" (p. 131).

These researchers also note how interesting it is that the high prestige women in their study did not follow any one path in their career development. They describe one woman - Renee - who made a career choice later in life and went through some difficult times trying to go to school while her children were young. Another woman, Susan, a cardiac surgeon, walked a straight line and never deviated.

In the future, however, it may be harder for women to follow Renee's course, to start a whole new career close to midlife. Women now in their forties who made their career move a decade ago were able to benefit from the early momentum of the women's movement, which offered a great deal of support. The economic picture then was better, and a whole range of programs and services were created to help women reenter the job market. If the economy is weak, women may have little support in the future if they try to reenter a tight job market (Baruch et al., p. 148).

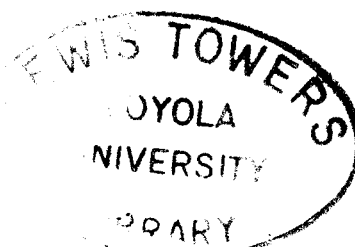
Since many women are now opting for both a career and a family, their careers are often interrupted or postponed, so that their career stages may be different from the 45 year exploration-establishment-maintenance-decline cycle that Super said characterized most men's careers (Hall, 1975, p. 121). In fact, Baruch et al. say that for women the "age and stage" theories are not the answer to understanding

the patterns of life. "Theories of women's lives that are now evolving take into account the fact that the times do change, people change with them" (1983, p. 241). The women in their study, for example, did not expect work to be central to their lives, yet for many it has turned out to be so.

Research has begun to look more closely at women's career patterns. In her study of mentors and the career development of women, Phillips (1977) found that a total of 48% of her subjects combined employment with raising a family and homemaking. Lower percentages were found with women taking time off to rear children and then returning to employment. Likewise, Gash's (1982) study of women lawyers, showed that although the women took maternity leave or delayed entry into the legal profession, the vocational and homemaker participation was not mutually exclusive. Among those women married and with children 18 and under, all of them indicated they had worked continuously except for short maternity leaves (p. 114).

When asked to pinpoint the time when they first decided upon a career in business management, 38 percent of the managers in Phillips' study indicated that they made the choice after they started working, while 32 percent made the decision prior to entering the labor market. Over a quarter (27%) of the women stated that their decision was made as result of a specific incident such as death of husband, or over a long period of time.

Epstein (1981) said that, in a larger sense, young women are for



the first time truly planning their lives. The women in her study worried about how their career plans would fit those of the men they would marry, but they were not waiting to see what men would do.

Prior to the 1970s, women often thought about work as fitting into family obligations or as an emergency measure in the event a husband or father was unable to perform the primary bread-winning role in the family. But now women were planning careers rationally, and some were putting career choices before romance (Epstein, 1981, p. 43).

The wide variety of career patterns available to women are providing new choices for them that are on the one hand, expansive and exciting, and on the other, worrisome. "Studies show that younger people in general are worrying more about their future than they used to, and young women in particular are faced with options and dilemmas around life choices - career, marriage, childbearing - that did not exist for women 20 years ago" (Baruch et al., 1983, p. 5).

Role Conflict

An issue addressed in many articles on women's career development is that of role conflict or role strain. Brannon (1976) defines a role as "any pattern of behaviors that a given individual in a specified (set of) situation(s) is both (1) expected and (2) encouraged and/or trained to perform" (p. 5) (O'Leary, 1977, p. 119). Because many of the female participants in the labor force are married, current discussion has focused on how women do (or should) perform in both career and family roles (O'Leary, p. 125).

All of us fulfill a variety of roles in pursuing our everyday activities; in the course of any day each of us may function in the roles of parent, student, employee, and daughter or son. Each of these roles carries with it a set of role relationships with other people. The requirements of the role itself, as well as the expectations of others who hold positions in our various role

sets, make behavioral demands on us. When the behavioral demands of multiple roles are incompatible, we are likely to experience role conflict (O'Leary, 1977, p. 125).

Research into role conflict has focused on whether women are experiencing role conflict, and, if so, how they are coping with that conflict. In 1970, Poloma interviewed 53 married women doctors, lawyers, and professors and found that this sample of women experienced very few role strains. "The reason was that these women - in spite of their high status jobs - did not want 'career' responsibilities and generally made any necessary compromises between home and profession in favor of home role demands" (Gray, 1983, p. 236).

In 1973, Hall and Gordon reported that among married women, employed or not, home pressures were the most important contributors to experienced role conflict, (low) satisfaction, and (low) happiness. "Apparently, home related activities are of prime concern to married women, regardless of their personal orientation (traditional versus nontraditional). Furthermore, the role conflicts experienced by women are strongly related to their perceptions of what men expect (Gordon & Hall, 1974)" (O'Leary, p. 127).

Gray (1983) cites more studies which support the notion that many married working women experience role conflicts and that these women need help dealing with their conflicts. Johnson and Johnson (1977) conducted a study of 28 dual-career families with small children and found that every woman reported major concerns over conflicts between their careers and children. The conflicts involved fatigue, emotional depletion, and, in many cases, guilt. Heckman, Bryson, and Bryson

(1977) reported similar findings in a study of 200 psychologist couples (Gray, p. 236).

Many of the early studies dealing with role conflict "suggested that most American women felt an internal ambivalence about combining career and family (Graham, 1972): they felt they had to make a choice between marriage and femininity or career and masculinity (Zinberg, 1974)" (Yogev, 1983, p. 223). Yogev goes on to say that current data on career aspirations imply that the career-marriage conflict is rapidly diminishing in importance. "Its persistence as an issue for discussion is more a function of the assumptions of educators and counselors than the perceptions of women themselves, especially young women" (p. 224).

Still, the research points to significant numbers of women reporting role-strain and role-conflict. How they deal with this conflict appears crucial to their levels of career and life satisfaction. Gray (1983) studied 300 married women doctors, lawyers, and professors. "These three professions were chosen for several reasons: all require a tremendous amount of commitment, they involve varying degrees of demands and flexibility, they are sex-typed as 'male' professions, and, finally, they are the same groups studied by Poloma (1970)" (Gray, p. 237). The results of the survey show that 77% of the women in the sample often experienced strains between their home and career roles.

In the discussion, Gray notes that it appears that professional women are taking their careers far more seriously today than in past years. The women used many different coping strategies to deal with

the role conflict, including hiring outside help to assist them with chores, sharing responsibilities for household tasks with family members, and, in some cases, considering not having children. While many more women reported role conflict than in Poloma's (1970) study, "most agreed on one thing - that the rewards of combining a profession and a family are well worth the effort" (Gray, p. 242).

In the preface to her study of young women physicians, Cartwright (1978) notes that today, women oriented toward the sciences minimize the conflict between careers and sex roles (Kirk, 1975; Perucci, 1974; Robin, 1974). In Cartwright's sample, the great majority of the young women physicians were content with medicine, finding it absorbing and satisfying.

The results pertaining to Role Harmony are more alarming with half reporting at least moderate strain in coordinating professional and sex roles. One can convincingly assert that the reason doctors tolerate strain is that their profession is so gratifying to them. Without minimizing the pleasures in work, there is still a pressing need to investigate systematically the sources of role disharmony as women enter highly demanding male-dominated professions" (Cartwright, 1978, p. 194).

Throughout the literature, life stage has been an important key to understanding role conflict in women. "The married woman's stage in life was strongly related to her experience of role conflict and pressure, whereas age was not. The results support Lansing and Kish's (1957) suggestion that life stage affects one's behavior more than chronological age" (Hall, 1975, p. 129). Since life stage in Hall's study was measured in terms of the ages and number of children in the family, the results indicate that children are a major influence on a

married woman's perceived role pressures (O'Leary, 1977, p. 126).

Baruch et al. (1983) present a concise overview on the issue of role conflict. They believe that the way the mental health field "measured" roles in the past was relatively simplistic, and sometimes overlooked roles that were less obvious but more demanding, such as that of daughter, which can cause overload, pressure, and the need to juggle responsibilities (Baruch et al., p. 140).

They also assert that there has been an immediate assumption that when women "went to work", this added role was the major - in fact, the only - source of strain. Baruch et al. cite another problem as the erroneous assumption that the person with one role is under less strain than the person with three roles.

This assumption was based on what might be called a "limited model" of resources. This model pictures energy as a pool of a fixed size. Anything drained off by one activity must therefore leave less energy for others. This model concentrates on "outgo", but doesn't take into account that a person might be recharged by certain activities, and so that activity might actually increase the size of the energy pool (Baruch et al., 1983, p. 140).

Baruch et al. (1983) found that the number of roles a woman occupied told them very little about her level of role strain. Women with three roles had only slightly higher role strain scores than women with only one role.

Barnett and Baruch (1985) describe the two most striking findings of their study. First, the role of parent rather than that of paid worker is the major source of stress for women in middle years. Second, the quality of experience within a woman's social roles is a major independent predictor of role overload, role conflict, and anxiety. The authors say that by focusing on number of roles,

theories linking role accumulation to role strain and anxiety appear to confound number of roles with occupation in particular roles. "The variance accounted for by number of roles appears to be due to special roles; this study suggests that it is mainly due to the role of mother" (Barnett & Baruch, 1985, p. 143).

Interestingly, Baruch et al. (1983) found that women who scored highest on all indices of well-being were married women with children who have high-prestige jobs. The authors note that one might expect this group to be the most harried, rushed, and conflicted, yet they were not.

This finding dovetails with that of a major study of psychiatric disorder reported in 1977 by Frederick W. Ilfeld, a professor of psychiatry at the University of California Medical School (Davis). The researchers surveyed 2,200 Chicago households, and found that the percentage of women with "high symptomatology" - a lot of problems - was twice that of men's. The only group of women who had symptom rates as low as men were employed women whose occupational status was high. In other words, they had good jobs (Baruch et al., p. 143).

These researchers speculate that the variety and richness of these women's jobs gives them a sense of vitality, rather than draining them (p. 144). They also discuss the concept of work as a buffer against stress, an escape from tension. Many women in their study told them that going to work made it easier, not harder, for them to cope with family responsibilities and problems.

The authors refer to a trend found by Joseph Pleck of the Wellesley Center for Research on Women. For years he has found evidence of "role overload" among employed women whose home and job responsibilities gave them a "work week" longer than either nonemployed women or men. But recently that differential has been

decreasing, and the reason seems to be that employed women are doing less at home, rather than their husbands are taking over. "Perhaps we are finally seeing the effects of women's `settling down` into long-term employment; they are beginning to give up dispensable household tasks and even think about building some leisure time into their lives" (Baruch et al., p. 145).

Work can provide a sense of self-esteem that seems to characterize women in good jobs. Also, since how well a woman manages the different roles in her life seems to be the key to avoiding strain, rather than the number of roles per se, the woman in the high prestige job has obvious advantages over the woman in the low-level job (Baruch et al.).

She can usually afford to pay well for child care and other household help, so she is spared the desperate search for affordable support systems. She can afford to take the family out to eat on a night when things are hectic at work, or plan a vacation. For such women, despite the burdens of managing both a family life and a challenging job, the middle adult years are filled with rewards (Baruch et al., p. 146).

Likewise, Epstein (1981) found that when faced with numerous demands, many women lawyers did not feel a sense of strain or negative stress. "Rather, these women found their lives exciting and dramatic. They developed greater energy when the demands proliferated, rather than feeling drained, and often did not define their situation as problematic" (p. 323). Epstein went on to say that those who managed work, raising children, and a number of different roles, did not do so without tension or strain or time pressures. "But personality differences, ability to allocate time, and even the differences in place - where they had their offices and where they lived - made

manipulating their lives manageable" (p. 324).

Control for Age

The two variables for which this study will control are age and general occupational area. Several studies have indicated that a control for age would be advisable in future research on high achieving women. The impact of the women's movement, the recent influx of women into the work force, and the increase of female role models, are only a few of the factors that could contribute to observed differences in such a study.

In a 1977 study of the influence of early occupational achievement of single never-married women on subsequent marital status, Mueller and Campbell found that for white females, a positive relationship is observed between occupational achievement and the likelihood to remain single; for black females, the relationship is much weaker. While they controlled for age, these researchers believe their results were not as expected because their population had such a restricted age range, from 30 through 44. "We expect that the hypothesized effects would occur in a data set that is not so restricted in age range and historical period as ours" (Mueller & Campbell, p. 592).

Brown (1979) suggests that future research answer what aspects of a profile are affected by the age of the subjects. Her study was in the area of women and business management. "Researchers must give greater consideration to delineating generational differences since there are actually three age groups of female managers working today: senior executives, middle management (about 35 to 45 years of age),

and managers under 35" (Brown, p. 288).

At the end of her study exploring personality traits of high-achieving women, Landesman (1976) suggests that a future study could test to see if significant differences are observed in personality characteristics between high-achieving women in various age groups. The purpose of such a study would be to ascertain whether there is a trend developing toward more easy access to the traditionally male-dominated fields for women. "The expectation is that since society is presumably becoming more open to female professionals, that younger women might show important differences from the older female role innovators in male dominated fields who preceded them" (Landesman, p. 132). Likewise, Steinberg (1979) notes that, "Future studies, however, should try to control for the subjects' age to rule out the possibility of confounding results" (Steinberg, p. 19).

In a study of situational and environmental factors which affect the career development of female lawyers, Gash (1982) divided the study population of 40 female lawyers into two age groups. The first group was composed of females 25-35 years of age. The second group was composed of females 44-54 years of age. The overall conclusion of the study was that the factors which affect women who choose the legal profession are similar for women regardless of age as a factor.

Gash reflects that, "The assumption that there would be large enough differences in the two groups to signify changes in the influence of sociological factors due to age may have been restrictive in the present study" (Gash, 1982, p. 115). She suggests to future

researchers that they not limit the sample to narrow age limits.

Some recent studies (Lemkau, 1983; Steward et al., 1983) show results differing from past research when subjects are compared on the variable of age. Lemkau's study points to changing trends in the areas of make-up of family of origin, the uniqueness of a working mother for only the nontraditional achieving woman, and the importance of female versus male role models. Steward et al. also offer unusual findings with regard to subjects' birth order information, and the effect of female versus male role models upon her sample.

Yogev (1983) appears to support the idea of controlling for age, as she discusses new ways that research should judge the professional woman.

Studies of the personality of professional women seem less confused and make more sense when the findings are viewed as representing earlier and contemporary views. Today's evidence does not support the earlier view that professional women face personality problems when entering careers. On the contrary, women seem to be able to have their career and gain a sense of self-worth from the effort (Yogev, p. 229).

Yogev goes on to say that changes that occurred in the general society, as well as changes in social science thinking, methodological procedures, and instrumentation, offer possible explanations for shifting viewpoints and contradictory findings.

Control for Occupational Area

The second variable for which this study will control is general occupational area. As noted earlier, many studies of high achieving women focused on women employed in fields where men predominate. Several of these studies have focused on women in one particular occupation, such as: accountants (Kaufman & Fetters, 1980); business

executives and/or managers (Berberian, 1977; Brown, 1979; Farmer & Bohn, 1970; Hennig, 1970; Phillips, 1977; Terborg, 1977; White, DeSanctis, & Crino, 1981); lawyers (Epstein, 1981; Gash, 1982); physicians (Cartwright, 1972, 1978); women in administrative positions in higher education (Goerss, 1975; Yorkis, 1981); and, women Ph.D.s (Astin, 1969; Broschart, 1978), to name just a few.

Others have examined the differences between subjects in different nontraditional occupations (Bachtold, 1976; Epstein, 1973; Feulner, 1973; Gray, 1983; Harb, 1980; Lunneborg, 1982; Milwid, 1982; Ohlbaum, 1971; Sansoni, 1982; Standley & Soule, 1982; Williams, 1981; Wright, 1981), comparing subjects on a number of variables from background factors to personality characteristics. Still others have examined the differences between women in traditional and those in nontraditional occupations (Greenfeld et al., 1980; Steinberg, 1979).

Some researchers have found that the differences between high achieving subjects have been differences unique to the nature of their specific occupations, and not necessarily related to their level of achievement per se. When comparing the personality traits of occupationally nontraditional women with men in the same occupation, "Bachtold and Werner (1971) repeatedly found similarities between men and women in each occupation, on traits which 'appear to be adaptive to their professional life styles and role expectations' (Bachtold, 1976, p. 78)" (Lemkau, 1979, p. 226). In her study of women psychologists, scientists, artists and writers, Bachtold found that "when contrasted with women in the general population, the four groups of career women were all found to be brighter, more assertive, more

adventurous, and less conservative" (Bachtold, 1976, p. 359).

Thus, while examination of occupational membership has shown unique differences in the personality profiles of both women and men, there seem to be certain characteristics of high achieving women that are clearly evidenced apart from their membership in any number of different occupations. The backgrounds and current lifestyles noted earlier in this review have been found repeatedly in studies of these women.

The literature reviewed tends to minimize the differences which might be found due to occupational membership when subjects achieving at such a high level are compared to one another. Nonetheless, it would seem prudent to provide a control for occupation while examining the more salient variables that unite the subjects as high achievers.

Summary

The literature reviewed in this section offers several areas of interest that could be examined in a study of high achieving women. This study will focus on the ten background and current lifestyle characteristics which were highlighted in the relevant studies, to see if those characteristics are applicable to the subjects in the present sample. Those characteristics are:

Family Background

- 1) Being an eldest or only child or one with only female siblings
- 2) Coming from a family of origin with high socioeconomic status
- 3) Having one or both parents with high occupational and/or educational status
- 4) Having both parents who emphasize achievement

- 5) Having a supportive father who is an important achievement role model
- 6) Having a working mother
- 7) Having a mother who is happy in a career or who is unhappy as a traditional homemaker

Other Influences

- 8) Having female role models

Current Lifestyle

- 9) Having married late or being presently single
- 10) Having a husband who supports the idea of woman's career

This study will differentiate the subjects by age and occupation. The groupings will provide a control for differences among the subjects which may be due to their membership in the designated age and/or occupation groupings. This researcher hopes that by controlling for both of these variables, especially that of age, this study will offer an accurate and current view of woman as achiever.

Hypotheses

The hypotheses to be tested in this study are in the null form.

1. There will be no significant differences among the subjects on the ten background and current lifestyle characteristics when they are compared on the age variable.

2. There will be no significant differences among the subjects on the ten background and current lifestyle characteristics when they are compared on the occupation variable.

Career Development Factors to be Examined

As was stated in the review of the literature, the development of a career theory which can be applicable to women has suffered because

many of the subjects in past career studies were males. Researchers have recommended a more systematic examination of those factors which have been shown to impact on career development in general, and women's career development in particular. Therefore, this study will examine a number of those factors as they relate to the present sample of high achieving women. This section is meant to enhance the findings of the formal hypotheses section, and to add to the growing body of research in the field of women's career development. The three areas of inquiry will include the following:

1. A brief description of aspects of the subjects' career patterns. The description will include the following questions which relate to issues important in women's career development. When relevant, the description will refer to the subjects' age and occupational area, keeping this section consistent with the rest of the study.

- A. What life patterns have these women followed in their career development?
- B. What people have influenced their career to date and on whom do they currently depend most for encouragement and moral support for their careers?
- C. What obstacles, if any, have they encountered in their career development?
- D. What factors have contributed to their career development?
- E. Have they experienced role conflict in managing their careers?

F. What is their degree of career satisfaction?

2. Demographic data not included in the formal hypotheses (e.g. educational background, number of children).

3. Responses to the questions asked in the in-depth interviews and in the open-ended questions on the questionnaire. These are meant to highlight and enhance an understanding of the background variables, current lifestyles, and career patterns of the subjects.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this study is to develop a profile of women distinguished by their achievements in business, the professions, and the arts. Further, the study will examine any significant differences among the women related to the variables of age and occupation. The goal of this chapter is to present the methodology used in this research. In the first section, the population under study will be described, followed by the procedure utilized for selecting subjects from that population. Section three contains the method for data collection and includes the format for selecting the interview subjects. Section four discusses the instruments of the study. Finally, the design and statistical procedures will be presented in section five.

Population

The subjects in this study are members of an organization for high achieving women in a metropolitan area of the midwest. (For purposes of this study, the group will be referred to as The Women's Group). The membership in this group numbered 140 at the time of this study. The organization was founded in the late 1970's by five high-ranking women who joined together to plan a network of highly qualified women, those who they felt were the ranking women in art,

science, labor, and the media.

The founders' goal was to bring together a group of peers who could and would help one another on an ongoing basis. The stated purpose of this not-for-profit group was to demonstrate by its existence that there are a substantial number of women who have attained a high level of accomplishment, leadership, and influence. The group has continued as a networking base for this diverse mixture of women who have demonstrated their achievements in a wide variety of endeavors.

The members are chosen judiciously under written specifications. For example, if a woman works for a corporation, she must be a corporate Vice-President or above; if in law, a full partner in a top firm or its equivalent, or a judge; if in the arts, someone who is nationally or internationally prominent. A politician can qualify, but only if she is a figure likely to shine after leaving office. Regularly the membership committee also tries to round out the group from fields that have been underrepresented.

Procedure

Sixty-seven adult women, ages 32 to 70, served as subjects in this study. The first step in subject recruitment was to gain permission from the Board of The Women's Group to conduct this study with its members. After an introductory letter and phone call to the acting chair of the group during the summer of 1984, this researcher met with four group members who were charged with investigating the purposes and goals of the study.

These members subsequently made a recommendation to the Board,

and permission was given to contact the members of The Women's Group to request their voluntary participation in the study. Throughout the study the Executive Director of The Women's Group acted as a liaison person between this researcher and the Board. She was a helpful and encouraging contact who provided such necessary information as names and addresses of the members of the Group.

Data Collection

In mid-February, 1985, the Executive Director of the Women's Group sent a letter to its 140 members which introduced this researcher as someone who would be contacting them shortly. The letter explained the general purpose of the study, and encouraged them to participate in the research on a voluntary basis.

In late February, a mailing was sent to each member. Included was the survey questionnaire (See Appendix B), and a letter explaining the nature of the study (See Appendix A). Also included was Consent Form A (See Appendix B).

The subjects were asked to return the completed questionnaire and signed consent form in the enclosed self-addressed stamped envelope. The subjects were also asked to indicate on that form whether or not they would consent to be interviewed at a later date. It was made clear that the subjects did not have to consent to be interviewed to be a part of the study. As a result of the first mailing:

60 of the women returned completed questionnaires.

8 women sent notes saying that they would be unable to participate in the study.

In late March and early April, 21 women who had not responded to the

first mailing were called. Phoning was possible because of the geographical proximity of a number of potential subjects to this researcher. Of that number:

3 women subsequently returned completed questionnaires.

10 women said that they would be unable to participate in the study.

8 women said that they would attempt to complete the questionnaire. Two of these women were sent duplicate questionnaires and the additional seven women were mailed duplicate questionnaires in May.

In mid-April a second mailing with a duplicate questionnaire (See Appendix A) was sent to those 51 potential subjects who had not been reached by phone and who had not responded to the first mailing. As a result of this second mailing and follow-up phone calls in early May to 29 of the 51 women:

4 women returned completed questionnaires.

5 women responded either in writing or in the follow-up phone call that they would be unable to participate in the study.

The net result was that 67 women, 48% of the total population, agreed to participate. Of that number, 58 subjects agreed to be interviewed at a later date.

For the 23 women who said "No" either through their written communication or phone contact, most of the refusals were related to time pressures. The 13 women who sent written refusals indicated that they could not participate due to time commitments. Among the commitments mentioned were professional and community activities as

well as travel. Of the 10 women who indicated over the phone that they would not be able to participate, five mentioned time commitments, two gave sickness of self or close family member as the primary reason for the refusal, and three did not give a reason for their refusal.

An acknowledgement letter of thanks was sent to each subject after her questionnaire was received (See Appendix A). Those women who indicated that they would be willing to be interviewed were told in that letter that if chosen for the interview phase of the study, they would be contacted at a later date to arrange for a meeting.

In total, 58 women, 86% of all the subjects, agreed to be interviewed to further highlight certain aspects of their background characteristics and careers. The 12 subjects to be interviewed were chosen from this pool of 58.

The method for choosing the 12 subjects was designed to have as equal representation as possible from the two key areas of age and occupation, and to accurately reflect the makeup of the sample as a whole. First, all of the subjects were categorized by age. Table 1 shows the age breakdown for both the 67 total subjects and the 58 subjects who agreed to be interviewed. The first criterion for selection of interview subjects was to have four women representing each of the three age categories.

Table 1

Distribution of All Subjects and The Potential Interview Subjects
Into One of Three Age Categories

Age Groups	% of 67 Total Subjects	% of 58 Potential Interviewees
Ages 54 - 70	34%	35%
Ages 45 - 53	35%	36%
Ages 32 - 44	31%	29%

To address occupational membership, the Dictionary of Occupational Titles (D.O.T.) job classification system was used to assign each subject a three-digit occupational code number. In addition, each subject was placed in a two-digit occupational division which utilizes the first two digits of the code number. The divisions are listed in the D.O.T. as follows:

Professional, Technical, and Managerial Professions

Clerical and Sales Occupations

Service Occupations

Agricultural, Fishery, Forestry, and Related Occupations

Processing Occupations

Machine Trades Occupations

Benchwork Occupations

Structural Work Occupations

Miscellaneous Occupations

All of the subjects of this study work in occupations which come

under the first division, that of Professional, Technical, and Managerial Occupations. In order to provide some control for possible differences within this broad category, each subject was assigned to either the general area of professional and technical workers (D.O.T. 3-digit codes beginning with numbers 00-15), or the general area of managers and administrators (D.O.T. 3-digit codes beginning with numbers 16-19).

As stated in the limitations of this study, a few of the women, regardless of their primary professional grouping (e.g. biologist, attorney, or accountant), have reached managerial positions within their fields and at their work settings. This fact presented the possibility of overlap in the two major occupational groupings. The occupational history given on the self-administered questionnaire was used to assign each subject to the most appropriate occupational grouping.

Table 2 presents the occupational breakdown for the 67 subjects when they are placed in either the professional workers or managers and administrators category. Table 2 also shows the same breakdown for the 58 subjects who agreed to be interviewed. To accurately reflect the percentages of women in the two occupational categories shown in Table 2, the second criterion for selection of interview subjects was to have five women representing the Professional Workers and seven women representing the Managers and Administrators.

Table 2

Distribution of All Subjects and The Potential Interview Subjects
Into General Occupational Areas

Occupational Area	% of 67 Total Subjects	% of 58 Potential Interviewees
Professional and Technical Workers	40%	41%
Managers and Administrators	60%	59%

Other criteria which were a part of the process of interview selection were the following:

Marital status

Children vs. no children

Birth order in family of origin

Race

General career pattern

Working vs. nonworking mother in family of origin

Every effort was made to provide an equal representation of these factors, along with the primary criteria of age and occupation already described, in the selection of the 12 subjects to be interviewed.

In late May, the 12 subjects to be interviewed were contacted to arrange a convenient meeting time (See Appendix A). The interviews took place during the months of June and July, 1985. With the exception of one interview which was held at the subject's home, all interviews were conducted at the subjects' work place.

The interviews lasted an average of one hour each. The interview format included handwritten notes plus a tape recording of the interview session when possible. Eight of the 12 sessions were tape recorded, with subjects signing Consent Form B (See Appendix B). A letter of thanks was sent to each subject interviewed (See Appendix A).

Instrumentation

The two major assessment instruments utilized in this research project were: a self-administered questionnaire and an interview schedule (See Appendix B).

Questionnaires

The self-administered questionnaire contains 45 questions, five of which were open-ended. It addresses itself to the formal hypotheses of the study as well as to the areas to be investigated in the descriptive section. Resource questionnaires used in developing both the self-administered and interview questionnaires were from the following studies: Berberian, 1977; Hennig, 1970; Landesman, 1977; Phillips, 1977; Steinberg, 1979; and Lunneborg, 1982. The self-administered questionnaire also contains questions used in the Nontraditional Career Survey (Lunneborg, 1982), and a version of Basow and Howe's (1979, 1980) Influence of Role Model Scale. This scale has subjects rate, on a 7-point scale ranging from -3 to +3, the influence of ten significant others on their career choices. Five types of influence - parents, siblings, teachers, friends, and other adults - of both sexes - are presented.

The self-administered questionnaire was pilot-tested with 11

women who are doing well in their chosen careers. Through telephone and face to face interviews, as well as written comments on the questionnaire, it was determined whether or not the respondents had any difficulty in understanding or answering the questions. Appropriate modifications to the questionnaire were then made.

The questionnaire used with the 12 subjects interviewed in depth had 26 questions. These questions were meant to highlight and enhance an understanding of the background variables, current lifestyles, and career patterns of these women. The interview schedule was also pilot-tested with three women subjects to ascertain if revisions in content or format should be made.

Data Analysis

Analysis of the data was accomplished using two approaches:

1. Inferential statistics were used to analyze the data which relate to the formal hypotheses of the study. Chi-square tests, and appropriate t-tests were used to test for significant differences between the major variables which are part of the formal hypotheses of the study.
2. Descriptive statistics were used with the following data:
 - A. To describe the demographics of the sample not included in the formal hypotheses (e.g. level of education, number of children).
 - B. To describe any emerging trends and consistencies/inconsistencies in the subjects' career patterns and career development. These patterns were investigated in the questionnaire and in the personal interviews (e.g.

what obstacles, if any, have these women encountered in their career development?) This section did not attempt to answer research hypotheses, but offers insights into career questions. Frequency distributions were analyzed to determine trends. When appropriate, the answers to the career questions on the written questionnaire were examined according to age and occupational field of the subject, and chi-square tests were used to test for significance.

- C. To describe answers to the questions presented in the in-depth interviews. When appropriate, the qualitative data collected in these interviews were analyzed by means of frequency distributions to determine trends and categories. Because confidentiality was of utmost importance, a case study approach was not used, but a review of all 12 interviews provided trends within categories of interest to the investigation. Where possible, the information was summarized and reported as common characteristics of the 12 women interviewed.

In the fall of 1986, a summary of the findings will be sent to each woman who participated. In addition, the results will be presented to all interested group members at an informal meeting in the fall, and a copy of the study will be given to The Women's Group for their information. Chapters IV and V contain a complete presentation and analysis of the data.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present and analyze the data generated by the answers given on the self-administered questionnaires and during the in-depth interviews. The data are organized in the following manner:

1. Presentation of the general demographics of the sample.
2. Analysis of the data related to the formal hypotheses of the study.
3. Presentation and analysis of the findings related to the subjects' career development and present lifestyle.

Demographics

Age

The women studied ranged in age from 32 to 70 years. The mean age of the sample was 49.985 and the median age was 47. The distribution of ages is presented in Table 3.

Table 3

Distribution of Subjects' Ages

Age Range	n	%
31 - 35	4	6.0
36 - 40	6	9.0
41 - 45	16	24.0
46 - 50	12	18.0
51 - 55	8	12.0
56 - 60	10	15.0
61 - 65	6	9.0
66 - 70	5	7.0

Nationality of Women and Their Parents

A majority of the women (91%) and most of their parents were born in the United States. A total of 82.1% of their mothers and 77.6% of the fathers were U.S. born.

Racial or Ethnic Identification

A majority of the subjects (94.0%) were Caucasians. Table 4 presents the racial/ethnic representation of the subjects.

Table 4

Subjects' Racial or Ethnic Identification

Identification	n	% of Total
Black	3	4.5
Caucasian	63	94.0
Chicano Filipino	1	1.5

Formal Educational Level

The level of formal education attained by the women ranged from some nurse's training to doctoral and/or professional degrees (Ph.D., M.D., L.L.B., J.D.). Two women hold honorary doctoral degrees. Thirty-three percent of the subjects have received a master's degree. A number of the women also reported past or present participation in a wide variety of non-degree granting education. Table 5 shows the distribution of the sample by educational level.

Occupational History

To address occupational membership, the Dictionary of Occupational Titles (D.O.T.) job classification system was used to assign each subject a three digit occupational code number. Table 6 shows the distribution of the subjects according to the 15 occupational groups within which they fell. Each occupational area contains a number of different specific jobs. For example, occupations in college and university education, which represents the largest percentage of subjects (14.9%), includes a diversity of jobs, such as college or university president, faculty member, financial aids officer, or academic dean. Miscellaneous managers and officials, n.e.c. (not elsewhere classified), includes such jobs as project director, program manager, and president or vice-president of a company/industry. (n.e.c. indicates that the occupations do not logically fit into more precisely defined divisions or groups, or that they fit into two or more of them equally well).

Marital Status

The majority of the women (58.2%) were either married - only once

Table 5

Subjects' Educational History

Highest Level of Formal Education: Degree	n	%
Two Years Nurse's Training - No Degree	1	1.5
BA	11	16.4
Some Graduate Work	8	11.9
MA	10	14.9
MBA	5	7.5
MM	1	1.5
MSJ	3	4.5
MSN	1	1.5
MSW	2	3.0
RN	1	1.5
JD	11	16.4
LLB	1	1.5
MD	1	1.5
PHD	9	13.4
Honorary Doctorate	2	3.0

Table 6

Subjects' Occupations Using D.O.T. Occupational Groupings

Occupational Group	Occupational Code	Percent of Total
Architectural Occupations	001	4.5
Physicians and Surgeons	070	1.5
Registered Nurses	075	3.0
Occupations in College and University Education	090	14.9
Museum Curators and Related Occupations	102	1.5
Lawyers	110	6.0
Judges	111	4.5
Writers	131	6.0
Editors: publication, broadcast, and script	132	3.0
Fine artists: painters, sculptors, and related occupations	144	1.5
Sales and distribution management occupations	163	3.0
Finance, insurance, and real estate managers and officials	186	6.0
Service industry managers and officials	187	10.4
Public administration managers and officials	188	1.5
Miscellaneous managers and officials, n.e.c.	189	32.8
Association Executives		1.5
Consultants		1.5
Managers, Department		3.0
Managers, Industrial Organization		1.5
Presidents		13.4
Project Directors		1.5
Program Managers		1.5
Vice-Presidents		9.0

Note: n.e.c. = "not elsewhere classified".

(41.8%) or remarried (16.4%). Only 19.4% of the subjects were single (never married), and 14.9% were divorced. Table 7 presents the distribution of the women according to marital status.

Table 7

Subjects' Marital Status

Status	n	%
Single (Never Married)	13	19.4
Married (Only Once)	28	41.8
Divorced	10	14.9
Remarried	11	16.4
Separated	1	1.5
Widowed	4	6.0

Children

The majority of the subjects (58.2%) have had at least one child. The average number of children per mother was 2.15 (see Table 8).

Table 8

Subject's Number of Children

No. of Children	No. of Subjects	% of Total
1 or more children	39	58.2
1 child	7	10.5
2 children	21	31.3
3 children	9	13.4
4 or more children	2	3.0
No children	28	41.8

Analysis of the Data

Inferential statistics were used to analyze the data related to the formal hypotheses of the study. Chi-square tests, the phi coefficient, and appropriate t-tests were used to analyze the major variables which were part of the formal hypotheses of the study. The Yates Correction was used with chi-square statistics whenever there was at least one cell of a crossbreak containing less than five subjects.

Descriptive statistics were used to present the demographics of the sample. Descriptive statistics, as well as limited inferential statistics, were also used to describe the findings related to the subjects' career development.

Results of the 12 in-depth interviews, as well as answers given to the open-ended questions on the self-administered questionnaire, are presented when appropriate throughout this chapter. The interview results are intended to highlight and enhance an understanding of the background variables, current lifestyles, and career patterns of the subjects. Where possible the information is summarized and reported as common characteristics of the 12 women interviewed. Responses to questions asked only of the 12 interviewed subjects are presented at the end of this chapter.

Hypotheses

The hypotheses in this study are stated in the null form. The direction of testing is to reject the null hypothesis at the .05 level of significance. The hypotheses are presented in pairs as they relate to each of the ten background and current lifestyle

characteristics being examined. For each of the characteristics, reporting of any significant differences among the subjects when they are compared on the age variable will be given first, followed by any significant differences among the subjects on the occupation variable.

To test for differences among the subjects on the age variable, the sample was divided into two groups. Group 1 is those subjects ranging in age from 32 through 46 ($n = 32$), and Group 2 is those subjects ranging in age from 47 through 70 ($n = 35$). This provides an almost equal division of the subjects by age.

To test for differences among the subjects on the occupation variable, the sample was divided into two general occupational areas (see Methodology), either professional and technical works ($n = 27$) or managers and administrators ($n = 40$). A chi-square test showed no significant relation between the age and occupational categories, $X^2(1, N = 67) = .303, p < .60$ (see Appendix C, Table C-1).

Birth Order

Percentages on Table 9 shows that 59.7% of the subjects were oldest or only children, and that 74.6% of the subjects belonged in one of the following categories: oldest child, only child, or child with only female siblings but not the oldest. The subjects' birth order in family of origin was similar to former studies which showed a high percentage of achieving women to be the oldest child, only child, or child with only female siblings.

Table 9

Subjects' Birth Order Position

Order	n	%
Oldest		
Had Only Male Siblings	22	32.8
Had Only Female Siblings	15	22.4
Only Child	3	4.5
Had Only Female Siblings/Not Oldest	10	14.9
Other	17	25.4

Results of a chi-square test showed that there was not a statistically significant relation between age of the subjects and birth order position, $X^2 (1, N = 67) = .005, p < .98$ (see Table C-2). The null hypothesis, which states that when compared on the age variable there will be no significant differences among the subjects as to whether or not they were the oldest, only, or child with only female siblings, cannot be rejected.

Any difference observed between the subjects in the two general occupational areas with regard to their birth order was also not statistically significant, $X^2 (1, N = 67) = .237, p < .70$ (see Table C-2). The null hypothesis, which says that there will be no significant differences among the subjects on the birth order positions described above when they are compared on the occupation variable, cannot be rejected.

Table C-3 presents a summary of all the chi-square results on the

age and occupation variables to be discussed in this section.

Birth Order: Interview Results. Seven of the 12 interviewed subjects were the oldest in their families: one had only female siblings, one had only male siblings, and one had both. One subject was the only child and one was a child with only female siblings but not the oldest.

The interviewed women were asked whether or not they felt their birth position had an effect on their present level of achievement. Five of the subjects said that they had developed a special relationship with their parents because of their position as the oldest. One woman said that her father in particular treated her "not as a female child, but as an only child." Another oldest child remembered receiving her parents undivided attention and unmitigated support. She also said that she felt like an only child.

Two oldest women said that in talking to their younger sibling(s) in later years, they found that the younger sibling(s) had not experienced the same high level of support and encouragement as they themselves had from their parents. One subject said that her ambition, and another her organization, developed because of their positions as oldest in the family.

Almost all of the interviewed subjects, regardless of birth order position, mentioned an early awareness of their parents' high expectations for them. The interviewed subject who was an only child shared memories of her parents' and her two grandmothers' support and encouragement. The subject raised in a family with all female siblings said that she and her sisters always felt affirmed by her

parents. The women who had older brothers did not feel compared to them and said that they were treated like individuals. The subject who was the "middle child" felt unique because she was the oldest daughter and because she had always had a strong identification with her entrepreneurial father.

Family Income Level

Table 10 shows that 4.5% of the subjects described their family's income level during most of their childhood as being high, and 34.4% categorized their family's income level as being either upper middle or high. This finding ran contrary to many earlier studies of high achieving women which found that subjects were more likely than not to be from a family whose socioeconomic status was high.

Table 10

Subjects' Family Income Level

Income	n	%
Low	9	13.4
Lower Middle	14	20.9
Middle	20	29.9
Upper Middle	20	29.9
High	3	4.5
(No Response)	1	1.5

A chi-square test showed that there was not a statistically significant relation between the age of the subjects and their membership in either the low, lower middle, middle, or upper middle family income categories versus that of high family income, $\chi^2 (1, N = 66) = .748, p < .20$ (see Table C-4). Although this chi-square did not

quite reach significance, an examination of percentages on Table C-4 shows that none of the subjects between the ages of 47 and 70 described their family income level as being high as compared to 9.7% of the subjects between the ages of 32 and 46 who so described that income level. Nevertheless, the null hypothesis, which states that when compared on the age variable there will be no significant differences among the subjects as to whether or not they came from a family of high versus the four other socioeconomic status, cannot be rejected.

A chi-square test showed that any difference between the subjects in the two occupational areas as to whether or not they came from a family of high versus the low, lower middle, middle, or upper middle family income levels was also not significant, $X^2 (1, N = 66) = .118$, $p < .80$ (see Table C-4). The null hypothesis, which says that there will be no significant differences among the subjects in the two occupational areas with regard to their membership in the different socioeconomic backgrounds as examined here, cannot be rejected.

Another chi-square test, run because there was such a small percentage of subjects (4.5%) who described their family's income level as high, combined high and upper middle family incomes into one category. This test also showed no significant relation between age of the subjects and family income levels, $X^2 (1, N = 66) = .871$, $p < .40$ (see Table C-5).

It should be noted on Table C-5, however, that while none of the subjects between the ages of 47 and 70 described their family income as being high, 40% of them described that income as being upper

middle. The subjects between the ages of 32 and 46, on the other hand, had 9.7% of their subjects describe their family income as being high, and 19.3% describe that income as being upper middle. Any difference between the subjects in the two occupational areas with regard to their membership in the income level categories as modified above was not significant, $\chi^2 (1, N = 66) = .314, p < .60$ (see Table C-5).

Family Income: Interview Results. Three of the interviewed subjects described their family's income level during most of their childhood as being low, one described the level as lower middle, four as middle, and four as upper middle.

When asked if they felt that their socioeconomic status when they were growing up had an effect on their present level of achievement, the women who came from families with low income talked about feeling challenged to achieve because of their backgrounds. One subject who grew up during the depression era remembered feeling a certain urgency, not only to find work and earn money, but also to do things well. She said that she learned the value of being a perfectionist - a value which has remained with her and provided her with an incentive to achieve. A second woman from a family in the low income bracket said that although at times in her life she felt pity from others, "the disadvantages were also advantages." A third subject said that coming from such a background just made her want to improve it.

Subjects from families with lower middle and middle family incomes cited a number of factors as being important to their present level of achievement. One woman said that her parents instilled in

her a sense of all of the interesting things in life that can be accomplished and enjoyed regardless of economic status. She felt that because of her parents' attitudes, she had a special position in the somewhat structurally-limited small town where she lived, a town where people who had money seemed to live a very limited existence.

Subjects mentioned that although their families were not in the upper middle or high income brackets, they did not remember their families worrying about money. One woman said that her parents spent any extra money on courses and other educational experiences for herself and her siblings. Still another subject remembered the importance of the contacts that she made with the professionals around her when she was growing up. These professionals, both relatives and friends of her parents and in the middle income level, acted as role models for her and encouraged her to fulfill her potential.

Subjects from families in the upper middle income level talked about an awareness of the special opportunities that they had when they were growing up. For example, one woman expressed gratitude for having been able to attend and reside on campus at an expensive university. That university offered the curriculum she wanted and had a reputation which helped her to get her first job. Other enriching experiences these women cited ranged from trips to the World's Fair and museum outings, to the opportunity to have had an extensive home library.

A woman from a family in the upper middle income bracket said that she felt that the standards and attitudes she received from her parents could be transmitted to one's children regardless of income

level. In the same vein, another subject referred to a "sense of having resources" - financial as well as intellectual and social - that her parents shared with her. Finally, a subject raised outside of the United States said that in her country, people in the upper middle class income bracket automatically assumed that able men and women within that bracket would achieve professionally.

Parents' Occupational and Educational Status

The educational level and usual occupation of the subjects' parents are displayed on Tables 11 and 12 respectively. The subjects' parents are categorized into the occupations shown using the Dictionary of Occupational Titles (D.O.T.) job classification system, whereby each parent is assigned a 2-digit occupational division and placed in the appropriate category. The one exception is the category called Homemaker with Significant Community Activities. That category is included to reflect those mothers who are members of the homemaker category but whose daughters wrote in several community activities with which their mothers were involved.

Calculations show that 57 subjects, 85.1% of the sample (see Table C-6), had one or both parents with high occupational and/or educational status. For purposes of this study, high occupational status was defined as membership in the professional, managerial or sales occupational divisions. High educational status included those categories from some college through Ph.D. or Professional Degree. This finding was similar to those of former studies which showed that high achieving women had one or both parents with high occupational and/or educational status.

Table 11

Parents' Education Level

Level	Percent of Parents	
	Father	Mother
Elementary Education	13.4	11.9
Some High School	11.9	11.9
High School Diploma	13.4	20.9
Some College	11.9	20.9
Bachelor's Degree	16.4	13.4
Some Graduate Work	7.5	7.5
Master's Degree	9.0	10.4
Ph.D. or Professional Degree Such as Law or Medicine	14.9	3.0
(No Response)	1.5	---

Table 12

Parents' Usual Occupation

Occupation	Percent of Parents	
	Father	Mother
Homemaker	---	43.3
Homemaker with Many Community Activities	---	14.9
Professional and Technical Workers	26.9	13.4
Managers and Administrators (Except Farm)	37.3	10.4
Sales Workers	14.9	9.0
Craft Workers	11.9	---
Operatives (Except Transport)	4.5	---
Clerical Workers	---	3.0
Nonfarm Laborers	1.5	1.5
Service Workers	---	1.5
Farm Workers	3.0	1.5
(No Response)	---	1.5

A chi-square test showed the relation between the subjects' age and their parents' combined occupational and educational status in the two categories presented was not significant, $X^2 (1, N = 67) = 2.441$, $p < .15$ (see Table C-6). The null hypothesis, stating that when compared on the age variable there will be no significant differences among the subjects as to whether or not they had one or both parents with high occupational and/or educational status, cannot be rejected.

A chi-square test run showed that there was also not a statistically significant relation between occupational area of the subjects and the parents' combined occupational and educational status, $X^2 (1, N = 67) = .137$, $p < .80$ (see Table C-6). The null hypothesis, which says that when compared on the occupation variable there will be no significant differences among the subjects as to whether or not they had one or both parents with high occupational and/or educational status, cannot be rejected.

Parental Influence on Career Choice

On the questionnaire, the subjects were asked to describe behaviors through which their parents had influenced their careers (see Table 13). Using a classification similar to that in Lunneborg's 1982 study of women college graduates, the behaviors described in the responses were placed into one of the following five categories, in addition to those which were blank or not applicable (parent deceased): 1) Negative Influence; 2) No Influence; 3) Passive Acceptance or Mixed Emotions; 4) Occupational Role Modeling (a good example with or without an emotional tie); and 5) High Encouragement (active, strong, emotional support and encouragement to reach high

goals). The categories were not considered points on a continuum. As in Lunneborg's study, there seemed to be several factors underlying each category. Only one category was assigned to each woman (the one she gave most attention to), although in some cases more than one type of influence was felt from each parent.

Table 13

Parents' Influence on Career Choice

Type of Influence	Percent of Parents	
	Father	Mother
Negative Influence	6.0	1.5
No Influence	3.0	6.0
Passive Acceptance/Mixed Emotions	6.0	16.4
Occupational Role Model	23.9	16.4
High Encouragement	52.2	50.7
NA (Deceased Parent)	3.0	3.0
(No Response)	6.0	6.0

Results showed that 76.1% of the fathers and 67.1% of the mothers of all 67 subjects had been either occupational role models or highly encouraging toward the subjects reaching high goals (see Table 13). Of the 59 subjects responding, 66.1% had both parents who emphasized achievement, either through role modeling or high encouragement (see Table C-7). This finding was similar to earlier research. Only 3.4% of the 59 subjects responding reported that neither parent emphasized achievement. (Four subjects did not respond to the question and four subjects had one deceased parent).

A chi-square test showed no statistically significant relation between age and parental influence on career, $X^2 (1, N = 59) = 1.009$,

$p < .40$ (see Table C-7). The null hypothesis, which states that when compared on the age variable there will be no significant differences among the subjects as to whether or not they have both parents who emphasize achievement, cannot be rejected.

Likewise, a chi-square test showed no statistically significant relation between occupational field and parental influence on career choice, $X^2 (1, N = 59) = 1.544$, $p < .30$ (See Table C-7). The null hypothesis, which says that when compared on the occupation variable there will be no significant differences among the subjects as to whether or not they have both parents who emphasize achievement, cannot be rejected.

Father as an Important Achievement Role Model

Findings showed that for the 61 subjects responding, (four subjects did not respond to the question and two subjects' fathers were deceased), 83.6% of the fathers provided either an occupational role model or high encouragement to their daughters (see Table C-8). This percentage represents 76.1% of the total sample. The fathers of the present subjects played an important role in most of these women's lives, as they have been found to do in former studies of high achieving women.

A chi-square test did not show a statistically significant relation between age and father's influence on career, $X^2 (1, N = 61) = .416$, $p < .60$ (see Table C-8). The null hypothesis, which states that when compared on the age variable there will be no significant differences among the subjects as to whether or not their fathers provided either an occupational role model or high encouragement,

cannot be rejected.

Likewise, a chi-square test did not show a significant relation between occupational field and father's influence on career, $X^2 (1, N = 61) = 1.228, p < .30$ (see Table C-8). The null hypothesis, which says that when compared on the occupation variable, there will be no significant differences among the subjects as to whether or not their fathers provided either an occupational role model or high encouragement, cannot be rejected.

While a majority of subjects from both occupational areas had fathers who were either occupational role models or offered high encouragement, the percentage of managers/administrators who could be so described reached 89.2% as compared to 75% of the professional/technical workers (see Table C-8). This especially high percentage for the former group was reflected in their comments on the open-ended questions and during the in-depth interviews.

Parental Influence on Career Choice: Interview Results and Answers to Open-Ended Questions. Many of the subjects who reported that one or both of their parents had supported them and encouraged them to reach for high goals, said that that encouragement was not directed toward a specific career, but toward high achievement in general.

As noted earlier, most of the subjects received support from their mothers. Examples of that support, given by a sampling of all the subjects, included the following: mothers encouraging their daughters to further their education, urging them to be strong individuals, boosting their self-confidence and praising their

accomplishments, providing special learning experiences for them, being optimistic about their futures, sharing the importance of values, and providing in themselves excellent role models of women with high energy levels who work hard.

There were those subjects who described their mothers as being a negative or neutral influence, or accepting their achievements passively or with mixed emotions. Some of these subjects suggested that their mothers felt afraid, uneasy, or disappointed about their interest in fields away from a more traditional female orientation; while others said just that they received no support, encouragement, or direction from their mothers. Other mothers were concerned about how their daughter's career might fit in with marriage. Interestingly, a few of the subjects stated that they saw their mothers' attitudes change and become more supportive as they became more successful.

For those subjects who said that their mothers provided either role modeling or high encouragement, seven said that their fathers provided an identical or very similar type of support. Other subjects, however, described their fathers support in one of three different ways.

One type of support occurred when the subjects were personally and experientially introduced to a specific occupation by their fathers. The majority of these career introductions were in the field of business and took place with women who later held managerial or administrative positions themselves.

For example, subjects talked about their fathers giving them

opportunities to work at their companies during the summers, teaching them to understand the business work environment, showing them their own strengths and weaknesses as businessmen, grooming them for the corporate world, and directly influencing their choice of career. Two women, now in the business field, said that they emulated their fathers' strong wills and ability to take risks, and believe that they adopted these characteristics as a result.

A second type of support described by the subjects was their fathers' wish that they be financially independent. One woman's father translated that independence into "honoring" their family. Another shared that her father told her that she should have some experiences of independence before getting married. One interviewed woman said that her father clearly communicated that education lasts forever, while husbands may come and go.

A third type of support mentioned by subjects was a feeling of closeness to their fathers because their fathers shared business, political, social, and philosophical ideas with them. Subjects remembered their fathers talking to them, arguing with them, advising them, and taking them seriously throughout their many discussions.

Some of the subjects said that their fathers did not offer them support or encouragement to achieve. One reason given by a few of those subjects was that their fathers held traditional views regarding a woman's role in the world.

Closeness to Mother and Father. When asked on the written questionnaire how close they felt to each parent up to the age of 18, the subjects responded as follows: 70.2% of the women had been

"moderately close" or "very close" to their mothers, and 70.2% of the women had been "moderately close" or "very close" to their fathers.

Mother's Employment History

Table 14 shows that 55.2% of the subjects' mothers had worked outside of the home at some time during the subjects' childhood (through age 18). This percentage included those mothers who rarely had a regular job, through those mothers who always had a regular job. The percentage of mothers who had no regular job was 44.8%. A chi-square analysis did not show a statistically significant difference between those mothers who had ever worked and those mothers who had never worked, $X^2 (1, N = 67) = .73, p < .40$. These results ran contrary to former research which said that it was a common characteristic of high achieving women to have had a working mother.

Table 14

Mothers' Employment History

Employment Status	n	%
Never Had Regular Paid Job	30	44.8
Rarely Had Regular Paid Job	9	13.4
Worked From Time to Time	8	11.9
Worked About Half the Time	6	9.0
Had a Paid Job More of the Time Than Not	8	11.9
Almost Always Had a Regular Paid Job	6	9.0

The results of a chi-square test showed a statistically significant relation between age and whether or not the mother of the subjects worked, $X^2 (1, N = 67) = 6.869, p < .01$ (see Table C-9). The strength of the relation, using the phi coefficient, was .320. The

null hypothesis, which says that when compared on the age variable there will be no significant differences among the subjects as to whether or not their mothers worked, can be rejected. Percentages on a crossbreak of the chi-square analysis (see Table C-9) showed that 71.9% of the mothers in Age Group 1 (32 through 46) worked, but only 40% of the mothers of subjects in Age Group 2 (47 through 70) worked.

No significant difference was found between the subjects in the two general occupational areas when examining their relation to their mothers' employment histories, $X^2 (1, N = 67) = .002, p < .99$ (see Table C-9). The null hypothesis, which states that when compared on the occupation variable there will be no significant differences among the subjects as to whether or not their mothers worked, cannot be rejected.

Mother's Feelings About Work and/or Homemaking

The main purpose of this section was to address the finding of earlier studies which showed the mothers of high achieving women to be either working mothers who felt happy in a career or nonworking mothers who were unhappy as traditional homemakers. First, frequency counts on Table 15 show that of the 37 mothers of subjects who worked outside of the home, 32 (86.5%) reported that their mothers felt mildly positive or very positive about working, with 56.8% of those responses being in the very positive category (1 subject of a working mother did not record her mother's feelings). Second, as Table 16 shows, 21 (70%) of the 30 mothers who did not work outside of the home felt mostly or entirely satisfied with their homemaker role.

Combining the data (see Table C-10) shows that 60.9% of the

Table 15

Working Mothers' Feelings About Work

Feeling	n	%
Very Negative	--	0.0
Mildly Negative	4	10.8
Mildly Positive	11	29.7
Very Positive	21	56.8
(No Response)	1	2.7

Table 16

Homemaking Mothers' Satisfaction With Homemaker Role

Feeling	Mothers Who Did Not Work Outside of the Home	
	n	%
Not at All Satisfying	1	3.3
Slightly Satisfying	6	20.0
Mostly Satisfying	16	53.3
Entirely Satisfying	5	16.7
Not Applicable (NA)	1	3.3
No Response	1	3.3

subjects' mothers fit into the category of being either working mothers who felt happy at work ("mildly positive" or "very positive") or nonworking mothers who felt unhappy as traditional homemakers ("not satisfied" or "slightly satisfied"). This finding deviated slightly from former research since the proportion of subjects' mothers who fit into this category versus those who did not was not significant at the .05 level, $X^2 (1, N = 64) = 3.063, p < .10$. One explanation for this difference could be the impact of the relatively high percentage (70%) of subjects' mothers already cited, who did not work outside of the home but who felt mostly or entirely satisfied with their role as homemakers.

Comparing the subjects on the age variable with regard to this characteristic (see Table C-10) did not find a significant difference at the .05 level, $X^2 (1, N = 64) = 3.216, p < .10$. However, an analysis of percentages showed that the subjects in Age Group 1 (32 through 46) had 71.9% of their mothers who fit into the category of working mother who is happy at work or nonworking mother who is unhappy as a homemaker, while only 50% of the subjects in Age Group 2 (47 through 70) fit this description.

A chi-square test run to examine the relation between occupational area and the above categories was also not significant, $X^2 (1, N = 65) = 0.015, p < .95$ (see Table C-10). The null hypothesis, which says that when compared on the occupation variable there will be no significant differences among the subjects as to whether or not their mothers were happy in a career or unhappy as traditional homemakers, cannot be rejected.

Mother's Feelings About Herself. Five of the interviewed

subjects had mothers who worked outside of the home. Of the five mothers who worked, one almost always had a regular paid job, two had a paid job more of the time than not, one had a paid job only rarely, and the last was in the same profession as her husband and worked with him from time to time on a non-paid basis. Of the seven mothers who did not work, at least two of them were highly involved in community activities outside of the home.

To supplement the information gained about the mothers' feelings toward their work and homemaking, the interviewed subjects were asked to talk about their mothers' feelings about themselves as persons. The probes asked the subjects to describe their mothers' sense of self-esteem and/or self-confidence.

Of the seven subjects who said that their mothers were self-confident and felt mostly positive about themselves, three of their mothers worked and four did not. One subject said that her mother derived great satisfaction from her work outside of the home and the use of her mind and talents that it required. She remembered her mother as a good woman who made friends easily and spent much time reading, writing, speaking, and developing her musical talents. Another subject, whose mother worked, said that her mother had a positive image of herself which was reinforced by her father's support of her mother's career. She said that although her mother's economic contribution to the family was nice to have, she was sure that the family would have "gotten along" if her mother had not worked. Her parents shared the housekeeping and homemaking responsibilities in

their family.

A third subject said that her mother wanted to work, whether or not she had to work, and "she kept the job right where she wanted it to be." This subject, whose mother had been a successful young athlete, saw her mother as a superstar and as a role model who always "held it together."

A subject whose mother did not work outside of the home said that her mother did not seem to have any ambitions of her own. She was devoted to the subject's father and traveled all over the world with him. Although this subject's mother always had career ambitions for her daughter, and in that sense wished that her daughter would achieve things that she had not, the subject did not think that her mother was unhappy.

Another subject, whose mother did not work outside of the home, described her mother as a person with a good sense of self-esteem and with a talent for communicating effectively with people. She was a person who challenged herself to work to the best of her ability. She felt good about her accomplishments as a career housewife, as a mother, and as an active member of her community. The subject remembered her as a tactful and understanding person.

Still another subject whose mother did not work outside of the home said that although her mother had a financially poor childhood, she was rich in the spiritual and psychological domains. The subject called her the "principle homemaker" and remembered her skills as an accomplished designer and an avid reader. This subject said that she always saw her mother as one who had a great sense of humor, and who

was concerned with others in the world.

Three women, one whose mother worked outside of the home and two whose mothers did not work outside of the home, said that their mothers were not confident in themselves intellectually. One subject noted that her mother never saw herself as a particularly bright person, although she was comfortable with her role as wife and the social status that was afforded to her because of her husband's profession. A second subject whose mother did not work outside the home said that she believed her mother was a lot smarter - and more charming - than her mother thought she was. Although her mother was involved in her children's school activities and took an interest in their education, the subject believed that her mother never had a chance to fully use her mind. As the subject said, "She just came from another era."

A third woman, whose mother worked in the musical field on a very limited basis, also said that her mother was not confident in herself intellectually. She explained further that her mother had an innate self-confidence, but that this confidence was not in the intellectual area and came primarily from her talent as a musician.

Another subject described her mother as a shy and reserved person whose sense of self evolved as she grew older. Her mother's job was a financial necessity for the family. The subject said that her mother and her mother's friends believed that upper middle class women, who seemed to have more choices available to them, had the ideal life. Not a highly educated woman, this subject's mother always felt that if she had had more education she would have done better, a fact with which

the subject agreed.

One subject whose mother came from another country said that her mother's role as caretaker and manager of the family might have given her self-confidence, but it was a position that was not highly respected in the family. Remembering her mother's influence on her, the subject said, "I think the fact that she really pushed us to do more - even though she was limited in the way she could do it - that's important."

Female Role Models

Subjects responded to a version of Basow and Howe's (1979, 1980) Influence of Role Model Scale. This scale has subjects rate, on a 7-point scale ranging from -3 to +3, the influence of ten significant others on their career choice. The -3 to +3 scores were converted for statistical analysis to a 1-7 scale with 4 as the neutral point. Table C-11 presents the means, standard deviations, and n's for the 30 items.

This instrument was used primarily to test for any significant differences between the strengths of men and women as role model influencers for the subjects. A later question asked the subjects to name the three people who most directly influenced their career to date. The instrument was arranged so that the subjects actually responded to five pairs of influencers: mother vs. father, brother(s) vs. sister(s), male teacher(s) vs. female teacher(s), male friend(s) vs. female friend(s), and other female adult(s) vs. other male adult(s).

The five pairs were compared at each of the three time periods

among only those subjects who rated both members of the pair. The alpha level was adjusted to .003 because of the multiple t-tests being run. Tables 17, 18, and 19 present the means, standard deviations, and t 's for each of the three respective time periods. Only one of the 15 t-tests for one group reached significance. Subjects reported being influenced more by male teachers in graduate school ($M = 6.09$) than female teachers in graduate school ($M = 4.95$), $t(21) = -4.15$, $p < .001$.

With only one of the tests reaching significance, the results were similar to findings in recent research which has emphasized the importance of both males and females as role models for high achieving women. For those women who had exposure to both a male and female in the pairs listed, there was no evidence, except in the one case cited, that women or men were more effective role model influencers.

Because of the possible error that can occur when running multiple t-tests, the subjects were not compared on the age and occupation variables for this instrument. Such a comparison would have necessitated running an additional 30 t-tests, greatly increasing the likelihood of error.

It should be noted that three of the subjects added comments about the directions at the beginning of the instrument. They felt it was important to make a distinction between those who had influenced their careers in positive ways but were not role models per se, and more traditional role models. One woman said that her mother strongly supported her career choice and ambitions, although the mother was not a "positive" influence as described in the directions because the

Table 17

Means, Standard Deviations, and t's for Strength of Male and Female Role ModelsWhile Subjects Were in High School

Paired Male/Female Influences During High School		Strength of Female Influence	Strength of Male Influence	No. of S Ranking Both In Pair	t
Mother Vs Father	<u>M</u> <u>SD</u>	5.57 (1.59)	5.80 (1.57)	60	-0.87
Sister(s) Vs Brother(s)	<u>M</u> <u>SD</u>	4.39 (1.31)	4.04 (1.19)	23	-1.14
Female Teacher(s) Vs Male Teacher(s)	<u>M</u> <u>SD</u>	5.58 (1.14)	5.26 (1.29)	43	1.37
Female Friend(s) Vs. Male Friend (s)	<u>M</u> <u>SD</u>	5.36 (1.11)	5.02 (1.22)	45	1.91
Female Adult(s) Vs Male Adult(s)	<u>M</u> <u>SD</u>	5.18 (1.11)	5.24 (1.17)	38	-.39

Table 18

Means, Standard Deviations, and t's for Strength of Male and Female Role Models
While Subjects Were in College

Paired Male/Female Influences During College		Strength of Female Influence	Strength of Male Influence	No. of S Ranking Both In Pair	t
Mother Vs Father	<u>M</u> <u>SD</u>	5.36 (1.61)	5.62 (1.63)	53	-0.97
Sister(s) Vs Brother(s)	<u>M</u> <u>SD</u>	4.39 (1.04)	4.39 (1.15)	18	0.00
Female Teacher(s) Vs Male Teacher(s)	<u>M</u> <u>SD</u>	5.26 (1.17)	5.67 (1.30)	42	-1.59
Female Friend(s) Vs. Male Friend (s)	<u>M</u> <u>SD</u>	5.60 (1.23)	5.36 (1.17)	45	1.38
Female Adult(s) Vs Male Adult(s)	<u>M</u> <u>SD</u>	5.08 (1.20)	4.92 (1.11)	39	0.86

Table 19

Means, Standard Deviations, and t's for Strength of Male and Female Role ModelsWhile Subjects Were in Graduate School

Paired Male/Female Influences During Graduate School		Strength of Female Influence	Strength of Male Influence	No. of S Ranking Both In Pair	t
Mother Vs Father	\bar{M} \bar{SD}	5.50 (1.48)	5.73 (1.49)	26	-0.84
Sister(s) Vs Brother(s)	\bar{M} \bar{SD}	4.47 (0.92)	4.27 (0.80)	15	-1.38
Female Teacher(s) Vs Male Teacher(s)	\bar{M} \bar{SD}	4.95 (1.13)	6.09 (1.15)	22	-4.15***
Female Friend(s) Vs. Male Friend (s)	\bar{M} \bar{SD}	5.66 (1.08)	6.00 (1.00)	35	-2.24*
Female Adult(s) Vs Male Adult(s)	\bar{M} \bar{SD}	5.43 (1.20)	5.43 (1.11)	28	0.00

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

subject did not want to emulate her life - nor did her mother expect her to. Another subject shared that her mother influenced her positively because she wanted her daughter to be something more than she was.

Marital Status and Age at Time of Marriage

Some former research on high achieving women has found its subjects to be single or to have married late. This section will examine both the marital status of the present subjects and their age at the time of marriage. It will then compare those combined factors to the findings of earlier studies.

A frequency count of marital status of the subjects (see Table 7) shows that 19.4% of the women were single, never married. If one includes the divorced and separated subjects in a presently single category, the percentage increases to 35.8% (see Table C-12). The married and remarried women (58.2%) were a simple majority of the sample. That majority became significant (64.2%) if the widowed subjects were included, $X^2 (1, N = 67) = 5.38, p < .05$.

To test for a possible relation between occupation and marital status (single, divorced, or separated versus married, remarried, or widowed), a chi-square was run. The results were not significant, $X^2 (1, N = 67) = 1.924, p < .20$ (see Table C-12). However, a chi-square for a possible relation between those single (never married) and all other marital status categories combined was significant at the .05 level, $X^2 (1, N = 67) = 5.400, p < .05$ (see Table C-13). An examination of percentages on the chi-square crossbreak (see Table C-13) shows that 30% of the Managers/Administrators had never married

as compared to 3.7% of the Professionals who fit the description.

When asked their age at the time of their first marriage, 69.8% of the 53 ever-married subjects who reported that age (one subject did not report an age) were married before their 26th birthday. As Table 20 shows, 86.8% of the subjects were married before their 29th birthday, and 90.6% were married before their 30th birthday.

Different studies have defined "late marriage" in different ways. In Epstein's study of women lawyers (1981) whom she interviewed during the 1960's, about half of the 49 married lawyers had married after the age of 26 (p. 232), which was considered late. Obviously, these dates reflect changing trends in America. In February of 1980, the average age of all women marrying for the first time was 21.3. The average for men was 23.8 (New York Times, February 9, 1980). Yet, a recent United States Census Report indicates that three-quarters of the men and more than half of the women under 25 are still single (Chicago Tribune, August 23, 1984, p. 4).

Because the present sample spans an age range from 32 through 70, this study placed those subjects who married at or after the age of 25 into the category of "late marriers". Table 20 shows that of the 53 ever-married subjects, 17 (32.1%) fit that description. This was certainly not a majority of the ever-married subjects, although it seems important to note here that 11 (16.4%) of the subjects had remarried at a later date.

When this fact is combined with the subjects' marital status, as it was in the Frieze, Parsons, Johnson, Ruble, and Zellman study (1978), those subjects who were presently single (never married,

Table 20

Age at Time of First Marriage

Age	n	% of 53 Ever-Married Subjects Who Reported Married Age	Cumulative Percent
17	1	1.9	1.9
20	5	9.4	11.3
21	7	13.2	24.5
22	9	17.0	41.5
23	9	17.0	58.5
24	5	9.4	67.9
25	1	1.9	69.8
26	2	3.8	73.6
27	2	3.8	77.4
28	5	9.4	86.8
29	2	3.8	90.6
30	2	3.8	94.3
32	1	1.9	96.2
34	1	1.9	98.1
58	1	1.9	100.0
Not Appli- cable or No Response	14		

divorced, or widowed) or had married late (after their 24th birthday), were compared to those subjects who were presently married (married - only once - or remarried) and had not married late. As Table C-14 shows, 34 (50.7%) of the subjects fit into the first category, which is not a significant proportion of the sample. It thus cannot be said that the majority of high achieving women in this sample had married late or were presently single.

A chi-square test revealed no statistically significant relation between age and the combined categories described above, $X^2 (1, N = 67) = .368, p < .60$ (see Table C-14). The null hypothesis, which states that when compared on the age variable there will be no significant differences among the subjects as to whether or not they had married late or were presently single, cannot be rejected.

A chi-square test showed no statistically significant relation between occupational membership and the two categories presented, $X^2 (1, N = 67) = .126, p < .75$ (see Table C-14). The null hypothesis, which says that when compared on the occupation variable there will be no significant differences as to whether or not they had married or were presently single, cannot be rejected.

Husband's Attitude Toward Wife's Career

Percentages on Table 21 shows that for the 48 subjects reporting their present or former husband's attitude toward their career, 89.5% said that their husbands were either mildly or very supportive of their careers, with 83.3% reporting very supportive husbands. These findings were consistent with earlier research that reported husbands of achieving women to support the idea of their careers.

Table 21

Husband's Attitude Toward Wife's Career

Attitude	n	%
Very Negative	2	4.20
Mildly Negative	3	6.25
Mildly Supportive	3	6.25
Very Supportive	40	83.30

A chi-square test showed no statistically significant relation between age and husband's attitude toward the subject's career, $X^2 (1, N = 48) = 0.000, p = 1.00$ (see Table C-15). The null hypothesis, which says that when compared on the age variable there will be no significant differences among the subjects as to whether or not their husbands supported the idea of their careers, cannot be rejected.

A chi-square test to investigate possible differences between subjects in the occupational areas with regard to their husband's attitude toward their careers was also not significant, $X^2 (1, N = 48) = .017, p < .90$ (see Table C-15). The null hypothesis, which states that when compared on the occupation variable, there will be no significant differences among the subjects as to whether or not their husbands supported the idea of their careers, cannot be rejected.

Results of Inquiry into Career IssuesEmployment History

The data showed that 71.6% of the subjects had worked

Table 22

Interruption in Employment

Interruption	n	% of Subjects
Time to raise children	11	16.4
Extended vacation time	1	1.5
Career planning/decision time	1	1.5
Other	5	7.5
Not Applicable	48	71.6
(No Response)	1	1.5

Table 23

Employment History

Employment	n	% of Subjects
Full-time	51	76.1
Part-time	1	1.5
Combination Full-time/Part-time	14	20.9
(No Response)	1	1.5

continuously, with no interruption in employment. Of the 18 subjects who took some time off, 11 had done so to spend time raising their children (see Table 22). For 76.1% of the subjects, full-time employment best described their work history, and another 20.9% reported a combination of full-time and part-time employment (see Table 23).

Decision to Pursue a Career

The subjects were asked at what time in their lives they first decided to pursue a career. Sixty-four women responded to this open-ended question. Their responses were placed into categories ranging from "before elementary school" to "sometime after formal schooling" (see Table 24). An additional category, labeled "Other", included those subjects who said, for example, that their careers "just happened", or for whom no conscious decision was made.

Table 24

Decision To Pursue a Career

Time	n	%
Before Elementary School (Always Knew)	16	23.9
During Elementary School	10	14.9
During High School	13	19.4
During College	6	9.0
After Formal Schooling	9	13.4
Other	10	14.9
(No Response)	3	4.5

A chi-square test showed no statistically significant differences among the five categories of answers for the 64 subjects who

responded, $X^2 (4, N = 64) = 5.562, p < .40$. Of the interviewed subjects, four always knew that they were going to follow a career, three decided in elementary school, three in high school, one in college, and one after college. The following summary reflects comments from both the interviewed and non-interviewed subjects.

Sixteen women said that they always knew that they would have careers. They recalled the importance of the career expectations that both their parents and their close relatives had for them. Two of the subjects said that their decisions to pursue careers were made "before memory." Another women cited the impact of the depression on her career decision. The difficult times left little doubt that she would work because she needed to work, and they ultimately became the impetus for her to pursue a career.

Some of the subjects who cited elementary school or high school as the time they first decided to pursue a career, also talked about a specific person who influenced that decision. For one woman, it was her father who took her to see his office when she was eight years old; for another, it was her grandfather who gave her advice and support.

One interviewed subject, now in the legal profession, remembered that at eight years old she watched with keen interest a television program featuring a female lawyer. Another woman, presently active in the nursing profession, recalled the respect and admiration that she had for the nurses who were on duty when at nine she entered the hospital with a broken leg.

Other women remembered that at an early age they were engaged in

specific activities that helped to steer them toward their present careers. Two of the interviewed subjects entered and won writing contests, one in grade school and one in high school. These accomplishments bolstered their self confidence and enhanced their interest in journalism and related fields.

There was a distinct difference between those comments already noted and those of the subjects who decided to pursue a career sometime after college. Many of the latter subjects cited personal issues such as divorce and widowhood that forced them to make important career decisions. In some cases, these women suddenly found themselves as the sole economic support of their families. Other women who made a decision about a career sometime after their formal schooling said that their careers developed slowly over time. They began taking their careers more seriously when they were in their thirties.

The responses put in the "Other" category were of several types. They were distinguished from the answers in the "sometime after formal schooling" category by the subjects' assertions that they never made a specific career decision. Many of them said that their careers "just evolved." One woman shared that she never decided to have a career, but that after her husband died, she just kept doing the work she loved out of necessity, rather than planning. Another said, "I never thought about not working", while a second wrote that, "No one was going to support me and I couldn't be satisfied with being a perpetual clerk." Still another woman said, "I never decided - I just did it."

Three People Who Most Influenced Career to Date

The subjects were asked to name by role the three people who most directly influenced their career to date, ranking them as most influential, second most influential, and third most influential. Table 25 presents their top rankings, with "male supervisor" being named by 39% of the women in the sample as being one of three people who most directly influenced their career to date. "Male professor" (27%), "mother" (25%), and "father" (19%), were ranked second, third, and fourth respectively.

The term "mentor" was used in this ranking only when the subjects specifically used this term on their questionnaires. The word "professor" was applied to college, graduate, and professional school educators, and "teacher" was used for elementary and high school educators.

The interviewed subjects were asked if there was any one person who stood out as one who helped to guide, encourage, or inspire their work. They talked about one or more of the people that they had named on the written questionnaire. The following comments reflect their thoughts on one of perhaps three people that they felt were significant influences.

Six of the subjects cited male supervisors, male mentors, or male professors - all of whom were in the same or similar fields as their own - as influential people who had offered them much encouragement. One businesswoman remembered the corporate executive who served as her mentor and offered an admirable model of a corporate leader. A subject in the medical field said that she had appreciated the "sex

Table 25

Influential Persons in Subjects' Careers

Rank	Influential Person	% of Subjects Mentioning Person as 1 of 3 Most Influential
1	Male Supervisor	39.0
2	Male Professor	27.0
3	Mother	25.0
4	Father	19.0
5	Husband	16.0
6	Male Mentor	15.0
6	Female Professor	15.0
7	Female Teacher	13.0
7	Female Supervisor	13.0
7	Male Colleague	13.0
8	Male Friend	12.0
8	Female Friend	12.0
9	Female Relative	7.0
10	Female Role Model	6.0
11	Other	4.0
12	Female Mentor	3.0
12	Male Relative	3.0
13	Male Role Model	1.5
13	Male Teacher	1.5
	(No Response)	7.0

blindness" of her colleague/supervisor. Likewise, another woman mentioned how important it was that the male faculty at her graduate/professional school did not adhere to the "old boy" philosophy. Encouragement, inspiration, and generosity were common words used to describe these influential people.

Two subjects cited female mentors and professors who had influenced their careers. One of these subjects was in a traditionally feminine profession and the other was in a corporate position that was relatively new to women when she began her career. The latter subject was inspired by a woman mentor who cared enough to be generative and provide needed help to her early in her career. This mentor's help laid the foundation for the subject's current participation in the education of others entering the field. The former subject noted how much she was influenced by a female professor who affected her philosophical and ideological views about life and the profession.

Among the interviewed subjects, parents and siblings were often mentioned as important influences in the subjects' careers. Likewise, almost all of the married women mentioned the importance of their husbands' backing.

Person Currently Depended on For Encouragement and Moral Support for Career

As Table 26 shows, 46.3% of the subjects responding to this question named their husbands as the person they most depend on for encouragement and moral support for their career, with female friend ranking second at 13.4%.

Table 26

Persons Depended Upon Most for Support

Person	% of Subjects Naming Person as Support
Husband	46.3
Female Friend	13.4
Male Friend	7.5
Other	7.5
Female Colleague	3.0
Male Mentor	3.0
Sister	3.0
Daughter	1.5
God	1.5
Male Mentor	1.5
Mother	1.5
(No Response)	10.4

Factors Contributing to Career Development

The subjects were asked on the written questionnaire to choose and rank several factors that were helpful in the development of their careers. The five factors chosen as most helpful (see Table 27) were, in their order of importance: being competent, having strong drive and determination, being sponsored or groomed by another person, having a good personality, and knowledge gained in school or other courses. Table 27 also shows how the subjects ranked the rest of the factors from which they could choose.

Nineteen percent of the women wrote in additional factors as being helpful to their career development. These were placed in the "Other" category and include the following factors listed by one or two women each: being intelligent/having ability to do well academically, having creative ability/talent, being able to deal with people, gaining knowledge for work/life experiences (e.g. travel), having attended women's schools where they saw women in top positions, working hard, being able to juggle career and home when their children were in school, having to be a survivor from childhood on, being extraordinarily independent and stubborn, believing in a cause, having perseverance, being patient, and, being expected to develop personal gifts to the fullest extent in order to serve others.

The interviewed subjects were asked to elaborate on one or more factors that had been helpful in the development of their careers. The women said that competence, or talent in some cases, was the foundation for success, enabling one to do the job well and earn the respect of others. Many of the subjects noted that the ability to get

Table 27

Factors Most Helpful in Career Development

Rank	Factor	% of Women Citing Factor as 1 of 3 Most Helpful
1	Being competent	70.0
2	Having strong drive and determination	69.0
3	Being sponsored or groomed by another person	30.0
4	Having a good personality	15.0
4	Knowledge gained in school or other courses	15.0
5	Luck or fate	13.0
6	Getting married	10.0
6	Being aggressive	10.0
7	Remaining single	6.0
7	Being separated or divorced	6.0
8	Changing geographical location	4.0
9	Family inheritance	3.0
9	Having children	3.0
9	Being physically attractive	3.0
9	Receiving formal counseling	3.0
9	Other	19.0
	(No Response)	4.0

along well with people and communicate effectively with them were crucial to their career success. Persistence, perseverance, and the ability to risk were also cited as important factors.

The subjects talked about how important it was for them to have their own internal standard of excellence. How they had gained this standard was not as important as the impact it continued to have on their lives. The women consistently strove for a job well done. They had the need to work to the best of their abilities for themselves, not just because it was expected of them in their present career positions.

At one time or other during the interviews, all of the subjects talked about the hard work that had been an inherent part of their career success. However, when the subjects were asked if they had to make sacrifices along the way, not one subject said that the amount of effort put into her career could be considered a sacrifice. They viewed the hard work as a crucial part of the foundation of their present career positions. They realized that others might judge some of the compromises that they have had to make as sacrifices, but they felt that on the whole, the hard work had been worth it. One subject described hard work as the necessary result of the standards she held. Another woman said, "I don't think of them as sacrifices. I really just think of them as investments."

Problems or Obstacles Encountered in Developing Career

The subjects were asked on the self-administered questionnaire if they had encountered any of a number of listed problems or obstacles. For each potential obstacle, they were asked to indicate whether it

was a major problem, minor problem, not a problem, or not applicable. Few of the women indicated that their obstacles were major; more cited several minor obstacles. Employer discrimination and male co-worker resentment were ranked equally as the two most frequently cited obstacles, with 49% of the women indicating that these were either major or minor obstacles in developing their careers. Lack of self-confidence was ranked third, with 30% indicating it had been a minor, and 10% a major problem. Table 28 presents the obstacles in ranked order, with number one as the most frequently cited obstacle.

Twelve percent of the women added problems to the list given. These included: 1) a minimum precedent of women in senior positions in their environment (two responses), and 2) sexism in the institution where one subject worked as well as general societal attitudes about "woman's place" in the world (two responses). The following problems were each listed once: racial discrimination, lack of money, a non-supportive work environment, male co-worker prejudice (as distinguished from resentment), loneliness at the top, the unwillingness of mentors to let go, and an unwillingness to relocate.

Two of the interviewed women said that they had not faced problems or obstacles in developing their careers. Four of the subjects focused on employer discrimination as a problem. One woman said that it was very clear to her that because of employer discrimination against women, it had taken her much longer to attain her present position than it should have. Another woman talked about how driven, goal-oriented, and assertive she had to be because of the many areas in her industry that had been traditionally closed to

Table 28

Problems or Obstacles Encountered in Developing Career

Rank	Obstacle	% of Subjects Citing Problem as Maj. or Min.	Major Problem	Minor Problem	Not a Prob.	Not Appl.
1	Employer Discrimination	49.2	13.4	35.8	35.8	7.5
1	Male Coworker Resentment	49.2	10.4	38.8	35.8	7.5
2	Lack of Self Confidence	40.3	10.4	29.9	47.8	7.5
3	Having children or Other Family Responsibilities	34.3	13.4	20.9	25.4	32.8
4	Female Coworker Resentment	29.9	4.5	25.4	55.2	9.0
5	Lack of Skills or Knowledge	22.4	6.0	16.4	67.2	7.5
6	Lack of Certain Academic Degrees or Credentials	19.4	4.5	14.9	61.2	13.4
7	Other Problem Listed	12.0	7.5	4.5	0.0	1.5
7	Other Relative's (other than husband) or Friend's Negative Attitude Toward Her Career	11.9	0.0	11.9	50.7	28.4
8	Husband's Negative Attitudes	10.5	6.0	4.5	50.7	31.3

women. A third subject described the difficulties of being a member of an institution with a patriarchal foundation. She noted that it had been important for her to keep an aesthetic distance from some of the turmoil of the institution in order to be a survivor and affect the changes that were important to her. A similar perspective came from a fourth subject who said that employer discrimination was a minor problem that she decided to tunnel under, go around, or leap over. She believed that it was detrimental to be too sensitive in looking for employer discrimination. Rather, she said that one should focus on the job and the responsibilities at hand.

Three women cited lack of certain academic degrees or credentials as having been a major or minor problem. These women had experienced doubt over time as to whether or not they should return for further education. Problems developed when the desire for more education conflicted with a progressing career that often provided its own unique learning experience. Two of these women, knowing that they were constantly learning and growing in their careers, had come to terms with their decision not to further their educations.

One subject said that lack of self-confidence in herself and her skills was an obstacle that she had to overcome during the early years of her career. Experience and time helped to lessen that feeling. Another women pointed to female co-worker resentment as a problem she had encountered. She said that it was hard for some women with whom she worked to understand or accept women in leadership positions who have families and are professionally active (traveling, etc.). She sometimes got a negative feeling from these co-workers. It was a

feeling that she described as emotional, not rational.

Role Conflict in Career

When asked if they had experienced role conflicts as they had managed their careers, 75.4% of the 65 subjects responding answered affirmatively (see Table C-16). The women were then asked to list the conflicts that they had experienced between roles. The subjects named from one to three role conflicts. The following seven categories were formed as a result of the subjects' open-ended answers: 1) wife versus professional, 2) mother versus professional, 3) boss versus friend, 4) time for self versus professional/personal demands, 5) expectations of others for subject versus reality of subject's life, 6) political/philosophical views of subject versus political/philosophical views of institution/corporation, and 7) "boss" role at work vs. that role at home. If there was a conflict named by only one subject, it was placed in the "Other" category. Some of the other conflicts mentioned included "mentee" vs. independent professional, working with close relative in office setting, and special internal conflicts surrounding feelings of insecurity.

As Table 29 shows, 44.8% of the women mentioned conflicts experienced between their roles as mothers and professionals, and 29.8% listed conflicts between their roles as wives and professionals. The high percentage of women who listed conflicts between their roles as mothers and professionals was also evidenced in the fact that of the 75.4% of the subjects who said that they had experienced role conflict, 71% had children.

Table 29

Role Conflicts Listed by Subjects

Rank	Conflict	% of Subjects Listing Conflict
1	Mother vs. Professional	44.8
2	Wife vs. Professional	29.8
3	Time for Self vs. Professional	15.0
4	Others' Expectations of Subject vs. Subject's Life	6.0
4	Social/Personal Life vs. Professional Life	6.0
5	Single Parent vs. Professional	3.0
5	Political/Phil. Views of Institution/Corp. vs. Political/Phil. Views of Subject	3.0
5	"Boss" Role at Work vs. Role at Home	3.0
5	Boss vs. Friend	3.0
	Other	16.5

When compared on the occupation variable, there was no significant difference among the subjects as to whether or not they had experienced role conflicts, $X^2 (1, N = 65) = .925, p < .60$ (see Table C-16). Likewise, when compared on the age variable, there was not a significant difference among the subjects on the whole as to whether or not they had experienced role conflicts, $X^2 (1, N = 65) = .255, p < .70$ (see Table C-16).

However, when a differentiation was made between those subjects who have children and those who do not have children, significant differences were observed on the age variable. All of the women (100%) ages 32 through 46 (Age Group 1) with children said that they experienced role conflict, as compared to only 50% of the women in that same age category who do not have children, and 77.3% of the women ages 47 and over (Age Group 2) with children (see Table 30).

Role Conflicts Examined: Interview Results and Answers to Open-Ended Questions. The subjects' comments about role conflicts in their lives did not focus solely on the specific ways in which they dealt with the conflicts, but rather on the fact that they were handling or had handled them to the best of their ability. The subjects did not dwell on the negative aspects of the conflict, but on the reality of such conflict in the lives of both men and women today.

The conflict mentioned by most women was that of mother versus professional. An interviewed subject recalled having to make an important career decision when she realized that she was not spending enough time with her children. She was fortunate enough to be able to switch career paths within her field, and thus spend more time with

Table 30

Experience of Role Conflicts: Relationship to Motherhood Status

Experience of Role Conflict	Age Group 1 (32-46)				Age Group 2 (47-70)			
	Subject has children		Subject does not have children		Subject has children		Subject does not have children	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Has Experienced Role Conflicts	18	100.0	7	50.0	17	77.3	7	63.6
Has Not Experienced Role Conflicts	0	0.0	7	50.0	5	22.7	4	36.4

her family. She understood, however, that the luxury of this type of choice is not available to all women.

Another subject described how she and her husband worked together to make important decisions about their children, their relationship, and their careers. It took extra effort and cooperation, but they "just did it." She shared a recent dream in which she saw the day care center that her daughter had attended many years before. She sensed a great peace when she reflected on this dream, because everything has turned out all right for her daughter. As she said, "I guess I don't think it's worthwhile to dwell on the conflicts or problems." Even with this attitude, she knew that some difficult issues, such as choosing a child's day care center, can be an ever-present concern for parents today.

A single divorced mother said that while it was difficult raising her daughter alone, she just did what needed doing. She felt that in some ways raising a child alone was a key factor in the development of her career. Although there were many geographical moves and a sense that her daughter was "parceled out" at times, her daughter was in boarding school for only one year and learned to make friends easily, an ability she appreciated as she grew older.

A second conflict mentioned by many women was that of wife versus professional. The subjects said that it was important to have a husband who was understanding of their career demands. One woman noted that when one is motivated, works hard, and has high professional standards, one is bound to overdo it. With the strains that can result from this, it is important to have an understanding

husband. Two interviewed women who had husbands in the same or similar fields were appreciative of that fact. They said that their husbands were very understanding of the time pressures involved with their work.

Two subjects said that there is no question that their families come first when conflicts are considered. As one woman put it, "Well, the truth is that most men that I know put their families first. And they believe that unless they feel nourished and refreshed they cannot really contribute to a corporation." She agreed with this point of view.

Three of the interviewed subjects said that maintaining friendships is a problem for them. One woman found it difficult to relate to the women who live near she and her husband. She said that some of these women are interested in different things than she is, and they do not know what to make of a woman in her position. In some ways their husbands understand her even less.

Another subject noted that because she relocated so often, it was difficult for her to maintain friendships. She was very busy and it was hard for her to invest her time in making and keeping friends. A third woman said that she was not able to maintain friendships at a level that she would like because of time commitments. She admitted to putting all of her energies into her family and professional life.

Role Activities and Satisfaction

Table 31 shows that 65.7% of all of the subjects said that they were very satisfied or extremely satisfied with the ways they dealt with their roles in life. Only 6% were neutral or dissatisfied with

how they dealt with their roles in life. A chi-square run on the relation between whether or not the subjects experienced role conflict and their satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the ways they dealt with their roles in life, was significant at the .05 level, $\chi^2 (1, N = 63) = 4.743, p < .05$ (see Table C-17).

An analysis of crossbreak percentages on Table C-17 shows that 86.7% of those not experiencing role conflicts felt very or extremely satisfied with how they handled their roles in life, while only 62.5% of those who have experienced role conflicts felt very or extremely satisfied with how they handle roles in life.

Table 31

Subjects' Satisfaction in Dealing with Life Roles

Satisfaction Level	n	%
Dissatisfied	1	1.5
Neutral	3	4.5
Mildly Satisfied	17	25.4
Very Satisfied	28	41.8
Extremely Satisfied	16	23.9
(No Response)	2	3.0

A chi-square test on the relation between age and the level of satisfaction in dealing with life roles was not significant, $\chi^2 (1, N = 65) = 1.151, p < .30$ (see Table C-18). In addition, a chi-square test run showed that there was not a significant relation between occupation of the subjects and level of satisfaction in dealing with life roles, $\chi^2 (1, N = 65) = .047, p < .90$ (see Table C-18).

Satisfaction with Career and General Happiness

Eighty-one percent of all the subjects said that they felt very satisfied or extremely satisfied with their careers (see Table 32). A chi-square test found no significant relation between age and satisfaction with career, $X^2 (1, N = 65) = 1.179, p < .30$ (see Table C-19). Likewise, a chi-square test found no significant relation between occupation and satisfaction with career, $X^2 (1, N = 65) = .198, p < .70$ (see Table C-19).

When asked in general how happy they were, all of the 65 subjects who responded said that they felt either happy or very happy at this time.

Table 32

Subjects' Satisfaction with Career

Satisfaction Level	n	%
Dissatisfied	1	1.5
Neutral	1	1.5
Mildly Satisfied	9	13.4
Very Satisfied	29	43.3
Extremely Satisfied	25	37.3
(No Response)	2	3.0

When asked in general how happy they were, all of the 65 subjects who responded said that they felt either happy or very happy at this time.

Greatest Career Rewards

The 12 interviewed subjects were asked to name their greatest career rewards. All of the women were enthusiastic as they talked

about their particular fields. One reward mentioned was the opportunity to meet people from all walks of life, many of them powerful and influential, and to grow from that encounter. One subject called it "the opportunity to work with." She said that, "The opportunity to learn what I have learned, to know what I know, to give what I could give ... to meet these people was the reward." The subjects also mentioned a keen awareness of and a sense of awe at the power of their positions. Money was certainly a part of this awareness of power, but it was accompanied by a respect for the responsibility that their positions demand.

Some subjects talked about the reward that comes from doing a job well. They described meeting difficult challenges successfully from day to day. In many cases they received an internal satisfaction from working to the best of their ability.

The subjects were proud of their careers. They described the satisfaction that comes with a belief that their individual fields can and do make a genuine contribution to the world. Whether the field directly or indirectly addressed the health, welfare, education, or quality of life for people, these women saw themselves as important contributors to society vis a vis their positions.

For some of the subjects, active participation in their professional organizations offered specific opportunities for affecting change within the field and paving the way for interested young people. Two women mentioned receiving tremendous satisfaction from the recognition that they received from their colleagues in their professional associations for their work on behalf of the profession.

Other women said that their rewards came from the satisfaction they felt in being able to help others. This help included, among other things, arranging an important educational opportunity for workers in an industry, reaching out to inner city youth and offering them a special career opportunity, and planning community outreach programs that would enrich the people involved.

Almost all of the subjects said that the process of continually learning and growing were key to their satisfaction. With whatever specific reward mentioned, the added results were feelings of accomplishment, pride, and satisfaction.

Attributes for Success in Career

On the self-administered questionnaire, all 67 subjects were asked what they thought was the most important attribute that a woman in their field must possess to be successful in her career. The answers to this open-ended question were placed into one of the 18 categories listed and ranked on Table 33. When a subject mentioned more than one attribute, the first attribute or the one which the subject described as being most important was listed.

The five attributes named most frequently were: determination, competence, self-confidence, ability to communicate effectively, and intelligence. (Two of these, competence and determination, were named earlier as two of the five factors most helpful in their career development.)

Attributes named by the six subjects in the "Other" category were: desire to succeed; ability to see oneself as a leader; being doubly talented, educated, and motivated in relation to men; money

Table 33

Subjects' Listed Important Attributes for Career Success

Rank	Attribute	% of Subjects Naming Attribute
1	Determination/Tenacity/Persistence	17.92
2	Competence/Ability/Talent	14.92
3	Self-Confidence	13.43
4	Ability to Communicate Effectively	5.97
5	Intelligence	4.48
6	Being Oneself	2.99
6	Energy	2.99
6	Flexibility	2.99
6	Hard Work	2.99
7	Creativity	1.49
7	Curiosity	1.49
7	Enterprising Sense	1.49
7	Good Judgment	1.49
7	Humor	1.49
7	Initiative	1.49
7	Being Mentored	1.49
7	Open-Mindedness	1.49
7	Optimism	1.49
	(No Response)	8.96

and/or good banking connections; intellectual generosity; being proud to be a woman; and, assuming that competence is a given, the ability to build effective relationships across a wide spectrum of human beings.

Many of the subjects named two or three attributes as being important to success in their career. Their answers reflected the importance of balance among a number of different attributes. The subjects stressed the importance of self-confidence, drive, determination, enthusiasm, and energy to get the job done. Competence, intelligence, and ability were said to be crucial for success.

Another point found in several of the answers was the importance of taking charge or and guiding one's own career. As one woman said, "She must learn to decide what success is to her, based on her own values, needs, and priorities, not success as narrowly defined by corporate America, or even media America." Being oneself, with a sense of optimism, flexibility, and humor, were also mentioned as important attributes. Knowing oneself and being open to new learning and the growth that can accompany it were also important.

The subjects talked about a strong desire to win, to work hard, to have a singlemindedness of purpose, to maintain a deep dedication to an area of interest, and to ignore/work through obstacles. For many, the balance of understanding how to keep themselves together - physically, mentally, and spiritually - was all important. This balance included the importance of supportive family and friends.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The Problem

Achievement motivation has been the subject of numerous studies in psychological research. Until recently, that research focused on reasons why women were less likely to achieve than men, and it often yielded conflicting results. Spence's (1983) book on achievement and achievement motives, which uses data about both sexes, provides a conceptual synthesis of the major theoretical ideas and empirical results in the field over the past few decades. Throughout that book, achievement behavior, like other behaviors, is assumed to be complexly determined, "the result of an interaction between characteristics of the individual and those of the situation in which the behavior takes place" (Horner, 1985, p. 261).

Throughout many studies on women, there has been a strong link between achievement research and career research. The foundation is being laid for a career development theory which can be applicable to women, but it is in its infancy. Its development has suffered because, as in achievement motivation research, many of the subjects in past career studies were males. Fitzgerald and Crites (1980) emphasize the importance of viewing the career development of women with an awareness of a socialization process which has very often produced a response set among women which has constricted their

consideration of options to traditional roles and occupations.

There has been a decade of rapid change in the career options exercised by women. Women entered predominantly male occupations in increasing numbers during the 1972-1981 period. For example, in 1972 nearly five percent of employed women were managers or administrators; in 1981 more than seven percent of women held such jobs. Women also made significant employment gains in the field of law. They more than tripled their proportion of all employed lawyers (4 to 14 percent). Likewise, during the 1972-81 period, the number of women physicians nearly doubled. In fact, since 1972, such professions as accounting, pharmacy, computer science, and operations research no longer are nontraditional for women; women in 1981 were more than 25% of the total employment (1983 Handbook of Women Workers, pp. 53-57).

Despite these positive signs of change, women continue to be underrepresented in many professions, e.g. in law and medicine, in mathematics, science, and engineering, in the skilled trades, and in managerial and administrative positions. Accordingly, many studies of highly motivated women over the past two decades have used subjects in nontraditional occupations as examples of high achieving women. Other research is beginning to look more closely at high achievers in such "women's occupations" as teaching or nursing.

Many past studies of women's achievement were conducted with student groups. Some of those studies used need for achievement (nAch) measures, while others linked achievement motivation with the subject's stated career choice, focusing on those factors which seemed to affect that career goal. Recent recommendations have been for more

research with adult female populations, partly because of the poor predictive quality of stated career goal with later achievement. Other investigations noted the need for comparisons among achieving women in different age brackets.

Most studies generally adhere to the idea of high achievement as the attainment of success. Barnett and Baruch (1978) note that there are many points at which our social system has channeled women's competence away from fields in which success brings the highest rewards (p. 24). Also, many of the interpersonal and organizational skills helpful for success in, for example, corporations and other workplaces--coordination of roles, resolution of disagreements--have remained relatively undeveloped in women (p. 25).

Barnett and Baruch see that at each step in a woman's career similar obstacles arise, often increasing in intensity as the top is approached. Women who have chosen nontraditional fields and have been successful or have distinguished themselves in more traditional areas may have faced and overcome these obstacles. "Many successful women, therefore, are survivors (or escapees) and their lives deserve our attention" (Barnett & Baruch, p. 25). The present study focused on a group of such women.

The Purpose

The purpose of this study was to develop a profile of women distinguished by their achievements in a wide range of fields. The subjects in the study were members of a networking organization for women who have attained a high level of accomplishment, leadership, and influence, in both their individual areas and the urban community

of which they are a part. Sixty-seven adult women, ranging in age from 32 to 70, comprised the sample.

The study differentiated the subjects by both age and general occupational area. To test for differences among the subjects on the age variable, the sample was divided into two groups. Group 1 was those subjects ranging in age from 32 through 46 ($\underline{n} = 32$), and Group 2 was those subjects ranging in age from 47 through 70 ($\underline{n} = 35$).

To test for differences among the subjects on the occupation variable, the sample was divided into two general occupational areas, either professional and technical workers ($\underline{n} = 27$) or managers and administrators ($\underline{n} = 40$), using the Dictionary of Occupational Titles (D.O.T.) job classification system as a guide in assigning each subject a three-digit occupational code number.

A few of the women, regardless of their primary professional grouping (e.g. biologist, attorney, or accountant), have reached managerial positions within their fields and at their work settings. This fact presented the possibility of overlap in the two major occupational groupings. The occupational history given on the self-administered questionnaire was used to assign each subject to the most appropriate grouping. Ultimately, 40.3% of the women were classified as professional or technical workers, and 59.7% were classified as managers or administrators.

Several studies have indicated that a control for age would be advisable in future research on high achieving women. The impact of the women's movement, the recent influx of women into the work force, and the increase of female role models, are only a few of the factors

that could contribute to observed differences among the subjects. By controlling for both of these variables, especially that of age, this study hoped to offer an accurate and current view of the high achieving woman.

Research Questions

The study has been guided by the following research questions:

1. What characterizes a group of women who have been designated as high achievers? How do the background characteristics and current lifestyles of these women compare to findings in previous research on high achieving women?

2. Are there significant differences in the background characteristics and current lifestyles of these women when they are compared on the variables of age and/or occupation?

3. Questions guiding the descriptive section, meant to examine factors shown to impact on career development in general, and women's career development in particular, include the following:

- A. What career patterns have these women followed in their career development?
- B. What people have influenced their careers to date and on whom do they currently depend most for encouragement and support for their careers?
- C. What factors have contributed to their career development?
- D. What obstacles, if any, have they encountered in their career development?
- E. Have they experienced role conflict as they have

managed their careers?

Hypotheses

The hypotheses in this study were stated in the null form. The direction of testing was to reject the null hypothesis at the .05 level of significance. The hypotheses were stated as follows:

1. There will be no significant differences among the subjects on the following ten characteristics found in many studies of high achieving women, when those subjects are compared on the age variable:

- A. Being an eldest or only child or one with only female siblings
- B. Coming from a family of origin with high socioeconomic status
- C. Having one or both parents with high occupational and/or educational status
- D. Having both parents who emphasize achievement
- E. Having a supportive father who is an important achievement role model
- F. Having a working mother
- G. Having a mother who is happy in a career or who is unhappy as a traditional homemaker
- H. Having female role models
- I. Having married late or being presently single
- J. Having a husband who supports idea of woman's career

2. There will be no significant differences among the subjects on the same ten background and current lifestyle characteristics when they are compared on the occupation variable.

Instrumentation

The two major instruments utilized in this research project were a self-administered questionnaire and an interview schedule. The paper and pencil self-administered questionnaire contained 45 questions, five of which were open-ended. The interview schedule, administered by this researcher to 12 subjects, had 26 questions. Resource questionnaires used in developing both the self-administered and interview questionnaires are cited in the instrumentation section of Chapter Three of the study.

The Design

This study utilized a survey research design. Sixty-seven subjects completed the self-administered questionnaire. The method for choosing the 12 subjects to be interviewed was designed to have as equal representation as possible from the two key areas of age and occupation, and to accurately reflect the makeup of the sample as a whole. The interview results highlighted and enhanced an understanding of the answers given on the written questionnaire. A review of the 12 interviews provided trends within categories of interest to the investigation.

Inferential statistics were used to analyze the data related to the formal hypotheses of the study. Descriptive statistics were used to present the demographics of the sample, and, along with limited inferential statistics, the results of the inquiry into career issues.

The Findings

Five of the ten background characteristics found in earlier studies of high achieving women described the current sample as well.

A statistically significant majority of the women: 1) were an oldest or only child or one with only female siblings (74.6%), 2) had one or both parents with high occupational and/or educational status (85.1%), 3) had both parents who emphasized achievement (66.1% of the 59 subjects responding), 4) had a supportive father who was an important achievement role model (83.6% of the 61 subjects responding), and 5) for those currently or formerly married, had husbands who supported the idea of their career (83.3%). Statistical testing did not show a significant difference among the subjects on these five characteristics when they were differentiated by age and occupation.

A sixth characteristic found in former studies was that high achieving women had had exposure to female role models. While this was true with the present subjects, there was no evidence that women or men were more effective role model influencers for the group as a whole. The one exception was that the subjects were influenced more by male teacher(s) than female teacher(s) in graduate school. This finding may have been a reflection of the ratio of male to female professors with whom the subjects came into contact during graduate school, although this study does not have the data to substantiate that ratio. It is of interest to note that "male supervisor" and "male professor" were ranked first and second overall when the subjects were asked in a later question to name the people who most directly influenced their career to date.

The present subjects differed from high achieving women in former studies on the remaining four background characteristics. First, only a small percentage of the subjects (4.5%) came from families with a

high income level. Combining subjects from upper middle and high income levels (34.4%) still did not reach significance.

Second, the women in the present sample did not have a statistically significant majority of their mothers who worked outside of the home. Results showed that 55.2% of the subjects' mothers were women whose employment status ranged from "rarely having a paid job" to "always having a regular paid job". Although the findings for the group as a whole ran contrary to much earlier research, there was a significant relation between age of the subjects and whether or not their mothers worked outside of the home. Data showed that 71.9% of the subjects in Age Group 1 (32 through 46) had mothers who worked outside of the home, but only 40% of the subjects in Age Group 2 (47 through 70) had mothers who worked outside the home.

The third finding which was unlike much earlier research with high achieving women, was that a significant majority of the sample as a whole did not have either working mothers who felt happy in a career or nonworking mothers who were unhappy as traditional homemakers. This finding was impacted significantly by the fact that although 86.5% of those mothers who did work outside of the home felt mildly or very positive about working, 70% of the mothers who did not work outside of the home felt mostly or entirely satisfied with the role of homemaker.

Lastly, the present findings differed from earlier research in that a significant majority of the women had not married late or were presently single. In fact, only 35.8% of the subjects were single (never married), divorced, or separated. Also, 86.8% of the subjects

who had ever married were married before their 29th birthday, 69.8% were married before their 26th birthday, and 67.9% were married before their 25th birthday. Findings related to the subjects' career development will be discussed in the next section.

Conclusions

The present sample of high achieving women presents an overall profile which is similar to that found in earlier research of this kind. Those characteristics which have remained the same offer continued evidence of a core of factors which can facilitate women's achievement. The four characteristics which are exceptions to earlier findings reflect not only societal changes presently taking place for women, but also, the occupational diversity and personal drive of the women in the sample.

First, a significant number of subjects did not come from families which had high or even upper middle and high income levels. Barnett and Baruch (1978) reflected on the fact that early studies had found a majority of high achieving women to be from families with high socioeconomic status. They said that the reasons for the advantage of high socioeconomic status seem relatively clear. "All other things being equal, in such families money is available for girls' education; and, in addition, parents exemplify and model the values, traits, and goals salient to achievement" (p. 27).

It is the latter point which appears to have been operative with these women, regardless of their family income level. For example, interview subjects who came from families with low income talked about feeling challenged to achieve because of their backgrounds. The

amount of money available to the family was less important than the value systems and attitudes toward achievement that the subjects received from their parents.

While differences such as that of family income level were found in these women's histories and their vocational and personal lives, several similarities were also discovered. Standley and Soule (1974), in their study of women in the professions of architecture, law, medicine, and psychology, found that there was a feeling among their subjects that they were raised as "special" children (p. 257). Many of the present subjects' comments reflected a similar feeling.

When asked if and how their birth order position had an effect on their present level of achievement, most of the interviewed subjects talked about the special relationship that they had developed with their parents, a relationship that was characterized by tremendous support for their accomplishments and aspirations. Other subjects, especially those who for various reasons were not raised in the traditional two parent family, described special relationships with, for example, a grandmother or grandfather or aunt who became a significant role model, inspiration, and/or support for their aspirations. Almost all of the interviewed subjects, regardless of birth order position, mentioned an early awareness of their parents' high expectations for them.

Many of the subjects, both in interviews and on open-ended questions, noted that their parents' encouragement was not directed toward a specific career, but toward high achievement in general. Interestingly, while a majority of subjects from both occupational

areas had fathers who were role models or offered them high encouragement, the percentage of managers/administrators who so described their fathers reached 89.2% as compared to 75% of the professional/technical workers.

In Hennig's 1970 study of 25 of the 100 top level women executives in the country, subjects reported that during adolescence they rejected traditional female role models and identified with their father's life style. Similarly, Brown (1979) found that as a young person, the female manager enjoyed a very close relationship with her father and identified with his occupational role. What seemed crucial to the present subjects who chose careers in business, was that many of their fathers openly and actively offered them an introduction to the corporate world of which they were a part.

The second background characteristic which ran contrary to former studies was that women in the present sample did not have a significant majority of mothers who worked outside of the home. There was, however, a difference between age groupings, with 71.9% of the subjects under age 47 having mothers who worked outside of the home, and 40% of the subjects aged 47 and older having mothers who worked outside of the home. While other factors can be involved, these numbers reflect most vividly the gradual influx of women into the work force. As noted in the 1983 Handbook of Women Workers, "Between 1950 and 1981 the labor force participation rate of mothers in the United States more than tripled, probably reflecting the most significant labor force development the country experienced during that period" (p. 17).

Overall, the subjects had mothers who came close to a description given by Baruch, Barnett, and Rivers (1983). They said that for women whose mothers were involved with careers, the mother was often the most influential model for her daughter. For those mothers who did not work outside of the home and were not in a position to be "mentors" in the strictest sense of the word, "many served as models of personal strength through such qualities as perseverance, courage, drive" (pp. 203-204). Likewise, in her study of female lawyers, Epstein (1981) found that the influence of the mother, "Not as a model but as a "force", may have been more important than any other single factor in guiding some of these daughters into law, although it is difficult to say exactly how their influence was manifested" (p. 30).

Thirdly, unlike many earlier studies, the data showed that although 86.5% of those mothers who did work outside of the home felt mildly or very positive about working, 70% of the mothers who did not work outside of the home felt mostly or entirely satisfied with the role of homemaker. In general, these results paint a picture of the subjects' mothers as women who were satisfied with their roles, whether they were women who worked outside of the home or more traditional homemakers.

Responding to the fact that in Hennig's (1970) study, the mothers of the subjects did not work outside of the home, Fogarty, Rapoport, and Rapoport (1971) asserted that the influence on work patterns (of the daughters) does not come from the variable of whether or not the mother worked, but from the mother's attitude toward her work situation. Likewise, it appears that with the present sample, a

mother who projects a positive attitude toward a more traditional homemaking role can also be a `force` which affects the daughter's sense of competence, as `force` was described by Epstein (1981).

Lastly, the present findings differed from earlier research in that a significant majority of the women had not married late or were presently single. When viewed on this last characteristic, the sample as a whole appears more like those in studies which have separated successful women from what could be called highly successful women. Epstein (1981) reports that one of her strongest findings is that women lawyers who achieve unusual success, as with the present subjects in their respective fields, are more likely to be married than single. Epstein adds that all women Nobel Laureates were married (p. 342).

One finding that bears noting is that 30% of the Managers/Administrators of the present sample were single (never married) as compared to 3.7% of the Professional/Technical workers who fit that description. In her study of women in management, Brown (1979) found that the executive role imposes a more demanding schedule on the personal lives of women than of men. "Although marriage has not been proven to slow career advancement, the women in these studies are only a third to half as likely as male managers to be married. Compared with the general population, a substantially larger percentage of women in middle management are not married, and those who married tend to marry late" (p. 286).

Career Patterns. When asked at what time in their lives they first decided to pursue a career, the women gave answers ranging from

"always" to "sometime after formal schooling". This finding supports Baruch et al. (1983) who found that the high prestige women in their study did not follow any one path in their career development. The authors did find, however, that some of these women, as with the present sample, had an early sense of their place in the world of work. "Sometimes this was definite and well articulated; at other times it was less specific - a sense of a personal destiny to do and be something important" (p. 131).

Role Conflicts. The findings which relate to role conflicts in these women's lives closely parallel the current research. That research has focused on whether women are experiencing role conflict, and, if so, how they are coping with that conflict. Many of the early studies dealing with role conflict "suggested that most American women felt an internal ambivalence about combining career and family (Graham, 1972): they felt they had to make a choice between marriage and femininity or career and masculinity (Zinberg, 1974)" (Yogev, 1983, p. 223). Yogev goes on to say that current data on career aspirations imply that the career-marriage conflict is rapidly diminishing in importance, especially among young women (p. 224). Still, the research points to significant numbers of women reporting role-strain and role conflict.

The women in the present study cited a number of role conflicts in their lives, with 73.1% of them saying that they had experienced some sort of role conflict as they had managed their careers. This percentage was close to what Gray (1983) found in a study of 300 married women doctors, lawyers, and professors. In that study, 77% of

the women often experienced strains between their home and career roles.

The high percentage of present subjects between the ages of 32 and 46 who had children and reported experiencing role conflict (100%), versus those women ages 47 and over with children who reported role conflicts (77.3%), reflects the fact that throughout the literature, life stage has been an important key to understanding role conflict in women. As Hall (1975) defines it, life stage is measured in terms of the ages and number of children in the family. The results of Hall's study indicate that children are a major influence on a married women's perceived role pressures (O'Leary, 1977, p. 126).

Going one step further, Barnett and Baruch (1985) describe the two most striking findings of their earlier study. First, the role of parent rather than that of worker is the major source of stress for women in middle years. Second, the quality of experience within a woman's social roles is a major independent predictor of role overload, role conflict, and anxiety. The authors say that by focusing on number of roles, theories linking role accumulation to role strain and anxiety appear to confound number of roles with occupation in particular roles. "The variance accounted for by number of roles appears to be due to special roles; this study suggests that it is mainly due to the role of mother" (Barnett & Baruch, 1985, p. 143).

Although the present sample of women reported experiencing a wide range of role conflicts, with the most pronounced being that of mother vs. professional, 63% of the women who reported role conflicts also

said that they felt very or extremely satisfied with how they handle their roles in life. That percentage increased to 93.8% when those subjects who felt mildly satisfied with how they dealt with their roles in life were included. In addition, all of the 65 subjects who responded to a question asking how happy they were, said that they were either happy or very happy at the present time.

Baruch et al. (1983) found that women who scored highest on all indices of well-being were married women with children who have high-prestige jobs. The authors note that one might expect this group to be the most harried, rushed, and conflicted, but they were not. These researchers speculate that the variety and richness of the high prestige jobs that some of their subjects held, gave them a sense of vitality, rather than draining them (p. 144). They discussed the concept of work as a buffer against stress, an escape from tension. Many women in their study told them that going to work made it easier, not harder, for them to cope with family responsibilities and problems.

The present subjects also exhibited a tremendous enthusiasm for their work, both on their questionnaire answers and during the interviews. They did not dwell on the negative aspects of conflicts, but on the fact that they were handling or had handled them to the best of their ability. They talked about role conflicts as being realities of life for both men and women.

Factors Helpful to Career. The factors cited, in their order of importance, were: being competent (70%), having strong drive and determination (69.9%), and being sponsored or groomed by another

person (30%). Percentages reflect the number of women naming the factor as being one of three most helpful to them. These rankings closely parallel what Phillips found in her 1977 study of mentoring and women managers and executives. The subjects cited the following as first and second in importance: being competent (75%), and, having strong drive and determination (66%). Being sponsored or groomed by another person was ranked fifth (18%).

The fact that the subjects deemed competence to be crucial to their career development was reinforced by the importance that they placed on having an internal standard of excellence. How they had gained this standard was not as important as the impact it continued to have on their lives. They expressed the need to work to the best of their abilities for themselves, not just because it was expected of them in their present career positions.

Obstacles. Employer discrimination and male co-worker resentment were ranked equally as the two most frequently cited obstacles, with 49% of the women indicating that these were either major or minor obstacles in developing their careers. Lack of self-confidence was ranked third, with 30% indicating it had been a minor, and 10% a major problem. These findings were also close to those of Phillips (1977), whose subjects ranked employer discrimination first (45%), and male co-worker resentment second (37%).

The present subjects viewed obstacles, as they did role conflicts and hard work, as realities which accompany their positions. They did not view them as problems which they could not handle or which would overwhelm them. Having a strong desire to excel in their particular

field made it important for them to face obstacles and work through them.

Attributes for Success. The five attributes for success named most frequently by the subjects were: determination, competence, self-confidence, ability to communicate effectively, and intelligence. (Two of these, competence and determination, were named earlier as two of the five factors most helpful in their career development.)

The subjects' written answers and interview comments reflected the importance of balance among a number of different attributes. That balance included the importance of supportive family and friends. For many, it meant learning how to keep themselves together - physically, mentally, and spiritually.

Implications

This study sought to add to the existing literature regarding the background characteristics, current lifestyles, and career development of high achieving women. By controlling for age, its goal was not only to compare the present sample to women in earlier studies, but also to note any modifications in the profile of high achieving women in society in general and the workplace in particular.

Spence and Helmreich (1983) successfully establish the fact that neither achievement nor achievement behavior can be considered a monolithic concept. They describe achievement behavior as complexly determined, and they highlight the fact that achievement motivation will occur not only in the traditional areas of school and employment, but also in homemaking, sports, child rearing, and hobbies.

This study has examined women achieving primarily in the area of

employment. In addition, many of the women in the present sample are achieving in fields that have traditionally been male dominated. However, it is not the fact that they have entered those fields which has been of interest to this study; rather, it is the way in which they, as well as the subjects in more traditional occupations, have managed to function so successfully within those fields. They are the "survivors" of whom Barnett and Baruch (1978, p. 25) speak.

The present findings can be used as researchers begin to approach women's achievements from a broad base which acknowledges the unique societal pressures affecting women today. Relatives, teachers, and helping professionals alike can learn from the distinguishing characteristics of the women in this study. While these characteristics appear simplistic at first glance, they point to the importance of young women acquiring a positive sense of self. The "specialness" of which the present subjects spoke attests to the feelings of self-confidence that many of them acquired at an early age. In large part, it was the tremendous support of those around them that contributed to that self-confidence.

That support was given by a wide range of people, not just those that the subjects encountered during their youth. Significant others influenced their career development from childhood through adulthood. This is manifested in the fact that there is no set career pattern which characterizes these women. Also, the sex of the significant other(s) who influenced these women's lives did not appear to be as important as the fact that a person took the time to offer encouragement and support. This suggests that professionals in a

variety of settings could have an impact on women of all ages who are striving to establish or reach their achievement potential.

Of course, the influence of factors such as parental support, birth order position, and parental occupational and educational status cannot be overlooked. However, as Barnett and Baruch (1978, p. 28) note, the ways in which these characteristics affect individuals and the reasons they are associated with success, can be analyzed so as to guide decisions and actions that are a matter of choice.

For example, many of the present subjects who are currently business executives, were introduced to the business world by their fathers - and in some cases their mothers - in such a way as to bolster their sense of competence and confidence in themselves as future business women. These women achieved in the higher echelon of the corporate world, one that has traditionally seen few women. The present subjects' remembrances were close to what Lemkau (1979) found in her study, that "parents conveyed by work and example that competence was as appropriate for girls as for boys".

A strength which stemmed from the women's sense of competence and confidence was their belief that they could effectively handle difficult situations. Their standards of excellence, which many of them learned from or modeled after influential persons in their lives, afforded a firm foundation for their achievements. Their confidence also contributed to their belief that they could face obstacles to their career development and not be overwhelmed by them. In addition, while the present subjects' lives were certainly not trouble free, their strong self image seemed to positively enhance their sense of

control over many aspects of their lives.

The attainment of an attitude of competence and confidence in one's career skills emerges as a worthwhile goal for all women. To help women reach that goal, professionals should be aware of the importance of working with women to identify challenging fields which could enhance their self-confidence, and hopefully offer an incentive for economic advancement as well. The professionals' encouragement could include a review of the long range benefits of education and/or skill training.

It has been suggested by Gilligan (1982) that it is the competitive aspect of achievement in which women sense danger. "It is not achievement that women fear, but the possible fracture of human relationships caused by competition" (Griffin-Pierson, 1986, p. 315). Griffin-Pierson says that counselors should be aware that women's concerns about integrating relationships and achievements be viewed as legitimate developmental concerns rather than as barriers to development (p. 316).

The subjects of this study made it clear that relationships were important to them. Even though they acknowledged that their professional lives were extremely demanding, over half of the women were married, and most of the subjects talked about the importance of maintaining a balance between their personal and professional lives. They looked to husbands and friends for continued backing of their careers, and they stressed that the support that they received from such relationships was an integral part of their success.

The present subjects, like most working women, have experienced

role conflicts, with the most pronounced of those being mother versus professional. Baruch, Barnett, and Rivers (1983) noted that, since how well a woman manages the different roles in her life seems to be the key to avoiding strain, rather than the number of roles per se, the woman in the high prestige job has obvious advantages over the woman in the low-level jobs. Although data on salary was not obtained for the present subjects, the designation of "high-prestige" could be applied to most of the jobs held by the women in this study.

Baruch et al. note the benefits of good financial remuneration that often accompanies high prestige jobs. Money can be spent toward child care, household help, and can mean the woman is spared the desperate search for affordable support systems. "For such women, despite the burdens of managing both a family and a challenging job, the middle adult years are filled with rewards" (Baruch et al., 1983, p. 146).

The present subjects spoke with enthusiasm about the rewards of their positions. They felt satisfied with how they handled their roles in life and with their careers. They reported feeling happy or very happy at the time of this study. As Gray (1983) found with the professionals in her study, the rewards of combining a profession and a family were well worth the effort.

The similarities found in these women's lives and their career development seem to offer more for reflection than the differences as exhibited by their membership in the age and general occupational categories. The control for age was shown to be significant in only one area, that of employment of the subjects' mothers. While other

factors can be involved, the higher percentage of younger women versus older women who had mothers who worked outside of the home reflects clearly the gradual influx of women into the work force, a reality affecting most segments of society today.

Whether they were women who worked outside of the home or more traditional homemakers, the subjects' mothers were, in general, women who were satisfied with their roles. In many cases, these women were models of strength for their daughters and they offered a tremendous belief in their daughters' potential. Their support of their daughters' aspirations adds to the evidence that early and consistent encouragement of young women's abilities from those close to them can be a powerful predictor of later achievement.

Given the fact that individual personality traits and intellectual ability might very well have been major factors that contributed to these subjects' achievements, their lives still offer models of hope and direction for women. The competence, confidence, and control of which they spoke, suggests to women at all career achievement levels that working can mean more than just "making a living" and can provide satisfaction that translates into other areas of one's life.

Current trends in society make these lessons of keen importance to women today. The 1983 Handbook on Women Workers notes the factors which contributed to the increased labor force participation of women during the 1970's. Among those factors were: 1) a dramatic increase in marital disruption accompanied by an unprecedented rise in the number of women who have the sole responsibility for the economic

support and welfare of their families, 2) the increase in the life expectancy of women, and 3) the entry of young married women with children, particularly women of ages 25 to 34 ("baby boom" population group), into the labor force (p. 5).

The Handbook says that although positive changes have come about for women in the work force, there are old problems that continue to need attention. Despite the efforts being made by women to enlarge their occupational horizons and the development of programs to encourage these efforts, "occupational and industrial segregation remains the single most important problem facing women workers today because it is closely tied to their low earnings" (p. 51).

The key problem is one of many that must be addressed by our society. What is salient for the helping professionals dealing with young and older women alike, is an awareness of the sense of fulfillment that can be a part of a woman's employment, even when that employment is an economic necessity. It seems that when a woman can view work as a career and as an expression of competence, then it becomes the opportunity for satisfaction that it was for the women in this study. It can help women cope with family responsibilities and problems and be a source of strength which will vitalize rather than drain them.

Recommendations for Further Study

Research is ever reflective of societal shifts that are taking place for women and men and the family. The growing body of research into women's achievement behavior and career development is complicated by the rapid entry of women into the work force. Some

studies in the past, for example, defined high achieving women as those who entered nontraditional occupations. The gradual yet dramatic increase in women's admissions to traditionally male dominated professional and graduate schools is only one change that will impact on the core of women's studies. An accurate sense of the pulse of that change is crucial for women's research in the future.

There is an opportunity for further study on high achieving women that was beyond the scope of this paper. The following areas are worthy of additional investigation:

1. Further study should be done on the special challenges for women within a specific occupational field. For example, with more women entering managerial positions within business, research could focus on the different levels of management and the special problems which women might face as they approach these levels. While there were few significant occupational differences in the findings of this study, those that were found could be investigated further.

2. Further study should be done with women representing a broader base of racial and ethnic backgrounds. Additional study could include women in their twenties and thirties who are now more routinely entering occupations formerly considered nontraditional. Will the background characteristics which were evidenced in the present sample be of lesser importance over the years to come as career opportunities for women change?

3. Further study should be done to better understand role conflicts and how women deal with them. Time management, burnout, childcare, and changing family roles could all be a part of such a

study. Marriage and childrearing in the lives of working women today would be crucial to this research.

4. Further study should be done into what might make women in management positions more likely to be single than men in the same position; or, in some cases, more likely to be single than women of the same age who are in different professions.

5. Further study should be done on women's satisfaction with their career positions. The women in the present sample were, on the whole, satisfied with their careers. Are other women finding the same satisfaction? What is an important part of that satisfaction? What role do wages play, especially when a woman appears underpaid? What role does "fulfilling one's potential" have to do with that satisfaction?

6. Further study should be done with those adult women who are feeling unfulfilled in their careers. What can be done for those who did not have the benefits of early encouragement and support from those around them? Could their sense of self-esteem and confidence be improved in workshops or counseling sessions, either group or individual, at their place of employment?

7. Further study should be done to see what role personality plays in the lives of high achieving women. One of the limitations of this study was the fact that the subjects were not given an objective test, such as a personality inventory. Would these women have a similar "personality profile", and how would it compare to those found in the past?

8. Further study should be done to compare characteristics of

high achieving women with high achieving men. What similarities and differences are there? What could be learned about achievement and achievement motivation from such a comparison?

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APPENDIX A

February 26, 1985

Dear

I received your name from the Board of the which last fall appointed a committee to investigate the purpose and goal of a research project that I proposed to them. As a result, I was given permission to contact you and to encourage your participation in this study of high achieving women.

As a counselor in both private and public secondary schools for the past fourteen years, I have noted the low career aspirations of many of my female counselees. More recently, I have observed a positive change in those aspirations. This encouraging trend has increased my interest in the field of women's achievement and career motivation.

My planned doctoral research at Loyola University of Chicago's Department of Counseling Psychology is to profile a group of high achieving women. Specific focus will be given to background characteristics, current lifestyles, and career patterns, as compared with findings in previous research. My expectation is that by controlling for age, this study will address itself to the societal forces affecting both men and women today, and it will add to a more current description of the high achieving woman.

The is a diverse mixture of women who have demonstrated their achievements in a wide variety of endeavors. For this reason, the members of your group would offer an excellent sample for study, and I therefore invite you to participate in this research. The following items will be involved:

- 1) First, your willingness and agreement to be a part of the study sample group. Participation in this research project involves no risk. All data collected will be completely confidential, and will not be shared (except in code form) with anyone except me. The information will be number coded for analysis, reporting, and mailing purposes only.
- 2) You will be asked to complete the enclosed consent form and questionnaire, and to return them to me in the attached envelope.
- 3) You will be asked on the consent form if you would be willing to further highlight your background, current lifestyle, and career in an interview with me. You do not have to consent to be interviewed to be a part of the study. Because inclusion in the follow-up interviews will be based on the sampling guidelines of the study, not all

those who indicate consent will be interviewed.

- 4) You may withdraw from participation in the study at any time if you feel that you no longer wish to continue.
- 5) If you so choose, you will receive a summary of the results of the entire study. In addition, the committee working with me has discussed plans for a presentation of the results at a future brown bag lunch.

I would appreciate your returning the Consent Form and questionnaire to me by March 18, 1985. I shall be happy to answer any questions. My telephone number on weeknights and weekends is:

Thank you for your assistance.

Sincerely,

Gahan Jacobs

Name
Street Address
City, State Zip

Dear

Thank you for agreeing to participate in my research on high achieving women. I am enclosing your copy of Consent Form A which I have signed.

I appreciate your willingness to highlight some aspects of your career in an interview. Because inclusion in the follow-up interviews will be based on the sampling guidelines of the study, not all those who indicated consent will be interviewed. If you are to be interviewed, I will contact you within the next few weeks to arrange a time that is convenient for you.

Again, thank you for your time and interest in this project.

Sincerely,

Gahan Jacobs

April 12, 1985

Name
Street Address
City, State Zip

Dear

I am writing to you in the event that you would still like to participate in my research on high achieving women. I know that this is a busy time of the year, and that you might have wanted to be a part of the study, but did not have the time to complete the questionnaire. I am therefore enclosing a duplicate questionnaire for you.

As I mentioned in the first mailing, participation in the research will involve the following items:

- 1) First, your willingness and agreement to be a part of the study sample group. Participation in this research project involves no risk. All data collected will be completely confidential, and will not be shared (except in code form) with anyone except me. The information will be number coded for analysis, reporting, and mailing purposes only.
- 2) You will be asked to complete the enclosed consent form and questionnaire, and to return them to me in the attached envelope.
- 3) You will be asked on the consent form if you would be willing to further highlight your background, current lifestyle, and career in an interview with me. You do not have to consent to be interviewed to be a part of the study. Because inclusion in the follow-up interviews will be based on the sampling guidelines of the study, not all those who indicate consent will be interviewed.
- 4) You may withdraw from participation in the study at any time if you feel that you no longer wish to continue.
- 5) If you so choose, you will receive a summary of the results of the entire study. In addition, the committee working with me has discussed plans for a presentation of the results at a future brown bag lunch.

If you choose to participate in the study, I would be happy to receive your response. I would appreciate your returning the Consent Form and questionnaire to me in the enclosed self-addressed stamped envelope by April 26th. I am available to answer any questions. My telephone number on weeknights and weekends is:

Thank you for your assistance.

Sincerely,

Gahan Jacobs

May 17, 1985

Name
Street Address
City, State Zip

Dear

Thank you again for your willingness to be a part of the sample group in my research on high achieving women. I have now collected most of the data from the survey questionnaires, and I am preparing for the interview phase of the study.

You indicated earlier that you would be willing to further highlight some aspects of your background, current lifestyle, and career in an interview with me. I would be honored to meet with you, and I hope that you can still consent to be interviewed.

I will call you during the week of May 25th to arrange a date and time that will be convenient for you. If you have any questions, I can be reached during the day at:
and on weeknights and weekends at:

I am looking forward to meeting you.

Sincerely,

Gahan Jacobs

Name
Street Address
City, State Zip

Dear

Thank you for allowing me to interview you last week. I enjoyed meeting you, and I appreciate your taking the time to participate in my study.

I hope that you have a wonderful summer. Thank you again.

Sincerely,

Gahan Jacobs

APPENDIX B

CONSENT FORM A

Project Title: AN INVESTIGATION OF THE BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS,
CURRENT LIFESTYLES, AND CAREER PATTERNS IN A GROUP
OF HIGH ACHIEVING WOMEN

I, _____, state that I am over 18 years of age and that I wish to participate in a program of research being conducted by Gahan Jacobs.

Participation involves the completion of a paper and pencil self-administered questionnaire. It may also involve a personal interview, if I give my permission below for that phase of the study.

The written instrument and personal interview will be treated as confidential. To insure confidentiality, subjects will be coded and data recorded according to code number.

I acknowledge that Gahan Jacobs has fully explained to me the need for the research; has informed me that I may withdraw from participation at any time without prejudice; has offered to answer any inquiries which I may make concerning the procedures to be followed; and has informed me that I will be given a copy of this consent form. I freely and voluntarily consent to my participation in this research project.

Signature of Volunteer

Date

Would you be willing to further highlight some aspects of your background, current lifestyle, and career with this researcher in an interview?

YES _____ NO _____

Would you like a copy of the research findings?

YES _____ NO _____

Signature of Researcher

Date

CONSENT FORM B

Project Title: AN INVESTIGATION OF THE BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS,
CURRENT LIFESTYLES, AND CAREER PATTERNS IN A GROUP
OF HIGH ACHIEVING WOMEN

I, _____, state that I am over 18 years
of age and that I wish to participate in the personal interview
phase of the research being conducted by Gahan Jacobs. I give
my permission for the interview of _____ to be tape
recorded. _____ Date

I understand that the tape recording and the interview notes
will be treated as confidential. To insure confidentiality, sub-
jects will be coded and data recorded according to code number.

Signature of Volunteer

Signature of Researcher

Date

SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

Code Number



1. Occupational History (beginning with present)

Type of Organization	Type of Position(s)
(if applicable)	

Dates Position Held

2. Educational History (beginning with newest)

Institution	Degree	Date
-------------	--------	------

Field of Study

3. Other Non-degree Granting Education

Institution	Type of Study
-------------	---------------

Length of Study

Dates

4. Which of the following best describes your employment history? (Circle number)

- 1 FULL-TIME EMPLOYMENT
- 2 PART-TIME EMPLOYMENT
- 3 A COMBINATION OF FULL-TIME AND PART-TIME EMPLOYMENT

5. Have you been employed continuously throughout your adult life? (Circle number)

- 1 YES
- 2 NO

IF NO, what were the circumstances of the interruption in your employment?
(e.g. took 3 years off to rear my children)

Next, would you please answer some questions about your childhood.

6. List the birth order in your family of origin. If you had brothers and sisters, please indicate how many of each and whether they were older or younger than yourself, e.g. 1. older brother - 3 years older

- 2. myself
- 3. younger sister - 2 years younger

1. _____	6. _____
2. _____	7. _____
3. _____	8. _____
4. _____	9. _____
5. _____	10. _____

7. Were both of your parents living during your entire childhood (through age 18)? (Circle number)

- 1 YES
- 2 NO

IF NO: A. Which parent was not living during your entire childhood?

Parent

B. How old were you at the time of that parent's death?

Your Age

8. What was your parents' marital status while you were growing up? (Circle number)

- 1 MARRIED AND LIVING TOGETHER
2 DIVORCED OR SEPARATED

IF DIVORCED OR SEPARATED:

- A. How old were you at the time of the divorce or separation? _____
Your Age
- B. With which parent did you then live? _____
Parent
- C. Comments, if any _____

9. Did anyone else live with your family while you were growing up? (Circle number)

- 1 YES
2 NO

IF YES, tell the relationship and the years the person lived with you.

10. What is the highest level of education that your parents have completed?
(Circle number of one choice in each column)

FATHER	MOTHER	
1	1	ELEMENTARY EDUCATION
2	2	SOME HIGH SCHOOL
3	3	HIGH SCHOOL DIPLOMA
4	4	SOME COLLEGE
5	5	BACHELOR'S DEGREE
6	6	SOME GRADUATE WORK
7	7	MASTER'S DEGREE
8	8	PH.D. OR PROFESSIONAL DEGREE SUCH AS LAW OR MEDICINE

11. When you were growing up, what was your father's usual occupation? (Please be as specific as possible. More than one occupation may be listed. If your father is retired or deceased, please give former occupation(s))

12. What was your mother's usual occupation? (Again, please be as specific as possible. If your mother is retired or deceased, please give former occupation(s))

13. How would you describe your family's income level during most of your childhood (through age 18)? (Circle number)

- 1 LOW INCOME
- 2 LOWER MIDDLE INCOME
- 3 MIDDLE INCOME
- 4 UPPER MIDDLE INCOME
- 5 HIGH INCOME
- 6 DON'T KNOW

14. Which of the following statements best describes your mother's employment history since you were born? By employment is meant working half time or more.

- 1 SHE RARELY OR NEVER HAD A REGULAR PAID JOB
- 2 SHE WORKED FROM TIME TO TIME
- 3 SHE WORKED ABOUT HALF THE TIME
- 4 SHE HAD A PAID JOB MORE OF THE TIME THAN NOT
- 5 SHE ALMOST ALWAYS HAD A REGULAR PAID JOB

15. Was your mother employed during the following periods of your life? Please use the following code and insert the appropriate numerical response in the blanks.

- 1- NOT EMPLOYED
- 2- PART-TIME EMPLOYMENT
- 3- FULL-TIME EMPLOYMENT
- 4- COMBINATION OF FULL-TIME AND PART-TIME EMPLOYMENT

- A. _____ when you were 5 years and younger
- B. _____ when you were between 6 and 10 years old
- C. _____ when you were between 11 and 15 years old
- D. _____ when you were 16 years old or older

16. If your mother was employed at any of these times, how do you think she felt about working? (Circle number)

- 1 VERY NEGATIVE
- 2 MILDLY NEGATIVE
- 3 MILDLY POSITIVE
- 4 VERY POSITIVE

17. If your mother was employed at any of the times listed in question 15, how do you think your father felt about your mother working? (Circle number)

- 1 VERY NEGATIVE
- 2 MILDLY NEGATIVE
- 3 MILDLY POSITIVE
- 4 VERY POSITIVE

18. Do you think your mother found the role of homemaker satisfying? (Circle number)

- 1 NOT AT ALL SATISFYING
- 2 SLIGHTLY SATISFYING
- 3 MOSTLY SATISFYING
- 4 ENTIRELY SATISFYING

19. How close to your mother were you up to the age of 18? (Circle number)

- 1 DISTANT EMOTIONALLY, NOT CLOSE AT ALL
- 2 FAIRLY CLOSE
- 3 MODERATELY CLOSE
- 4 VERY CLOSE, STRONG EMOTIONAL TIE

20. How close to your father were you up to the age of 18? (Circle number)

- 1 DISTANT EMOTIONALLY, NOT CLOSE AT ALL
- 2 FAIRLY CLOSE
- 3 MODERATELY CLOSE
- 4 VERY CLOSE, STRONG EMOTIONAL TIE

21. When you were growing up, how important do you think it was to your mother and father that men and women adhere to more traditional sex roles? (Circle number for each)

FATHER

MOTHER

- 1 VERY IMPORTANT
- 2 FAIRLY IMPORTANT
- 3 FAIRLY UNIMPORTANT
- 4 VERY UNIMPORTANT

- 1 VERY IMPORTANT
- 2 FAIRLY IMPORTANT
- 3 FAIRLY UNIMPORTANT
- 4 VERY UNIMPORTANT

Comments, if any _____

22. What is your current marital status? (Circle number)

- 1 SINGLE (NEVER MARRIED)
- 2 MARRIED (ONLY ONCE)
- 3 DIVORCED
- 4 REMARRIED
- 5 SEPARATED
- 6 WIDOWED

23. (IF EVER MARRIED)

A. When were you first married? In what month and year was it?
(Code month and year in numerals)

Month

Year

B. What was your age at the time of that marriage? _____

Age

24. How many children have you had? _____
(Specify number)

Children's Ages: _____

Please take a few moments to reflect back on your life to date. Which people have influenced you in your career choice? Positive influence refers to someone whom you feel similar to, whom you wish to be like, or whose attitudes or values you want to adopt. Negative influence refers to someone whom you feel dissimilar to, whom you do not wish to be like, or whose attitudes or values you refuse to adopt.

On the following items, cross out those people for whom the question is not applicable. Indicate the extent to which those remaining have influenced you by circling the appropriate number. It is important that you respond to every item by either circling a number or crossing out.

WHOSE LIFE AND ACTIVITIES INFLUENCED YOUR CAREER CHOICE?

25. While in high school:	STRONG NEGATIVE INFLUENCE				STRONG POSITIVE INFLUENCE			
Mother	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	
Father	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	
Brother(s)	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	
Sister(s)	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	
Female teacher(s)	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	
Male teacher(s)	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	
Female friend(s)	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	
Male friend(s)	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	
Other female adult(s)	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	
Other male adult(s)	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	
26. While getting your undergraduate degree								
Mother	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	
Father	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	
Brother(s)	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	
Sister(s)	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	
Female teacher(s)	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	
Male teacher(s)	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	
Female friend(s)	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	
Male friend(s)	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	
Other female adult(s)	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	
Other male adult(s)	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	
27. While in graduate school (if applicable)								
Mother	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	
Father	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	
Brother(s)	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	
Sister(s)	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	
Female teacher(s)	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	
Male teacher(s)	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	
Female friend(s)	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	
Male friend(s)	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	
Other female adult(s)	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	
Other male adult(s)	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	

28. You indicated on questions 25, 26, and 27 the extent to which your mother influenced your choice of career. How exactly did your mother influence your choice of career? What about her, or through what behaviors, did she encourage or discourage the career you have chosen?

29. Similarly, you indicated the extent to which your father influenced your career choice. How did your father influence you? What about him, or through what behaviors, did he encourage or discourage the career you have chosen?

30. At what time in your life did you first decide to pursue a career?

31. Who are the three people (by role, not by name) who most directly influenced your career to date? Please indicate the sex of the person to whom you are referring. (e.g. female undergraduate professor)

Most influential	Second most influential	Third most influential
------------------	-------------------------	------------------------

32. What is the relationship to you of the person on whom you currently depend most for encouragement and moral support for your career? Again, please indicate the sex of that person.

33. If you have/had a spouse, which of the following best describes your husband's attitude toward your career? (Circle number)

- 1 VERY NEGATIVE TOWARD MY CAREER
- 2 MILDLY NEGATIVE TOWARD MY CAREER
- 3 MILDLY SUPPORTIVE OF MY CAREER
- 4 VERY SUPPORTIVE OF MY CAREER

All of us fulfill a variety of roles in pursuing our everyday activities. In the course of any day, each of us may function in such roles as parent, student, employer, or daughter (to name just a few). The requirements of the role itself, as well as the expectations of others, can make behavioral demands on us. When the behavioral demands of multiple roles are incompatible, we are likely to experience role-conflict.

37. Have you experienced role-conflict as you have managed your career?
(Circle number)

- 1 YES
- 2 NO

IF YES, please list any conflicts you experience or have experienced between roles.

38. Overall, how satisfied do you feel with the ways you deal with your roles in life? (Circle number)

- 1 DISSATISFIED
- 2 NEUTRAL: NEITHER SATISFIED NOR DISSATISFIED
- 3 MILDLY SATISFIED
- 4 VERY SATISFIED
- 5 EXTREMELY SATISFIED

39. Overall, how satisfied do you feel with your career? (Circle number)

- 1 DISSATISFIED
- 2 NEUTRAL: NEITHER SATISFIED NOR DISSATISFIED
- 3 MILDLY SATISFIED
- 4 VERY SATISFIED
- 5 EXTREMELY SATISFIED

40. What is the month, day, and year of your birth?

Month	Day	Year
-------	-----	------

41. Please circle the place of birth for each of the following:

USA	NON-USA
1	2 SELF
1	2 MOTHER
1	2 FATHER

42. If you have a spouse, what is that person's occupation?

43. Which of the following best describes your racial or ethnic identification?
(Circle number)

- 1 BLACK (NEGRO)
 - 2 CHICANO (MEXICAN-AMERICAN)
 - 3 NATIVE AMERICAN (AMERICAN INDIAN)
 - 4 ORIENTAL
 - 5 PUERTO RICAN AMERICAN
 - 6 WHITE (CAUCASIAN)
 - 7 OTHER -- SPECIFY _____
-

44. In general, how happy would you say you are? (Circle one)

- 1 VERY HAPPY
- 2 HAPPY
- 3 NOT VERY HAPPY
- 4 UNHAPPY
- 5 VERY UNHAPPY

45. Finally, what do you think is the most important attribute that a woman in your field must possess to be successful in her career?

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION! Please feel free to add any comments about the items on this questionnaire, or your answers to them, in the space below or on the back of this sheet of paper. Again, thank you.

INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Could you tell me something about the specific responsibilities of your position as _____?

A. In addition to your regular work, are there other professional or outside interests that are important to you?

2. Do you remember at what point in your life you decided to enter your present field?

PROBES: Was that the first career in which you were interested? At what time in your life did you first decide to pursue a career?

A. If not covered in the answer to the above, was anyone or any event an important part of your decision to become a _____?

3. When you were seventeen or eighteen, which would have been about the time of high school graduation, what kinds of expectations or goals did you have for your adult life?

A. Did you have any idea how your goals compared to those of your friends or peers?

4. Have you been employed continuously throughout your adult life?

1 Yes

2 No

If No, go to Q. 5

If Yes, what were the circumstances of the interruption in your employment?

5. Is there any one person in your life who stands out as one who helped to guide, encourage, or inspire your work?

6. From a list given to you on the written questionnaire, you choose three factors as being the most helpful in the development of your career. They were: INTERVIEWER STATES THOSE THREE FACTORS.

A. Could you elaborate on any one of those factors as being helpful in the development of your career?

7. When asked to indicate the problems or obstacles that you have encountered in developing your career, you choose _____ as being a _____ (major or minor) problem(s). Could you tell me more about those problem(s)/obstacle(s)?

8. I would like to refer to some of those items on the written questionnaire that asked about your childhood?

A. You responded that: _____

STATE SUBJECT'S RELATIONSHIP WITH FATHER AND MOTHER AS FOUND ON THE WRITTEN QUESTIONNAIRE. Subject may respond with comments, additions, or corrections.

B. You also said that: _____

STATE SUBJECT'S BIRTH POSITION IN FAMILY OF ORIGIN. Subject may respond with comments, addition, or corrections.

C. Do you think that your birth position as _____ (FILL IN FROM ABOVE) had an effect on your present level of achievement?

1 Yes

2 No

IF NO, go to Q. 8D

IF YES, could you talk about that effect?

D. ASK ONLY IF SOMEONE ELSE LIVED WITH FAMILY WHEN

SUBJECT WAS GROWING UP. You mentioned that

_____ (e.g. your grandmother)

lived with your family when you were growing up.

How did you relate to _____ (him, her, etc.)

9. Can you characterize your relationship with each of your parents when you were growing up?

PROBES: Can you talk about how close you were to each parent?

10. Could you talk about your mother's feelings about herself as a person and how she showed those feelings to you?

PROBE: What was your mother's level of self-confidence and/or self-esteem?

11. IF SUBJECT'S MOTHER HAD PAID EMPLOYMENT OUTSIDE OF THE HOME. IF NOT, GO TO Q. 12.

A. You responded on the written questionnaire

that: _____ FILL

IN SUBJECT'S MOTHER'S WORK STATUS OVER TIME. Sub-

ject may respond with comments, additions, or corrections.

- B. Do you think your mother wanted to work outside of the home?

PROBES: Were there financial circumstances which required her to work? How did she feel about working outside of the home?

- C. Do you think your mother found the role of homemaker satisfying?

PROBE: Specifically, how did she feel about the child-rearing and the housekeeping aspects of managing the home?

- D. What effect, if any, did your mother's employment have on you?

12. TO BE ANSWERED BY THOSE WHOSE MOTHERS DID NOT HAVE PAID EMPLOYMENT OUTSIDE THE HOME.

- A. Do you think your mother would have wanted to work outside the home for pay?

B. Was your mother involved in other kinds of activities,
such as volunteer work?

1 Yes

2 No

IF NO, go to 12C

IF YES, could you tell me about some of those activities?

C. Do you think your mother found the role of homemaker
satisfying?

PROBE: Specifically, how did your mother feel about
the childrearing and housekeeping aspects of
managing the home?

13. As a member of _____, you have been recognized
as a woman who has achieved a great deal within her
field. What influence, if any, did your mother have
on your present status as a high achieving woman?

NOTE: Interviewer may find that the subject has
already answered this question.

14. You responded on the written questionnaire that your father's usual occupation was: _____ FILL IN FATHER'S USUAL OCCUPATION. Subject may respond with comments, additions, or corrections.

15. What influence, if any, did your father have on your present status as a high achieving woman?

NOTE: As with Q. 13, this question may have already been answered by the subject.

16. On the written questionnaire, reference was made to conflicts that can arise from our roles as daughters, students, employers, and parents, to name just a few. Could you talk about any role conflicts that you have experienced while managing your career?

PROBE: Could you elaborate on how you dealt with this role conflict?

17. What is your present marital status?

IF SINGLE, go to Q. 19.

IF MARRIED, WIDOWED, REMARRIED, OR DIVORCED: Could you describe your husband's (former husband's attitude toward your career)?

PROBE: How did he make his feelings about your career known to you?

18. Did you plan your career around the idea of marriage?

1 Yes

2 No

IF NO, please explain. Then go to Q. 19.

IF YES, could you explain further?

19. Did you feel that your socio-economic status when you were growing up had an effect on your present level of achievement?

1 Yes

2 No

IF NO, go to Q. 20

IF YES, could you explain how?

20. When you think about what you have achieved, do you feel that you have had to make sacrifices along the way?

PROBES: Personal sacrifices? Time? Family?

21. What have been your greatest career rewards?

22. On whom or what do you currently depend for encouragement and moral support for your career?

PROBE: What does that person (or thing) do for you?

23. What is your religious preference, if any?

24. How would you define success?

25. What things do you consider important for aspiring young women _____ to know?

PROBES: What advice would you give to young women in your field? What advice would you give to a young woman in your field that you are mentoring?

APPENDIX C

Table C-1

Frequencies, Percentages, and Chi-Square Results: Relation Between Age and Occupation

Age	Occupation				Significance Value
	Professional/ Technical n	% of Prof/Tech	Managerial/ Administrative n	% of Mgr/Adm	
Group 1 (32-46)	14	51.9	18	45.0	.582
Group 2 (47-70)	13	48.1	22	55.0	

Table C-2

Frequencies, Percentages, and Chi-Square Results: Relation Between Age and Occupation to Birth Order Position

Birth Position	Totals		Age				Occupation				Age	Occupation
	n	%	Group 1 (32-46)		Group 2 (47-70)		Prof/Tech		Mgr/Adm			
			n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%		
Oldest, only, or child with only female siblings	50	74.6	24	75.0	26	74.3	21	77.8	29	72.5	.947	.626
Other	17	25.4	8	25.0	9	25.7	6	22.2	11	27.5		

Table C-3

Summary: Chi-Square Results on the Age and Occupation Variables

Variable	Question: Age or Occupation Crosstabulated With:	Significance Value	
		Age	Occupation
Birth Order Position	Whether or not the subject is an oldest child, only child, or child with only female siblings	.947	.626
Family Income Level	Whether or not the subject came from a family with high income level	.197	.731
Parents' Combined Occupation/Education	Whether or not the subject had one or both parents with high occupational and/or educational status	.118	.711
Parents' Influence on Career Choice	Whether or not the subject had <u>both</u> parents who emphasized achievement	.315	.214
Father's Influence on Career	Whether or not the subject had a supportive father who was an important achievement role model	.520	.268
Mother's Employment History	Whether or not the subject's mother worked outside of the home	.009**	.964
Mother's Feelings About Career or Homemaking	Whether or not the subject had a working mother who was happy at work or a nonworking mother who was unhappy as a homemaker	.073	.903
Subject's Marital Status and Age at Time of Marriage	Whether or not the subject had married late or was presently single	.544	.723
Husband's Attitude Toward Wife's Career	Whether or not the subject's husband supports the idea of her career	1.000	.897

**Significant at alpha level .01

Table C-4

Frequencies, Percentages, and Chi-Square Results: Relation Between Age and Occupation to Family Income Level

Income Level	Totals		Age				Occupation				Significance Value	
	n	%	Group 1 (32-46)		Group 2 (47-70)		Prof/ Tech		Mgr/ Adm		Age	Occupation
			n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%		
Low, lower middle, middle, or upper middle	63	95.5	28	90.3	35	100.0	25	96.2	38	95.0	.197	.731
High	3	4.5	3	9.7	0	0.0	1	3.8	2	5.0		

Table C-5

Frequencies, Percentages, and Chi-Square Results: Relation Between Age and Occupation to Modified Family Income Level

Income Level	Totals		Age				Occupation				Significance Value	
	n	%	Group 1 (32-46)		Group 2 (47-70)		Prof/ Tech		Mgr/ Adm		Age	Occupation
Low, lower middle, middle,	43	65.2	22	71.0	21	60.0	18	69.2	25	62.5	.351	.575
Upper middle, or high	23	34.8	9	29.0	14	40.0	8	30.8	15	37.5		

Table C-6

Frequencies, Percentages, and Chi-Square Results: Relation Between Age and Occupation to Parents' Combined Occupational/Educational Status

Parents' Occupational/Educational Status	Totals		Age				Occupation				Significance Value	
	n	%	Group 1 (32-46)		Group 2 (47-70)		Prof/Tech		Mgr/Adm		Age	Occupation
Subjects had one or both parents with high occupational and/or educational status	57	85.1	30	93.8	27	77.1	24	88.9	33	82.5	.118	.711
Other	10	14.9	2	6.3	8	22.9	3	11.1	7	17.5		

Table C-7

Frequencies, Percentages, and Chi-Square Results: Relation Between Age and Occupation to Parents' Influence on Career Choice

Parents/ Influence on Career Choice	Totals		Age				Occupation				Significance Value	
	n	%	Group 1 (32-46)		Group 2 (47-70)		Prof/ Tech		Mgr/ Adm		Age	Occupation
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%		
Subject had <u>both</u> parents who emphasized achievement	39	66.1	19	73.1	20	60.6	13	56.5	26	72.2	.315	.214
Subject did not have both parents who emphasized achievement	20	33.9	7	26.9	13	39.4	10	43.5	10	27.8		

Table C-8

Frequencies, Percentages, and Chi-Square Results: Relation Between Age and Occupation to
Father's Influence on Career

Father's Influence	Totals		Age				Occupation				Significance Value	
	n	%	Group 1 (32-46)		Group 2 (47-70)		Prof/ Tech		Mgr/ Adm		Age	Occupation
			n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%		
Subject had a father who provided an occupational role model or high encouragement	51	83.6	24	88.9	27	79.4	18	75.0	33	89.2	.520	.268
Subject did not have a father who provided either an occupational role model or high encouragement	10	16.4	3	11.1	7	20.6	6	25.0	4	10.8		

Table C-9

Frequencies, Percentages, and Chi-Square Results: Relation Between Age and Occupation to
Mother's Employment History

Mother's Employment History	Totals		Age				Occupation				Significance Value	
	n	%	Group 1 (32-46)		Group 2 (47-70)		Prof/ Tech		Mgr/ Adm		Age	Occupation
			n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%		
Subjects' mother worked outside of the home	37	55.2	23	71.9	14	40.0	15	55.6	22	55.0	.009**	.964
Subjects' mother did not work outside of the home	30	44.8	9	28.1	21	60.0	12	44.4	18	45.0		

**Significant at alpha level .01.

Table C-10

Frequencies, Percentages, and Chi-Square Results: Relation Between Age and Occupation to
Mother's Feelings About Career or Homemaking

Mother's Feelings About Career or Homemaking	Totals		Age				Occupation				Significance Value	
	n	%	Group 1 (32-46)		Group 2 (47-70)		Prof/ Tech		Mgr/ Adm		Age	Occupation
			n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%		
Subject had a working mother who was happy at work or a nonworking mother who was unhappy as a homemaker	39	60.9	23	71.9	16	50.0	15	60.0	24	61.5	.073	.903
Subject had a working mother who was unhappy at work or a non- working mother who was happy as a homemaker	25	39.1	9	28.1	16	50.0	10	40.0	15	38.5		

Table C-11

Strength of Role Model Influencers at Three Points in Time

Influencer	In high school			Undergraduate years			In graduate school		
	n	Mean	SD	n	Mean	SD	n	Mean	SD
Mother	61	5.6	1.6	55	5.4	1.7	33	5.4	1.7
Father	62	5.8	1.6	53	5.6	1.6	27	5.8	1.5
Brother(s)	35	4.4	1.3	30	4.5	1.2	24	4.5	1.0
Sister(s)	38	4.6	1.4	32	4.7	1.3	21	4.8	1.1
Female teacher(s)	54	5.6	1.2	46	5.4	1.2	23	5.0	1.2
Male teacher(s)	45	5.3	1.3	51	5.7	1.2	37	6.2	1.1
Female friend(s)	49	5.4	1.1	52	5.6	1.2	35	5.7	1.1
Male friend(s)	47	5.1	1.2	47	5.4	1.2	38	6.1	1.0
Other female adult(s)	43	5.3	1.1	41	5.1	1.2	29	5.4	1.2
Other male adult(s)	38	5.2	1.2	41	5.0	1.1	31	5.6	1.3

Table C-12

Frequencies, Percentages, and Chi-Square Results: Relation Between
Occupation and Marital Status

Subjects Marital Status	Totals		Occupation				Significance Value
	n	%	Prof/Tech		Mgr/Adm		
			n	%	n	%	
Single, divorced, or separated	24	35.8	7	25.9	17	42.5	.165
Married, remarried, or widowed	43	64.2	20	74.1	23	57.5	

Table C-13

Frequencies, Percentages, and Chi-Square Results: Relation Between
Occupation and Modified Marital Status Categories

Subject's Marital Status	Totals		Prof/Tech		Mgr/Adm		Significance Value
	n	%	n	%	n	%	
Single	13	19.4	1	3.7	12	30.0	.020*
Divorced, separated, married, remarried, or widowed	54	80.6	26	96.3	28	70.0	

*Significant at alpha level .05.

Table C-14

Frequencies, Percentages, and Chi-Square Results: Relation Between Age and Occupation to Subject's Marital Status and Age at Time of Marriage

Subject's Marital Status and Age at Time of Marriage	Totals		Age				Occupation				Significance Value	
	n	%	Group 1 (32-46)		Group 2 (47-70)		Prof/Tech		Mgr/Adm		Age	Occupation
Subject is presently single (never married, divorced or widowed) <u>or</u> had married late	34	50.7	15	46.9	19	54.3	14	48.3	20	34.5	.544	.723
Subject is presently married (married - only once - or remarried) and had not married late	33	49.3	17	53.1	16	45.7	15	51.7	38	65.5		

Table C-15

Frequencies, Percentages, and Chi-Square Results: Relation Between Age and Occupation to Husband's Attitude Toward Wife's Career

Husband's Attitude	Totals		Age				Occupation				Significance Value	
	n	%	Group 1 (32-46)		Group 2 (47-70)		Prof/ Tech		Mgr/ Adm		Age	Occupation
			n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%		
Very negative or Mildly negative	8	16.7	4	16.7	4	16.7	3	13.6	5	19.2	1.000	.897
Mildly positive or Very positive	40	83.3	20	83.3	20	83.3	19	86.4	21	80.8		

Table C-16

Frequencies, Percentages, and Chi-Square Results: Relation Between Age and Occupation to Experiencing of Role Conflicts

Experience of Role Conflicts	Totals		Age				Occupation				Significance Value	
	n	%	Group 1 (32-46)		Group 2 (47-70)		Prof/Tech		Mgr/Adm		Age	Occupation
Have experienced role conflict(s)	49	75.4	25	78.1	24	72.7	22	81.5	27	71.1	.614	.503
Have not experienced role conflicts	16	24.6	7	21.9	9	27.3	5	18.5	11	28.9		

Table C-17

Frequencies, Percentages, and Chi-Square Results: Relation Between Experience of Role Conflicts and Level of Satisfaction in Dealing with Life Roles

Satisfaction Level/ Dealing with Life Roles	Totals		Experience of Role Conflicts				Significance Value
	n	%	Have experienced role conflict(s)		Have not experienced role conflict(s)		
			n	%	n	%	
Dissatisfied or neutral, or mildly satisfied	20	31.7	18	37.5	2	13.3	p < .05
Very satisfied or extremely satisfied	43	68.3	30	62.5	13	86.7	

Table C-18

Frequencies, Percentages, and Chi-Square Results: Relation Between Age and Occupation to

Level of Satisfaction in Dealing with Life Roles

Satisfaction Level/ Dealing with Life Roles	Totals		Age				Occupation				Significance Value	
	n	%	Group 1 (32-46)		Group 2 (47-70)		Prof/ Tech		Mgr/ Adm		Age	Occupation
			n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%		
Dissatisfied or neutral, or mildly satisfied	21	32.3	8	25.8	13	38.2	8	30.8	13	33.3	p < .30	p < .90
Very satisfied or extremely satisfied	44	67.7	23	74.2	21	61.8	18	69.2	26	66.7		

Table C-19

Frequencies, Percentages, and Chi-Square Results: Relation Between Age and Occupation to

Level of Satisfaction with Career

Satisfaction with Career	Totals		Age				Occupation				Significance Value	
	n	%	Group 1 (32-46)		Group 2 (47-70)		Prof/ Tech		Mgr/ Adm		Age	Occupation
Dissatisfied or neutral, or mildly satisfied	11	16.9	3	9.7	8	23.6	3	11.5	8	20.5	p < .30	p < .70
Very satisfied, or extremely satisfied	54	83.1	28	90.3	26	76.4	23	88.5	31	79.5		

APPROVAL SHEET

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The dissertation is therefore accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

November 18, 1986
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