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A Comparison Of Twelfth Grade School Counselors' Attitude Toward The Aims Of The Women's Movement And The Career Options Offered To Their Counselees

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A Comparison of Twelfth Grade School Counselors'
Attitude toward the Aims of the Women's
Movement and the Career Options
Offered to their
Counselees

A Dissertation
Presented to
the Faculty of the Graduate School
University of the Pacific

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Education

by
Stella E. Alonzo
May 1983

c 1983

Stella E. Alonzo

A COMPARISON OF TWELFTH GRADE SCHOOL COUNSELORS'

ATTITUDE TOWARD THE AIMS OF THE WOMEN'S

MOVEMENT AND THE CAREER OPTIONS

OFFERED THEIR COUNSELEES

Abstract of Dissertation

The Problem: The women's movement calls for social change and new options for women in society. Among these options are career options which women have never had before.

This study attempted to examine if high school counselors who agreed with the aims of the women's movement would offer more non-traditional career options for both male and female twelfth grade counselees.

Procedures: CPGA's list of names of 839 School Counselors was used to survey the attitude toward the feminist aims. Dempewolff's Feminist Scale--Form A (1972) was used to measure counselors' attitude toward the aims. To obtain the career options offered by counselors, Counselor's Estimate Questionnaire was devised by the researcher. Questionnaires were mailed to all 839 since there was no way to identify only twelfth grade counselors. Only counselors who had

twelfth grade students were used in this study. Data were analyzed using analyses of variance and chi-square. Student cumulative grade point average, ethnicity, and career interests were also examined.

Findings: Analysis of the data indicated that women counselors tended to support the feminist aims more than male counselors. Support or opposition for the aims did not, however, influence counselors' tendency to offer more non-traditional career options to their counselees. Female counselees more than male counselees expressed a non-traditional career interest. The higher the G.P.A. for both male and female students the more non-traditional career interests were expressed.

Conclusions: The study supports the hypothesis that women more than men support the aims of the feminist movement. The study did not show that support for the aims of the feminist movement also increased the tendency to offer more non-traditional career options to counselees. Twelfth grade female students expressed more interest in non-traditional careers than male students.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Much has been said about the women's liberation movement through almost all means of mass communication, but the movement's fundamental aims are not always understood. Shaffer (1979) said that it is more than just a movement, and demonstrated that it is an economic, social, and political struggle. The women's movement is also a psychological, intellectual and emotional struggle, seeking to liberate women from viewing themselves as the inferior sex. It has been trying to remove society's male-female sex-role designations for the betterment of both sexes.

Shaffer (1979) concluded that the movement has probably done much to decrease sex-discrimination in education, politics and business. The movement's most noteworthy success has been in raising the awareness level of people. The question has been asked as to what the female's function in American society is. For women, it has meant a sharpened realization of their own personal stake in women's rights. Some have come

together in groups for solidarity, and to rebel against life's situation.

Leaders in the women's movement have stated that due to sex-role assignments and child-bearing functions, women have assumed a submissive role. For example, Dunbar (1970) stated that women have been programmed for a role of motherhood, which helps them develop a sense of caring for others, no self-reliance, flexibility, noncompetitiveness, cooperation, and materialism. Women develop a personality which subjects them to oppression rather than a personality which demands equality.

In considering the choice of a career, women are confronted with the fact that certain career options are not open to them. Rossi (1972) presented the ideas of some barriers that exist in certain fields. She was of the opinion that the sciences and mathematics are examples of areas in which women must develop certain aptitudes, if more women are to become scientists rather than teachers of science. Further, she stated (Rossi, 1972) that women must be encouraged to cultivate the analytic and mathematical abilities which the

sciences require. They must also be encouraged to be independent and self-reliant rather than complacent and obedient.

Women have formed groups to discuss what they can do individually and together to explore their role in the future. Lewis (1972) stated that women are learning that they have options and role choices--personal as well as vocational. She said that gaining strength through knowledge about themselves and their world is the kind of thing most counselors and psychologists want for their clients. In other words, the counselors help their clients to become self-realized. Counselors try to adjust women to values that are harmful to their own self-concepts; therefore, women are forming discussion groups without their help. Counselors should help women dream and seek their own options in life. They could bring their professional skills and sensitivities to the women's discussion groups.

Statement of the Problem

Schlossberg (1972) has stated that counselors who have women clients need to be able to raise their aspiration and their awareness level. Consciousness-

raising is simply helping women to free themselves in order to explore options freely. Women then will be able to act in ways that are appropriate to their own interests and values--not their particular sex. In her opinion, the counselor's role is to help women deal with their own goals. Thomas (1967) concluded in his research that counselors perceived deviate vocational goals (non-traditional) as being less appropriate for female clients than conforming vocational goals (traditional). The study further indicated that when a deviate vocational goal was attributed to the female client, it significantly increased the rating on the need for further counseling.

Tanney and Birk (1976) also reaffirmed that the research indicated that there is some sex bias in career counseling. Girls who are college bound are associated with traditionally feminine occupations and regardless of the counselors' sex, they rated female clients with deviate career goals to be more in need of counseling than those with conforming goals. Male counselors are not uniformly supportive of women work-

ing. This ambivalent attitude could cause problems for female clients.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the attitudes held by the members of the California School Counselors' Association (CSCA), a division of California Personnel & Guidance Association (CPGA), toward the aims of the feminist movement as measured by the feminist scale (Dempewolff 1972). A comparison was made between the counselors' agreement or disagreement with these aims and their own estimate of the types of career options they offered their counselees. The career options were examined as either being a career which is traditionally male or traditionally female, a career in which both sexes had close to equal representation, or a career which was non-traditional for the student's sex.

Need for the Study

Fitzgerald (1973) stated that there was a need for counselors to examine the new career options women were choosing. Even more research information was needed about women's personality development. It was stated

that both men and women counseling psychologists should be sensitized to the changing needs of girls and women.

Wong (1976) concluded that the counselor should self-assess his/her program to see if it complies with Affirmative Action policies for equal treatment of the sexes. A counselor should counsel with no discrimination on the basis of sex; and should not use sexist language or sex-stereotyped examples. A counselor should see that course assignments are not made solely with regard to a student's sex and should refrain from discouraging enrollment in courses on the basis of sex.

Therefore, the present research examined the attitudes toward the aims of the women's movement of both male and female secondary school counselors. The counselors involved in this study were given an opportunity to evaluate the career options expressed by their counselees. A closer look indicated whether these options were traditional or non-traditional fields for both male and female counselees. Thus, the study provided the researcher an opportunity to examine the counseling practices of a sample of secondary school counselors.

Hypotheses

Using the Feminism Scale II-Form A by Dempewolff (1972), the supporters and opposers of the aims of the women's movement were found among both male and female counselors.

Hypothesis One

Women more than men tend to support the aims of the women's movement.

Hypothesis Two

Counselors who support the aims of the women's movement tend to offer more non-traditional male/female career options to their counselees than those who oppose the aims.

Hypothesis Three

Those students who express a non-traditional career interest differ from those who express a traditional career interest on certain personal characteristics:

Sub-Hypothesis 3a. Sex: More women than men are likely to express a non-traditional career interest.

Sub-Hypothesis 3b. Ethnicity: White (non-minorities) are more likely to express a non-traditional

career interest than minorities.

Sub-Hypothesis 3c. Cumulative Grade Point Average: Students who express a non-traditional career interest are more likely to have a higher cumulative grade point average than those who express a traditional career interest.

Methodology

The sample came from a list of 837 names of secondary school counselors who were members of the California Personnel & Guidance Association (CPGA) in 1980. Every name was used in order to have a larger sample since response rates were not expected to be 100 per cent.

In order to assess the attitude toward the women's movement, Feminism Scale II--Form A (Dempewolff, 1972) was used (Appendix A). Dempewolff in her research discussion reported a reliability coefficient of .95. The validation of the Feminism Scale II--Form A was done by a two-way analysis of variance to test whether it effectively discriminated between groups (47 women and 42 men). The individuals were defined as being implicitly identified with or opposed to the women's

movement by their membership in specific groups or organizations. The Feminism Scale II--Form A mean score for supporters of the women's movement was 41.16 points above the mean score for opposers of the women's movement. The difference was close to two standard deviations (42.84) and accounted for 64.05% of the variance.

To receive the counselors' own estimates as to what type of career interests were expressed by counselees, a brief questionnaire was developed (Appendix B). The first part of the questionnaire dealt with the demographic characteristics of the counselor's school: type of school, student population, and the ethnicity of the population. The second part of the questionnaire asked the counselors to provide the expressed long range career interest for the first 10 twelfth grade counselees in the file. The counselors also provided data on each student's sex, age, ethnicity, and cumulative grade point average. They rated the students' expressed long range career interests as (1) Too High (unrealistic); (2) Appropriate (realistic); (3) Too Low (below potential). Finally, a

column was provided for their own suggested career options for each student.

Each counselor in the study completed a Family Background Sheet (Appendix C). This sheet provided some demographic and personal information about each counselor. This Family Background questionnaire was taken from Dempewolff's study (1972) and items 19 through 24 were added by this researcher to obtain more information. The questions asked dealt with the parents' education, occupation, work satisfaction, and religious preference. Questions 19 through 24 asked about birth order in the family, ethnicity of counselor, age, membership in a feminist organization, marital status, and sex.

The Dempewolff's Feminism Scale was mailed to all the counselors on the list provided by CPGA. A letter from Dr. Norma Gates--immediate Past-President of CPGA--was also included, thus providing an introduction to the researcher (Appendix D). The researcher included a letter outlining the research, and explaining that they would receive a second set of questionnaires in the mail (Appendix E). The second mailing

was done as soon as the first questionnaire was returned.

Statistical Procedures

Hypotheses 1 and 2 and Sub-Hypothesis 3c were analyzed by an analysis of variance. Sub-Hypotheses 3a and 3b were all analyzed by the use of the chi square.

Definition of Terms

Certain terms used in this study were defined here for working purposes. Dempewolff (1972) stated that in her study the term feminism was used to describe the aims of the women's movement. Occupations were labeled female dominated or male dominated. Those majors in which 40% or fewer of the graduates were female were classified as male dominated careers. Conversely, those disciplines in which at least 60% of the graduates were female were considered female dominated careers. This was based on the information contained in Earned Degrees Conferred 1977-78. The researcher felt that those occupations that did not

fall into one of these two categories should be placed in a special class and labeled as occupations of both. This term refers to those careers that have about equal representation of males and females. The terms traditional male/female careers refers to the representation of one sex over the other in that career. If 60% or more of the persons in any one career are males, that is to be considered a male-dominated field, and therefore a traditional male career. The same holds true for female representation in any given career. Non-traditional careers are those that are chosen by males or females in which one of the sexes has not been equally represented. Career options is a term used by the researcher that refers to a career suggestion given by the counselors that is different from the one expressed by the counselee.

Limitations and Assumptions

Since the women's movement has had such vast media coverage, it can be assumed that most people have an opinion about that movement. School counselors must also have some personal attitudes toward the feminist movement. The degree of counselor support or opposi-

tion toward the aims of the feminist movement is not known by the researcher. Dempewolff's Feminism Scale II-Form A. was used to find the degree of support for the aims of the Women's movement.

Counselors are expected to answer the questions on the Feminism Scale II as honestly as possible. Their files, on counselees, must also include written career recommendations. This will provide the information for the career options offered, a section of information needed for the Counselors' Estimate Questionnaire, which was the first of the three questionnaires mailed. California Personnel & Guidance Association (CPGA) draws its members from all California school counselors; therefore, the researcher must assume that CPGA counselors are a typical cross-section of all California counselors.

Certain limitations were encountered in this study due to its very nature. Only attitudes toward the aims of the women's movement were examined. The only instrument as a means to measure those attitudes was Dempewolff's Feminism Scale II-Form A. Only secondary school counselors were studied, and only those who were

members of the California Personnel & Guidance Association (CPGA) in 1980 participated in this research. Only those who answered all the questionnaires were studied. Further delimitations in this study were that only counselors who had twelfth grade counselees participated in the study. Only the first ten counselees who were twelfth graders, and who had expressed a career interest were chosen in this research study. Therefore, it had certain demographic limitations that in turn affected the generalizability of the study.

Organization of the Dissertation

Following this introductory chapter is a review of the literature related to this study. The aims of the feminist movement are described, especially those dealing with career development for both men and women. Implications toward career choices, recent investigations of sex-roles, and career aspirations are examined. The counselors' professional role between counselees' career aspirations and sex-roles are cited.

Chapter 3 describes the format, research design, and procedures followed in the implementation of this research. The population and sample are identified.

A report on a pilot study for the development of the Counselors' Estimate Questionnaire is discussed. The Dempewolff's Feminism Scale is discussed with regard to its validity and reliability. The methods of data collection and the statistical analyses of the data are explained.

Chapter 4 presents the findings derived from the administration of the Dempewolff's Feminist Scale-Form A and the Counselor's Estimate Questionnaire. Appropriate tables and charts are presented, and evidence corresponding to each question and hypothesis is considered.

Chapter 5 begins with a summary of the first four chapters. This is followed by a presentation of the conclusions which can be drawn from this study, and the implications of these conclusions. Finally, recommendations in the form of practical suggestions for use of the conclusions and for additional research are made.

Chapter 2

Review of Related Literature

The review of the literature included all sources available to university libraries through the Fall of 1982. Manual searches were supplemented by a computer search for materials. This review of research literature served these purposes:

1. A theoretical background was provided by a description of historical and contemporary aims of the Feminist movement.

2. An integrated framework between the Feminist movement and career options was provided by an examination of those studies focusing on sex roles, career aspirations of women, and the counselor's role.

3. An attempt to place the present study within a global framework was made by a review of specifically related studies and the integrated framework of the Feminist movement and career options.

Feminist Aims

Like any other social, political, or economic movement, there are differences even within any feminist group. Bardwick (1975) distinguished three kinds

of feminists: (1) Conservative feminists who are content with a modestly altered division of housework or who want equal pay for equal work; (2) Mainstream feminists who are essentially members of reformist groups which want to modify the institutions of the country; and (3) Radical feminists who see society as needing basic changes, not simple reforms. Mainstream feminists appeal to a far greater percentage of the population and are referred to as "feminists" and are closely identified with "The Movement". The majority of those in the National Organization of Women, The Women's Equity Action League, and women's professional organizations and/or political caucus are mainstream feminists. The integration of women into the mainstream of the American economy and politics are the primary goals of the dominant sector within feminism. In other words, the goals of the mainstream feminists are status, power, money, and autonomy. Salper (1972) took the movement a step further when she stated: "We also want the freedom not only to function as serious and responsible human beings, but also to effect major social changes that involve women and men" (P.3).

Conrad (1981) suggested that most movements change in direction. The transformation is caused by the interaction between the movement and the surrounding society. When any movement further develops its philosophical ideology, it consolidates the rhetoric to express the beliefs, feelings, and frustrations of its members. Demands begin to be imposed on the movement leaders by the participants and opposing factions. The philosophical rhetoric creates tensions between those who desire to maintain the ideological purity of the movement, and those who demand more practical, effective political action. The feminist movement is not any different in this respect from any other movement. In its first stages of development, the ideological rhetoric of feminists was of a Marxist nature, therefore the feminists demanded revolutionary changes in society. Westervelt (1973b) saw the radical feminists as closely allied with the neo-Marxist youth movements of the late 1960's.

McAfee and Wood (Salper, 1972) took the radical feminists and further divided them. The authors felt that the development of the women's movement had

produced different trends which divided into four categories:

1. Personal Liberation Groups. These were the first to demonstrate their own oppression among feminists. They became involved solely in "personal liberation" --attempts were made to create a "free" life style and to define a new criterion for personal relations. However, the criticism toward these groups was that their program only produced more women's groups, mostly devoted to a personal liberation therapy function.

2. Anti-Left Groups. They stated that since women were exploited before capitalism, as well as in capitalist and socialist societies, the overthrow of capitalism was actually not the answer to the equality of women. Male supremacy was a phenomenon outside the left-right political spectrum and must be fought separately. Therefore, they advocated a radical feminist movement totally separate from any other political movement. Their program involved female counter-institutions, such as communes and political parties, and attacked those aspects of women's oppression that

affect all classes. (Such as abortion laws, marriage, lack of child care facilities, job discrimination, women's role in the medical field.)

3. Movement Activists. They maintained that organizing around women's issues was reformist because it attempted to remedy conditions within bourgeois society. Most activists in the movement agreed that there should be a discussion of women's oppression, but that it should be discussed in terms of the super-exploitation of working women. This was especially true when talking about minority working women. Personal, psychological and sexual oppression were not of concern to this group. To them society should organize around women's oppression, but only as an aspect of the struggle against racism and imperialism. In other words, there should not be a separate, revolutionary women's organization.

4. Advocates of a Women's Liberation Movement. This group stressed an organized women's movement based on two assumptions: (1) that as women organize they have revolutionary potential because of their oppression, and (2) that a significant movement for women's equality will develop within any socialist movement

only through the conscious efforts of organized women. These women believed that radical women must agitate young working-class girls, rank and file women workers, and workers' wives against their direct oppression by male chauvinist institutions, and against their exploitation as workers.

In the late 1960's and early 1970's radical feminists called for an end to marriage and capitalism, and advocated homosexuality and test-tube conceptions (Bardwick, 1979). These views shocked society, and therefore, radicals were visible and had widespread coverage in the media. These views made some dismiss all feminists as crazy or irrelevant, but their conspicuousness made the existence of a women's movement impossible to ignore.

The demands of NOW (National Organization for Women) seemed tame in contrast to the demands of the radicals. They demanded such things as an end to sex discrimination in employment, tax deductions for child care centers, provision for equal educational opportunities, and housing and family allowances to women at or below the poverty level (Morgan, 1970). Bardwick

(1979) stated that these ideas were revolutionary at the time but compared to the goals of the radical feminists were rather tame and even rational.

Within the feminist ideology, there was a call for "sisterhood". This stood for bonds among women and for the active valuing of qualities which were considered as "feminine" in societies dominated by males. Sisterhood rejected the traditionalist emphasis on the primacy of the male as a source of female status and roles. Through sisterhood women could band together to help each other resist male domination and to actively oppose male objectives for society. Feminists shared with each other the exhilaration of growth and self-discovery (Steinem, 1972).

Mahoney (1975) studied the value systems of both men and women who were traditionalists or proliberationists. Using the Sex-role Standards Measure (SRSM-38 items) and Form E of the Value Survey, 138 respondents were studied. Some differences were recorded by the author among male and female respondents. Males who favored the women's liberation movement saw it as involving changes in values of a personal nature as

well as in role behaviors. Females who were proliberation viewed the women's movement as an innovative alteration of role behaviors, rather than a total rejection of societal goals. Other researchers have stated that proliberation females are more self-actualizing than traditional females (Chreniss, 1972; Fowler and Van DeReit, 1972; Joesting, 1971).

Sex Roles

One of the most obvious points of conflict between feminists and traditionalist was the gender-typed roles or sex-role stereotyping of jobs and careers. However, educated women hold these points as the least controversial. Westervelt (1973) stated that traditionalists regarded sex-role identity as a limited set of sex-typed roles: housewife, mother, and hostess. Occupations like teacher, nurse, social workers, secretary were seen as womanly occupations (Schlossberg and Goodman, 1972). The young educated woman was moving away from this position on sex-roles though not necessarily because she was an ardent feminist.

Data that were available suggested that career aspirations of college women seemed to be rising; more

than half of those surveyed aspired to some recognition in a chosen field, and a much larger majority than that expected that work outside the home would occupy a significant number of their adult years. The proportion anticipating or desiring large families was sharply declining (Wilson, 1971).

Research and some informal observations indicated that the average junior and senior high school girl, as well as the average college woman, expected to combine a career interest with marriage. However, she also expected marriage and motherhood to interfere in some way with career continuity and thought a mother's employment might be harmful to children (Rand and Miller, 1972). Mature, educated, married women were also examining their roles. Research data indicated that these women ranked the roles of wife and mother as most important in their lives (Westervelt, 1973). Professionals involved in counseling these mature women found that the loss of a husband through divorce, or even a husband's inability to provide full financial support for his family, was associated with loss of self-esteem for women (Westervelt, 1973).

Younger, educated women as well as mature women might disagree with their role in life. They both have discovered that a woman's family role today was confining. The husband's work decided where they lived and how often they moved (Kreps, 1971). Yet, marriage continued to be a highly significant factor in women's life planning. In this respect, many women parted with the feminist ideology.

There was a central component in the feminist ideology that dealt with sex-roles. This was the sisterhood ideology, yet from what the researchers indicated it was also the one for which there was the least social support. Most social functions were still planned for couples. Most important of all, male domination of the political and economic hierarchy makes male support necessary for the advancement of an ambitious woman. Sisterhood, like the brotherhood of man, works best on paper since competition for limited opportunities tends to pit members of oppressed groups against each other (Westervelt, 1973b).

Goldberg (1975) stated that sex-role stereotypes were the basis for much of the repression of women and

to a lesser extent, of men, in this society. Sex-role stereotypes were thought to have grown out of the necessary familial division of labor in earlier times. This was because of the greater physical strength of males which made them more suited for such strenuous tasks as hunting for food, fighting enemies, and for the role of provider-protector. Women remained behind due to child-bearing and nursing. Due to mechanization, physical strength was no longer a criterion for a rigid division of labor. Therefore, sex-role stereotypes were now sustained primarily by attitudes and beliefs which have been institutionalized and which permeate every aspect of life; i.e., laws, customs, childrearing practices, schools, churches, advertising, and mass media. Sex-role stereotyping describes how women and men "are" and prescribes how they should be.

It was this prescription of sex-roles that in recent years has been attacked by the Women's Movement. The movement has viewed sex-role stereotypes as barriers to the self-actualization of both sexes and has sensitized the public to the need to change traditional sex-role stereotypes. Although some females

and males might be reconsidering their traditional sex-role stereotypes, the literature suggested that alterations in the perception and evaluation of sex-roles has been minimal (Goldberg, 1975).

Block's (1975) research defined sex-roles as "the constellation of qualities used to characterize males and females in a particular culture" (p. 121). This has a direct impact on an individual's conception of sex-roles, which in turn will significantly influence his own behavior and self-evaluation. Kriger (1972) and Osipow (1973) agreed that a woman's occupation seemed to be a function of her achievement motivation which in turn is apparently related to her perception of her parents' treatment of her as a child. Kriger (1972) even went further to suggest that instead of developing an orientation toward or not toward people, which was the basis used in Roe's theory of career development in men, parental treatment affected girls in a way that would direct them toward homemaking or toward a career; therefore, this could be used as a criterion for career prediction. Parent over-control appeared to lead to a homemaker orientation, while parental casualness led toward a career orientation.

Sex-typed behaviors

Personality behaviors are learned very early in life before conscious perceptions of gender roles are formulated. Therefore, sex-role behaviors are deep-seated elements of the self-concept and, as noted in the previously mentioned literature, not easily unlearned. The feminist ideology under review launched a strong attack on what was called "traditionalist conceptions of sex-appropriate behavior styles" (Tanner, 1970). This was seen in the areas of behavior described as aggressive, competitive, and independent. Traditionalist ideology did not actually discourage aggression in women; instead it encouraged aggression through covert manipulations, especially of the male. Feminist literature was filled with things like "assert," "demand," and "insist." Feminists felt that if assertiveness was a virtue in men, it was a virtue also in women (Greer, 1971).

Behaviors that deal with competitiveness are also mentioned and examined by feminist theory. This behavior was usually regarded as aggressive behavior. Feminists seemed to scorn cut-throat competition for

recognition of individual achievement, although they by no means looked unfavorably at the psychological satisfactions of individual achievement for women. The traditionalists expected women who achieved would do so under the old rules and for the conventional rewards of acceptance in male-dominated institutions, a stable career, and public acknowledgement of success. On the other hand, feminists in the literature urged women to compete, not against each other, but together, for greater political and economic power through which they could attain not only equal opportunity for women but also new opportunities for both men and women. The attainment of change was seen through revolutionary changes in society.

Levy (1972) went a step further to suggest that schools, as societal institutions, had a major impact on the socialization process and tended to nurture the development of traditional sex-role stereotypes. Girls were reinforced both at home and in school for behavior that was submissive, dependent, and obedient. On the other hand, boys received mixed or inconsistent demands for aggressive, active, achieving, independent behavior

outside of school and conforming, passive, quiet behavior in school. The schools' expectations for boys ran counter to the culture's stereotyped masculine sex-role characteristics.

Because of the school's influence in a child's socialization, the New Jersey chapter of the National Organization of Women (NOW) studied 2,760 stories in 134 books published by 14 major publishing companies that were currently being used in three suburban type schools in New Jersey. The role models in the readers were believed to exert considerable influence on children. The NOW task force found that there were 25 role possibilities suggested for girls in the tales as compared with 125 for boys. Women were almost exclusively cast in service roles. The role of wife and mother predominated, and their activities related only to the domestic duties that appeared to bring them total satisfaction. There were only three working mothers found in the 2,760 stories surveyed. On the other hand, boys were portrayed as growing up to be fathers and job-holders. In the readers, mothers did not perceive their sons' success in terms of their marital status, but

their single daughters were consistently prodded to seek husbands. NOW concluded that the role models presented very limited possibilities for girls' future life and work. A home-making orientation was overwhelmingly encouraged (Osipow, 1975).

Career Choice

The changes that have been advocated by the feminist movement and those that have been implemented presently, seem to create a psychological impact on women. Today's woman has been socialized to live in a world that no longer exists, to give importance to roles that have become psychologically and socially confining, and to acquire behavior styles that do not fit the responsibilities she is likely to have to carry now. The feminists both verbally and in the literature have provided other women an opportunity to realize that many women share the same concerns and plight in life. Even if women can not accept feminist propositions, they do listen to them thoughtfully.

Kuhn (1970) felt that vocational theories should become more useful as theories of choice regardless of the individual's sex. This could only happen with a

shift in occupational, social and life patterns for men and women. Warnath (1975) supported this theory by stating that there was a need to examine whether "work" was or was not self-fulfilling, as vocational theories assume. Tittle and Denker (1977) felt that the theories of women's career choices were at a very early stage of development and needed more elaboration. The authors stated that both counselors and clients were not led to confront the options and choices women have in deciding on the timing of marriage, parenthood, and the integration of career and work.

There also was the question of sexual bias that might enter into the counseling process of career choice. Blatant antifeminist bias may be relatively rare in vocational psychology, but bias still is present as a result of misinterpretation of evidence and a lack of interest in the particular career problems of women (Tittle and Denker, 1977). Doherty (1973) pointed out that sexual bias existed in personality theory also. Theorists have often supported the view that a woman's role in life was primarily that of child-bearer and housewife, and that the homemaking role was biologically rather than societally determined.

Karman (1973) found variables that seemed to influence women who chose either feminine or masculine careers. Those women with a non-traditional career aspiration had mothers with higher levels of education, were more theoretically oriented, and held a higher academic G.P.A. Almquist (1974) found that women who chose masculine occupations did not do it because of social isolation, rejection, or lack of appropriate feminine socialization. Women choosing masculine and feminine occupations did not differ in social experiences or in relationships with their parents. Klemmack and Edwards (1973) concluded from their studies that marriage and family plans served a critical function in determining the type of occupation desired. The degree of femininity of occupational aspirations was found to be indirectly influenced by family background.

Stokes and Wrigley's (1975) research indicated that among high school female seniors, those women with a more contemporary view of feminine roles aspired to higher educational goals, expected to marry later in life, and desired fewer children than those women who were traditionalists. These conclusions agreed with

Tangri's (1972) earlier research findings that indicated that college senior women who chose a non-traditional occupation had some role support from faculty and female friends. She also indicated that these women demonstrated measurable behavioral characteristics that were more autonomous, individualistic, and self-motivated than women who chose traditional careers.

Veres and Moore (1975) like Karman (1973) found that innovative women possessed a higher grade point average, had made their career choice more recently, were less apt to plan to marry before finishing their education, and had chosen from a wider range of careers. Friedman (1975) went further in his research to conclude that sex-role ideology was related to career choice. Sex-role ideology was even more important than early socialization, present life situations, values, or social support.

Women's career development

Sorensen and Winters (Osipow, 1975) looked at those factors which influenced women's career development. The environment was filled with people who potentially

influenced a woman's values, habits, and attitudes. It was found that the most influential were the parents, since they had the most powerful impact upon all aspects of a woman's growth. Girls identified with the mother, and therefore a mother's educational ambitions for her child showed a strong positive relation to the student's educational plans. The mother functions as a role model for her daughter; that is, that a daughter may accept her mother's role behaviors or concepts. Sorensen and Winters (Osipow, 1975) found that there was a trend for girls as well as for boys to have a limited positive career interest development if they had identified with a model who had a stereotypically feminine personality characteristic.

Girls were also influenced by a mother's employment pattern. Career-oriented women were more apt to have working mothers than non-career-oriented women, regardless of the mother's education. Girls with working mothers had a more favorable definition of the working mother role and recognized the possibility of combining marriage and career. Also, some researchers (Osipow, 1975) felt that in order to aspire to a career, a young

woman needed role models who illustrated the possibility of combining a vocation and marriage.

Another aspect of parental influence on career development for both males and females, was cross-sex identifications. Sorensen and Winters (1975) found support for this thought. Girls choosing feminine occupations identified more with their mothers than with their fathers. They found that girls preferring masculine occupations tended to identify with their fathers.

Counselor's New Role

The career choices women have to make, especially undergraduates in college, have caused heightened anxieties. They are aware of the importance of a career but are very possibly uncertain how to achieve it. This not only causes anxiety but distracts them from more immediate goals, such as confidence in their own personal competency. Young, educated, college women know that the pursuit of a career involves struggles against sex discrimination, and lack of child care and housekeeping services may cause women serious anxiety if these are required for them to have the freedom to pur-

sue a career. Women may also suffer strained relationships with husbands who have been taught to believe that masculine gender identity is most powerfully affirmed through performance of the sex-role as a breadwinner. These have led to some changes in the educated woman's self-concept and in the sources of her self-esteem.

The counselor role is not only affected by the changes advocated by the feminist movement, but also by how counselors deal with female counselees. Research seems to indicate that some counselors give personal-social problems more attention than educational-vocational. Hill, Tanney, and Leonard (1977) found in their study that counselors responded to women who had expressed some personal-social problems as having more serious problems, being able to profit more from counseling, being more desirable to work with, and needing more sessions of counseling. Counselors gave more empathy to these clients than those with educational-vocational concerns. Melnick's (1975) earlier findings also supported this trend of higher counselor responsiveness for personal-emotional concerns rather than for vocational concerns.

Women expressing traditional and nontraditional college majors were also treated differently. Earlier studies dealing with women's expressed career choices indicated that counselors rated non-traditional choices of high school women as more deviant than traditional choices (Thomas and Steward, 1971). Later researchers indicated counselors perceived no differences between the dilemmas faced by women considering the traditional and the non-traditional college majors (Hill et al., 1977). One explanation could be that counselors are currently quite sensitized to appearing "sexist" and may have guarded against expressing any biased comments. Also, there have been changes in the employment opportunities for women in recent years. The present research examined counselors whose attitude toward the feminist aims is known, and how this might have an effect on their practice of suggesting career options to their counselees. This kind of study has not been done before.

Tittle and Denker (1970) argued that options and plans for an individual's future were related to career decisions for women but had not yet been formally inte-

grated into theories of vocational choice. Careers and work were one part of an individual's activities--female or male--over the individual's life span. Counselors should be given professional awareness of concepts that might subtly influence career selection. Astin and Myint (1971) in their studies of vocational choices of high school and college women made some strong recommendations. They concluded that guidance was needed for women planning to pursue careers requiring specialized training, and especially for girls with low educational aspirations in high school. This in part was due to their finding that about one-half of the total sample population (5,387 women) changed career plans between the senior year of high school and five years later. Career aspirations of high school males and females are examined in the present study. This was done to see the influence of sex, ethnicity and G.P.A. on career choice. A review of the literature indicated no such study had been done before.

Donahue and Costar (1978) wanted to see if counselors would suggest jobs that were lower paying required less education, and required more supervision

for female clients than for male clients. The study concluded (300 senior high school counselors) that the counselors tended to choose lower paying occupations that were more highly supervised for their female clients. Also, these suggested jobs suggested for females required less education. Another interesting variable in the counselor's background was the level of education the mother had. A counselor, whether male or female, whose mother had an average amount of formal education, tended to choose careers for female clients that paid less and required less education. Those whose mothers had more years than average or a better than average education offered better career options to female clients.

Both Donahue and Costar's (1978) study and Goldberg's (1972) earlier research provided counselors with some suggestions. Counselors should not espouse or reject feminist views in counseling, but they should understand themselves, as well as their attitudes, beliefs and values. This could provide them an opportunity to counsel effectively without subtly imposing their own values on the counselees. Both counselors

in training and practicing counselors must realize that unconscious acceptance of social norms that limit client growth and development is not compatible with counseling theory or practice.

Some counseling techniques have been helpful to women. Couselees who had suggested non-traditional careers reported career education, career orientation and job site visitation as the most influencial counseling techniques. Individual counseling and vocational testing were considered to be less useful techniques when considering a career choice. As mentioned before, Veres and Moore's (1975) earlier study provided the researchers with some recommendations for counselors. They recommended that due to work being such an important factor in life, counselors should offer greater assistance to women in planning for both a career and a family.

Summary

The issues of the feminist movement have served to bring attention to the social and educational problems women face. These problems are related to career choices that women may have to make. The dual roles

that are assigned to women when considering a career choice have been examined by the research literature.

Sex-roles influence career choices in women as well as in men. This has led researchers to make suggestions to high school counselors on offering more career options for both male and female counselees. The need for an examination of the career options being offered by high school counselors has been established. The purpose of the present study has been to examine the attitudes toward the aims of the feminist movement and counselors' suggested career options.

The following chapter describes the format and procedures followed to implement this research. Chapter 4 presents the findings derived from the research undertaken. Finally, chapter 5 deals with the relationship of this research to previous research and some recommendations are also made.

Chapter 3

The Procedures

In this chapter the format of the research undertaken is briefly described. The sample population which was used for this research is defined fully, and the development of an original instrument, Counselor's Estimate Sheet, is described. An evaluation of the Feminism II Scale--Form A by Dempewolff (1972) is presented. The methods of collecting data to ensure valid information are reviewed. The statistical analysis, and the way in which each hypothesis will be answered is explained. A summary of the procedures used in this study complete this chapter.

Research Design

This study was a survey which utilized ex post facto data in order to produce descriptive information. The process consisted in constructing an informational Counselor's Estimate Sheet which would identify the career aspirations of twelfth grade students and counselor's suggested career options. The support for the aims of the feminist movement was measured by using a scale constructed and used for that purpose by Dr. Judith Ann Dempewolff. Demographic information was

obtained by using the Background Information Questionnaire that De. Dempewolff used in her study. All three instruments were mailed to the members of the California School Counselors Association (CSCA, 839 members).

Population and Sample

Identification

The target population was the membership of the California Personnel and Guidance Association. There are approximately 3,500 CPGA members throughout California. This organization is state-wide and allededly committed to conducting and fostering programs of education. CPGA stated that one of its goals is to promote sound practices in the field of counseling in the interest of society. This is done by publishing scientific, educational and professional literature. Advancing high standards of professional conduct is an area of interest and concern to CPGA members. They also conduct professional meetings and conferences among personnel and guidance workers (CPGA, Note 1).

CPGA includes some nine divisions and sevel affiliated associations. The divisions are: (1) College Personnel (CCPA), (2) Educational and Supervision

(CACES), (3) Career Guidance (CCGA), (4) Humanistic Education and Development (CAHEAD), (5) School Counselors (CSCA), (6) Rehabilitation Counseling (CRCA), (7) Measurement & Evaluation (CAMEG), (8) Employment Counselor (CECA), and (9) Mental Health Counselors (CAMHC). The seven affiliated associations are: (1) CPGA Black Caucus (CPGABC), (2) CPGA Chicano Caucus (CPGACC), (3) CPGA Women's Caucus (CPGAWC), (4) California Paraprofessional Counselor's Association (CPCA), (5) California Community College Counselors Association (CCCA), (6) California Adult and Continuing Education Counselor Association (CACECA), and (7) CPGA Asian American Caucus (CPGAAAC). Membership in CPGA comes by joining the division or affiliated association in one's specialty and CPGA.

CPGA has about 839 school counselors who belong to the California School Counselors Association (CSCA). In this division the membership is drawn from counselors at the elementary, junior high/middle or secondary level. CPGA divided the state in two parts. The Northern California section draws its membership approximately from Carmel in the west and extends to

the Nevada border, which acts as the eastern boundary. The northern limit is the Oregon border. The Southern California membership is drawn from roughly an area that extends south of Carmel in the west, up to the Nevada border in the east, and down toward the Mexican border. Northern California membership is 304 members and Southern California membership is 535. The total membership of CSCA is 839.

After receiving the list of 839 names from CPGA, 767 members were chosen for direct mailing of the questionnaires. Those members who were not chosen were not selected because their titles indicated they were heads of curriculum or personnel services, and/or were elementary school employees. The CPGA membership gave either the home or office address of each member. In a telephone conversation with the CPGA main office in Fullerton, California, the secretary indicated that there were 154 elementary school counselors, with 40 non-active members. In the secondary school section, there were 685 members, with 53 non-active members (CPGA, Note 2). This investigator was only interested in counselors of twelfth grade students, but not being

able to identify them by just an address, all 767 names had to be used.

According to the Department of Education, as of October 5, 1981 there were 2,787 Secondary School Counselors in the State of California. Northern California had 843 and Southern California had 1,633. The state also counted 311 counselors in the Central Valley (State Department Education, 1981). The total membership in CPCA's division of California School Counselors Association, secondary school level, was 632. This represents only about 22.67% of the total California Secondary School Counselors.

Selection of Sample

All 767 names constituted the population for study. Of these, 540 failed to respond to the questionnaire. Seventy-five answered that either they were no longer in counseling or had retired. Sixty people had moved and left no forwarding address. Finally, 92 counselors answered the first Questionnaire (Counselors' Estimate Sheet). These 92 counselors also completed the second Questionnaire (Feminism II Scale and Background Information Sheet). Of the 540 counselors who

did not respond, 10% were contacted by telephone by the researchers. The 540 names were placed in a box, and someone other than the researcher randomly chose 54 names. The 54 counselors chosen were to be called and asked to participate in the study. However, only 25 of these 54 counselors' telephone numbers were listed in the phone book. Only eight of these completed all the Questionnaires. The others were not willing to participate. When the questionnaires were returned, the total sample consisted of 100 counselors. There were 52 men and 48 women secondary school counselors involved in the research.

A telephone communication directly to CPGA's office in Fullerton, California revealed that exact numbers of 12th grade counselors could not be provided. Therefore, the researcher utilized another device to determine an approximation of this number. Charles C. Metzger was consulted at the California Department of Education in the office of Education Data Management Systems. He revealed that only 497 out of the state's total 2,787 secondary school counselors had 11th and 12th grade counselees (State Department of Education,

Note 3). The researcher can state with confidence that the members of CSCA reflect a valid cross sectional sample of all California counselors. It is believed that this is due in part to early affiliation in CPGA by counselor credential candidates, and an active role in counselor legislation at the State level. In addition, it is the only state-wide organization available to school counselors, and thus the membership seems to be random enough to provide a representative sample (Dr. Preston Gleason, Note 4).

Therefore, because of these reasons, the researcher contends that the ratio of 11th and 12th grade counselors in CSCA may be closely proportional to the known ratio of 11th and 12th grade counselors in all of California. This ratio is 0.178 to 1; therefore, the following calculation was made in order to find out how many 11th and 12th grade counselors might be in CSCA:

Ratio of 11th-12th grade counselors in California	$\frac{497}{2787}$	$= \frac{X}{632}$	Ratio 11th-12th grade counselors in CSCA
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$$X = \frac{497 \times 632}{2787} = 112.703$$

$$X = 113 \text{ CSCA 11-12th grade counselors}$$

A reasonable conclusion was that of the known 632 active secondary school counselors in CSCA, only 113 had 11th and 12th grade counselees. Therefore, the 100 respondents in this study represent 89% of the 113 counselors that this researcher was initially interested in examining. However, all members of CSCA (767) had to be mailed the questionnaires because exact figures on 12th grade counselors were not available.

Instrumentation

Pilot Study - Counselor's Estimate

In order to obtain information from the Counselors on what career options were being offered to their counselees, a self-disclosure questionnaire was developed by the researcher. This instrument was called Counselor's Estimate (Appendix A) and contained five questions. The first four questions dealt with demographic information about the school in which the counselor worked. The fifth question asked the Counselor to give information about the first 10 twelfth grade counselees in his/her file. The information requested the sex, age, and ethnic background of counselees as well as their expressed long range career interest, and the counselor's suggested career option.

The pilot study was completed with the cooperation and help of three counselors at a local high school in Stockton, California. The counselors were given a cover letter, and the Counselor's Estimate Sheet with all five questions. After they had completed the counselor's Estimate Sheet, they were given the Feminism II Scale--Form A (Dempewolff, 1972) and the Family Background Sheet (Appendix B and C). From these last two questionnaires the information solicited was obtained.

However, the Counselor's Estimate Questionnaire needed revision. Both sides of the sheet were used in the revision, and the researcher saw that the age for most twelfth grade students was 17, and therefore was not considered necessary. The cumulative grade point average, ethnic background, and sex of the counselees were arranged in columns. The next column contained counselees' career interest, and then a new element was introduced. A row for each student was provided so that the counselor could rank on a scale of 1 to 3 (1) Too High, (2) Appropriate, (3) Too Low, his opinion of the appropriateness of the counselees career aspirations. The revised questionnaire provided the

researcher with an opportunity of measuring the counselor's ranking quantitatively and examining his own suggested career option. This new format was easily understood, and the information was obtained with no difficulty. These three questionnaires were mailed to all 767 members of the California Personnel and Guidance Association--California School Counselors Association.

Family Background Sheet

This questionnaire was taken from Dempewolff's own research in 1972. It consisted of 18 items dealing with the educational level of both parents, parents occupation, degree of job satisfaction and whether the mother worked while the counselor was a child. Other questions dealt with the approximate annual income of the family, the parents' religious preferences and degrees of religious interest. The counselor's own religious preference and interest were asked. Then came questions regarding the number of children in the family, and the counselor's order of birth in the family. The last two questions dealt with whether both parents did work around the house, and what kind of

jobs they did. There were approximately six categories to choose from in response to a given question. Additional questions were added to Dempewolff's original questionnaire. The sex of the older and younger sibling of the counselor was asked. Counselor's own ethnic background, age, marital status, and sex were solicited by items 20, 21, 23, and 24, respectively. Item 22 asked if the counselor was a member of any feminist organization, and the degree of involvement in that organization. The respondents had no difficulties answering any of the items.

Feminism II Scale--Form A

In order to measure the attitude toward women's aims, Dempewolff's Feminism II Scale--Form A (1972) was utilized. Dempewolff developed this scale (Forms A and B, 28 items on each) by revising the Kirkpatrick Belief-Pattern Scale for Measuring Attitudes toward Feminism (KBPS, 1936).

The KBPS (1936) is an 80-item scale which deals with the rights, competence and behavior of women. The items in the final scale were chosen by judges as being feminist or antifeminist. They were also subdivided

into constructed conceptual categories (Economic, Domestic, Political-Legal, Conduct, and Social Status). The scale was constructed so that the items were balanced, with each item having a "mate" which was similar in content, but scored in the opposite direction.

Kirkpatrick's scale was developed using a sample of 545 people, consisting of students, ministers, and active feminists. Reliability was reported as being .85. Dempewolff's aims were to revise the KBPS in order to bring it up to date, and to validate it as a feminism scale.

Dempewolff selected the KBPS items on the basis of contemporary appropriateness. Some clarification and modernization were required, and one item from the Mafery Inventory of Feminine Values, two from Cruzen's work (1970) and one from Kelley and Suelzle's study (1971) were added. Dempewolff conducted a pilot study in which the scale was given to various groups of people whose views regarding the women's movement were known: married and unmarried male and female graduate students, female physical therapists, secretaries and

their boy friends, and others. Those items that received many negative comments or which didn't discriminate among individuals were either revised or dropped from the scale. The final scale was then called Feminism I.

The Feminism I scale was used with the students in Dempewolff's Sample I group. These subjects were 225 students (106 males and 119 females) from Introductory Psychology classes at the University of Cincinnati. After the items were given to the students in Sample I, responses were factor analyzed and items were systematically deleted. Sample I formed the normative group for her research. Dempewolff obtained Pearson-product moment inter-correlations among all items, and then several principal component factor analyses were performed. Items were eliminated on the basis of low correlations, numerous negative correlations and low communalities, leaving a purified scale, Feminism II (Dempewolff, 1972).

The second phase of Dempewolff's study was to validate her new Feminism II Scale. Dempewolff administered the instrument to a group which she called

Sample II. This group consisted of 154 students who were members of various groups or organizations at the University of Cincinnati. The rationale was that group members would produce more extreme scores on the feminism measure than would be found in a random sample of college students. The extreme scores were expected because the students were members of organizations that either have beliefs similar or opposite to those held by the Feminist groups.

The subjects to be used were expected to either support or oppose feminism. Thirteen women participated from Angel Flight, a group of women chosen by the ROTC men for their appearance and charm to act as their escorts and help the men with their work. These women also serve the men tea and cookies on formal occasions, and plan dances and picnics in the spring. A similar group was the Bearkittens, women chosen partially for their appearance to accompany the athletic team with half-time dancing and cheerleading entertainment. Nineteen Bearkittens participated in Sample II. Fourteen women from a conservative, exclusive sorority also participated. This group was chosen

because the members stressed traditional sex-role differentiations, especially with regard to dating activities and other social affairs. Therefore, there were 46 people who comprised the female opposer group. Fourteen ROTC men and 26 members of a conservative fraternity constituted the male opposer group (total of 40). They were chosen because they accepted the behavior of the Angel Flight and sorority groups and engaged in activities with them.

Seven women from a women's seminar and 26 women who had enrolled in a women's studies class within the past year made up the female supporter group (total of 33). The rationale here was that women who participated in these groups would be more aware of the inequalities between men and women than the average student, and therefore would be more motivated to change these inequalities.

The 35 men comprising the male supporter group, included 21 men from the Supporters of McGovern on campus. Dempewolf found this selection process to be supported by research (Kelly and Suelzle, 1971) that indicated that political liberals supported feminism

more strongly than did conservatives. Also, McGovern was the only candidate who consistently made women's concerns a part of his campaign. Eleven participants were from the Student Community Involvement Program (SCIP) on the campus. These participants were chosen because the members of SCIP engaged in activities which are traditionally considered female, such as teaching small children and being companions to them. Dempewolff felt that males who were active members wouldn't insist on as rigid a distinction of sex-roles as the average college student. Three other male participants were chosen from Zero Population Growth (ZPG). This group was concerned with birth control and abortion reform, which deals with a woman's freedom to control her own body. These ideas are held by some groups in the women's movement, and considered part of the movement's aims.

With a two-way analysis of variance, Dempewolff tested her subjects to see if those who identified with the women's movement would be more likely to indicate a feminist position on the Feminism II Scale than would subjects opposed to the aims. Given their organiza-

tional membership, or group membership, the members were identified as being implicitly identified with or opposed to the women's movement. The mean of the organizational groups for supporters of the women's movement was 41.16 points above the mean score for opposers of the women's movement (as implied by organizational membership). This was close to two standard deviations (42.84), and accounted for 64.05% of the variance. Split-half reliability was obtained using the matched halves of the Feminism II Scale, yielding a reliability estimate of .976 for the total scale.

Therefore, Dempewolff developed and validated a feminism scale containing 56 items, or two short-form tests of 28 items each (Form A and B). Feminism II Scale (Forms A and B) used the known-groups method for validation. This indicated that people who espouse certain attitudes about women on the Feminism II Scale also behave, to a certain degree, in accordance with those beliefs. From her research and validation, Dempewolff stated that for a college population similar to the one in her study, the Feminism II Scale does differentiate people with regard to both written and behavioral evidence of attitudes toward women.

Data Collection

The Counselors Estimate Questionnaire and Feminism II Scale--Form A were administered to three local counselors in a pilot study. After corrections were made, for clarity and data gathering, the Counselors' Estimate Questionnaire, cover letters and return envelopes were sent to 767 secondary school counselors who were members of CPGA. The first mailing was done in December of 1981. Two mailings were used so that counselors would not have previous knowledge of the content of the Feminism II Scale, therefore preventing any possible influence on their answers on the Counselors' Estimate Questionnaire. The researcher was looking for any means by which to gather truthful information. The second mailing, consisting of the Feminism II Scale--Form A, and Background Information Sheet, was in January 1982. The 25 follow-up phone calls were completed in April of 1982. However, the total 100 responses from both mailings were not gathered for statistical analysis until the late summer of 1982. Except for the 25 phone calls to the non-respondents, all data collection and contact with the counselors was accomplished by mail.

The data from the Counselors' Estimate Sheet, Feminism II Scale--Form A, and Background Information were transferred via key punch operations to cards. This was necessary to make it possible to use a computer for Statistical analysis.

Null Hypotheses

Hypothesis One

There is no difference between men and women in their support of the aims of the women's movement.

Hypothesis Two

Counselors' support or opposition of the aims of the women's movement does not influence their tendency to offer more non-traditional male/female career options to their counselees.

Hypothesis Three

Those students who express a non-traditional career interest will not differ from those who express a traditional career interest with regard to certain personal characteristics.

Sub-Hypothesis 3a Sex: There is no difference between the proportion of women and men who express a non-traditional career interest.

Sub-Hypothesis 3b Ethnicity: There is no difference between the proportion of white (non minorities) and minorities who express a non-traditional career interest.

Sub-Hypothesis 3c Cumulative Grade Point Average: There is no difference between the cumulative grade point averages of students who express a non-traditional career interest and those who express a traditional career interest.

Statistical Analysis

The hypotheses were tested through the use of descriptive tables, and several analyses of variance. The level of significance was set at .05, consistent with earlier research.

Hypotheses one and two and sub-hypothesis three c are presented by an analysis of variance. The means on the Feminism II Scale--Form A between men and women counselors is presented in a table to answer hypothesis one. Sub-hypothesis three c examines the mean grade point average of students who expressed non-traditional career interest as opposed to those who expressed a traditional career interest. Hypothesis two is

explained by using the mean of non-traditional male/female career aspirations of supporters of the aims of the women's movement compared to the mean of those who opposed the aims. The findings are displayed in tables answering hypotheses one, three c and hypothesis two.

Sub-hypotheses three a and three b are all analyzed by a series of crosstabulations. These are presented in tables with column totals.

Summary

Through a survey approach using ex post facto data, descriptive and predictive data regarding counselors' support or opposition to the aims of the women's movement were identified. Their support or opposition was compared with their suggested career options to their counselees. These options were examined as to their traditional or non-traditional sex identification. The participants were chosen from CPGA school counselors' membership list. The participants were requested to answer the Counselors' Estimate Questionnaire. They also responded to two more Questionnaires, Feminism II Scale--Form A, and a Background Information Sheet.

The data collected were statistically analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences computer programs, which produced tables and performed several analyses of variance (Nie, 1975). The findings yielded answers to three hypotheses and three sub-hypotheses comprising the objectives of this study. Those findings are presented in the following chapter.

Reference Notes

1. California Personnel and Guidance Association and its Divisions and Affiliated Association, pamphlet published July, 1979.
2. Telephone conversation with CPGA's Headquarters secretary in Fullerton, California, 14 Oct. 1981.
3. Telephone conversation with Charles C. Metzger, Consultant at the Department of Education, Education Data Management Systems, Sacramento, California. 15 Sept. 1982.
4. Telephone conversation with Dr. Preston Gleason, professor at the University of San Francisco and a member of CPGA's Editorial Board, 16 Oct. 1982.

Chapter 4

The Results

In the present research, 767 members of the California School Counselors Association (CSCA), a division of California Personnel and Guidance Association (CPGA), were requested to complete the (1) Feminism II Scale, (2) Background Information Questionnaire, and the (3) Counselor's Estimate Sheet. This research was undertaken during 1981. Responses were all collected in the late summer of 1982. Of the 767 names originally drawn, 100 counselors responded.

The responses of these 100 counselors were tabulated and transferred via keypunch operations to cards. This facilitated the statistical analysis of the data through the use of the computer programs in the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (Nie, 1975). The tables, statistical tests and results presented in this chapter were based on those analyzed data. These results were used to test the following hypotheses:

Null-Hypothesis One

There is no difference between men and women in their support of the aims of the women's movement.

Null-Hypothesis Two

Counselors' support oppositions of the aims of the women's movement does not influence their tendency to offer more non-traditional male/female options to their counselees.

Null-Hypothesis Three

Those students who express a non-traditional career interest will not differ from those who express a traditional career interest with regard to certain personal characteristics.

Null-Sub-Hypothesis 3a. Sex: There is no difference between the proportion of women and men who express a non-traditional career interest.

Null-Sub-Hypothesis 3b. Ethnicity: There is no difference between the proportion of white (non-minorities) and minorities who express a non-traditional career interest.

Null-Sub-Hypothesis 3c. Cumulative Grade Point Average: There is no difference between the cumulative grade point averages of students who express a non-traditional career interest and those who express a traditional career interest.

Responses

One hundred counselors completed all three questionnaires. There were 52 men and 48 women. There were 49 White males and 42 White females, or a total of 91% White participants in this study. Only 9% of the participants were Non-White: 1 Black Female, 1 Japanese Male, 1 Chinese Female, 1 Mexican-American Female, 1 Hispanic Female, and 2 males and 2 females of other ethnic groups. The 767 names were selected since the exact number of secondary counselors with 12th grade counselees could not be obtained. One hundred counselors responded to the questionnaires, representing about 12.0% of the total questionnaires mailed. However, these 100 responses represented 89% of the total 11th and 12th grade counselors in CPGA's division of school counselors (CSCA) as previously explained in Chapter 3.

Figures that were obtained from the Department of Education (Calif., 1981) indicated there were a total of 2,787 secondary school counselors in California. There were 2,279 White Counselors, of whom 945 were female and 1,334 were male. Therefore, 33.91% of the

counselors are White females and 47.87% are White males. A total of 81.77% of all the secondary school counselors in California are White, somewhat similar to the respondents in this study. All minorities or Non-White secondary school counselors in California represent 17.26% of the total 2,787 counselors in the State. This figure accounts for the 8.22% female Non-White (Minority) and the 9.04% male Non-White (Minority) in secondary school counseling. The Non-White respondents in this study represented only 9% of the total respondents, with 6% of them being female and 3% being male. The researcher admits that this study has a low minority representation; however, minority representation in the secondary school counseling profession seems generally to be low, based on State Department of Education statistics (Calif. 1981). Therefore, this study includes approximately the same proportion of minorities as are in the total state population.

Only 97 of the 100 counselors gave their date of birth. The counselors who responded were between the ages of 29 to 64 and over, with an average age of 48. Five year increments were used for analytical purposes when comparing them with State Department of Education

statistics. According to the Department of Education data, there are a total of 473 counselors between the ages of 46 and 50. Between the ages of 51 and 55 there are 472 counselors. These figures represent 16.97% and 16.94% respectively, of the total 2,787 secondary school counselors. The final sample of this study had the greatest number of counselors in the age groupings of 44 to 48, 49 to 53, and 59 to 63 years old. These figures represent 15%, 17%, and 16% respectively of the total sample, somewhat suggestive of the state norm regarding age groupings.

Findings

In order to test the three hypotheses and the sub-hypotheses that comprised this study, 100 sets of responses were analyzed. For each counselor, three computer cards were prepared. These cards contained all the information requested in the questionnaires. Therefore, 300 cards were processed. The SPSS procedure "Crosstabs" was used to provide the descriptive data in percentage form and Chi-square tests of significance were given. The SPSS procedure "Breakdown" was used where mean scores and Analyses of Variance were needed.

Descriptive Results

First, the mean scores of male counselors on the Feminism II Scale and those of the female counselors were examined to see if they differed significantly. The scoring was done for each counselor in accordance with Dempewolff's procedures. On odd numbered items (1,3,5, etc.), AA received 4 points, A received 3, D received 2 and DD received 1 point. Even numbered items were scored in reverse numerical value. Dempewolff followed this scoring procedure to cancel out the effect of a person consistently answering the questions in the same manner regardless of content. The points were then totaled to obtain a final score. Through the use of the SPSS procedure a simple "Break-down" was performed giving a table showing the Score by sex of counselor.

Hypothesis One

Male counselors had a mean score of 89.3077 with a standard deviation of 10.9339 (N=52). Female counselors had a mean score of 97.5208 with a standard deviation of 11.7871 (N=48). Null-Hypothesis One was, "There is no difference between men and women in their support of the aims of the women's movement." To test

this Hypothesis a one-way analysis of variance was performed, and the results are reported in Table 1. The results indicated that the differences between the sample means of male and female counselors were significant. The F was 13.067 at the .0005 level of significance. Therefore, Null-Hypothesis One was rejected, and the alternative Hypothesis was retained. That is to say, that women more than men tend to support the aims of the women's movement.

In order to determine the categories of Supporters or Opposers of the aims of the women's movement, Dempewolf in her study took two standard deviations from the mean to form the two group categories. Dempewolf worked only with these two categories; this researcher created an additional category in order to place those people who were close to the mean but were not either strong supporters or opposers as indicated by the extreme scores. This procedure provided a closer approximation to a more normal distribution. By analyzing the data, it was found that 1/4 standard deviation from the mean for both groups would distinguish them as supporters, neutrals, and opposers. Once this

Table 1

Analysis of Variance of Male Counselor's and Female
Counselor's Means on the Feminism II Scale

Dependent Variable: Feminism II Scale Score for each group

Independent Variable: Sex of Counselor

<u>Source of Variation</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Sig</u>
Between groups	1683.694	1	1683.694	<u>13.067</u>	.0005
Within groups	<u>12627.056</u>	<u>98</u>	128.848		
Total	14310.750	99			

distinction was made, the categories were devised as shown on Table 2 for male and female counselors.

Scorcatm and Scorcatf

Scorcatm was a classification given to male counselors' scores on the Feminism II Scale. Women counselors were in the category of Scorcatf with their respective subgroupings of opposers, neutrals, and supporters. Male counselors were subgrouped the same way except within a different score range. Scorcatm and Scorcatf classification was done in order to statistically test Null-Hypotheses Two and Three. Table 2 shows male and female scores on the Feminism II Scale.

Null-Hypothesis Two

"Counselors' support or opposition of the aims of the women's movement does not influence their tendency to offer more non-traditional male/female options to their counselees," was the second hypothesis tested. It was analyzed by an Analysis of Variance utilizing the SPSS procedure "Breakdown". Before performing the analysis, it was necessary to find what percentage of all career options suggested by the counselors to their counselees were non-traditional male and non-traditional

Table 2
Score Ranges in each Category for Male and Female
Counselor's on the Feminism II Scale

SCORCATM			SCORCATF		
<u>Male Counselors (N=52)</u>			<u>Female Counselors (N=48)</u>		
Mean	89.3077		Mean	97.5201	
SD	10.9339		SD	11.7871	
SD/4	2.73		SD/4	2.94	
<u>Score</u>			<u>Score</u>		
0-86	Opposer	(N=21)	0-94	Opposer	(N=21)
87-92	Neutral	(N=12)	95-100	Neutral	(N=10)
93-highest	Supporter	(N=19)	101-highest	Supporter	(N=17)

female career options. The researcher found that many counselors did not offer any career options to their counselees, and that most went along with their counselees' suggestions. By using the SPSS procedure "Count," a percentage figure for the three career option classifications was obtained. As mentioned in Chapter 3, each career option had been coded as either Traditional male or female, Career of Both, or Non-traditional male or female. These were coded for computer analyses as PETNDM (percentage of Non-traditional Male) and PETNDF (Percentage of Non-traditional Female). Career options suggested to male counselees by the counselors were on the average 3.1% non-traditional male. For female counselees, counselors suggested on the average 20.3% non traditional female career options. Options most often suggested by counselors on the average were traditional male careers (36.7%), and traditional female careers (14.2%). Careers of Both had an average of 11.739%.

After computer analysis was completed there were two categories in which the counselors' suggested career options were placed. The Analysis of Variance was performed with the dependent variables being both

non-traditional male career options, and non-traditional female career options. These were compared with the categories on the Feminism II Scale of opposition, neutrality, and support for the aims of the women's movement.

Table 3 shows the analysis of variance for female counselors (N=48) and their suggestions of non-traditional male career options, and male counselors and their suggestions of non-traditional male career options respectively. For the female counselors, the mean for the entire population was 4.2%. The opposers to the women's aims averaged 4.7% non-traditional male career options. The supporters of the aims averaged 5.9% non-traditional male career options. The neutrals offered no career options in this category. Although the F of .823 is not significant, there seems to be a suggestion that in the female group, supporters of the aims on an average suggested to their counselees more non-traditional male careers than did the opposers. With such a high probability of this occurring by chance, Null-Hypothesis Two was retained.

The male counselors (N=52) had a mean for the

Table 3

Analysis of Variance of Female and Male Counselors' Average
Suggested Non-Traditional Male Career Options and Support or
Opposition to the Aims of the Women's Movement

Female

Dependent Variable: Percentage of Non-Traditional Male Careers

Independent Variable: Opposition or Support of the Aims of the
Women's Movement

<u>Source of Variance</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Sig.</u>
Between groups	230.439	2	115.200	<u>.823</u>	.4456
Within groups	6300.418	45	140.009		
Total	6530.857	47			

N=48 Opposers' M = 4.7% Neutrals' - None Supporters' M = 5.9%

Male

Dependent Variable: Percentage of Non-Traditional Male Careers

Independent Variable: Opposition or Support of the Aims of the
Women's Movement

<u>Source of Variance</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Sig.</u>
Between groups	36.899	2	18.449	<u>.674</u>	.5145
Within groups	1341.832	49	27.384		
Total	1378.731	51			

N=52 Opposers' M = 1.6% Neutrals' M = 3.6% Supporters' M = 1.6%

entire population of 2.1% for non-traditional male career options. The opposers to the aims had an average of 1.6% for non-traditional male career options. No difference between the groups was noted. The neutral group had an average of 3.6% suggested non-traditional male career options. However, the obtained F on the analysis of variance table was .674 at the .5145 level. Having such a high probability of this occurring by chance, Null Hypothesis Two was retained, showing no difference between the groups.

Female counselors averaged around 25.9% suggested non-traditional female career options for the entire population (N=48). The supporters to the aims of the women's movement suggested an average of 25.8% non-traditional Female career options. The neutrals offered an average of 24.4% non-traditional female career options. The opposers, however, suggested an average of 26.8% non-traditional female career options. The analysis of variance on Table 4 indicated no difference between the groups and an F of .030 was obtained significant at the .9706 level. Again Null Hypothesis Two was retained, showing no difference between the groups.

However, it was noted that female counselors seem to suggest more non-traditional female career options as a whole, regardless of their support or opposition to the aims of the women's movement. The male counselors demonstrated a different practice.

Table 4 shows the results of male counselors (N=52) who had an average of 15.2% suggested non-traditional Female career options. The opposers suggested an average of 16.7%, and the supporters 10.2% of non-traditional female career options. Note that the neutrals suggested well above the entire population average and had a mean of 20.3% non-traditional female career options. However, the F obtained on the analysis of variance Table 4 was .997, significant at the .3762 level. Null Hypothesis Two was retained, since there was no statistically significant difference between the supporters and opposers of the aims of the women's movement and their amount of suggested non-traditional male/female career options. Therefore, it can be stated that male counselors and female counselors, regardless of their opposition or support, did not demonstrate any statistically significant difference in their average suggested non-traditional career options to their counselees.

Table 4

Analysis of Variance of Female and Male Counselors' Average
Suggested Non-Traditional Male Career Options and Support or
Opposition to the Aims of the Women's Movement.

Female

Dependent Variable: Percentage of Non-Traditional Female Careers

Independent Variable: Opposition or Support of the Aims of the
Women's Movement

<u>Source of Variance</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Sig.</u>
Between groups	38.975	2	19.487	<u>.030</u>	.9706
Within groups	<u>2939.928</u>	<u>45</u>	653.310		
Total	2978.903	47			

Male

Dependent Variable: Percentage of Non-Traditional Female Careers

Independent Variable: Opposition or Support of the Aims of the
Women's Movement

<u>Source of Variance</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Sig.</u>
Between groups	824.764	2	412.382	<u>.997</u>	.3762
Within groups	<u>20257.446</u>	<u>49</u>			
Total	21082.210	51			

Hypothesis Three

There was a need to look at how students expressed their career interest. Part of this study was interested in examining if 12th grade high school students were expressing interests in non-traditional careers. Hypothesis three was stated in terms of personal characteristics of students, and therefore sub-hypotheses were developed and tested.

Null-Sub-Hypothesis 3a was, "There is no difference between the proportion of women and men who express a non-traditional career interest." This was tested by the Chi-square in order to examine the numbers of male and female students in all categories of career interests, and especially the non-traditional careers. Table 5 shows the results with a X^2 of 160.0220 with 2 degrees of freedom; this was significant at the .0005. More female students expressed a non-traditional career interest (N=151) than male students (N=14). Out of 1,000 students, 795 expressed a career interest, and most male students (N=332) indicated a traditional career for their sex. Female students (N=386) showed a greater division among career

Table 5
Students' Sex and Career Interest

Career Interest	Male	Female	Total
Traditional	332 (N) 81.2%	178 (N) 46.1%	510 (N) 64.2%
Both	63 (N) 15.4%	57 (N) 14.8%	120 (N) 15.1%
Non-Traditional	14 (N) 3.4%	151 (N) 29.0%	165 (N) 20.8%
Total	409 (N) 51.4%	386 (N) 48.6%	N=795 100.0%

($\chi^2 = 160.0220$ $df = 2$ $P = .0005$)

options, but as a group they still chose a traditional career option for their sex (N=178). Yet, when compared with the male students there was a significant difference. Null-Sub-Hypothesis 3a was rejected. Statistics confirmed and sustained alternative Sub-Hypothesis 3a's statement that females more than males chose a non-traditional career option.

Null-Sub-Hypothesis 3b was, "There is no difference between the proportion of White (non-minorities) and minorities who express a non-traditional career interest." The Chi-square was chosen to examine any sort of a statistical relationship existed between the two variables (ethnicity and career interest). The results were not statistically significant at the .05 level or better. The χ^2 was 3.37 with 2 degrees of freedom, significant at the .19 level. Table 6 gives the results with all numbers included, and Null-sub-hypothesis 3b was retained.

Of 785 students, 162 chose a non-traditional career. When ethnicity was examined, of the 162 students in the non-traditional category, 124 were white (non-minority) and 38 were minority students. Although

not statistically significant, a higher percentage of white students choose a non-traditional career option when compared to minority students. Table 6 shows that more students chose a traditional career interest as a response. Yet, the non-traditional category had a greater percentage among the whites (22.3%) than among the minority students. The minorities as a group had a lower percentage (16.5%) in the non-traditional career category. In the traditional career interest category a higher percentage of minorities were found (67.8%) than Whites (62.9%). The results further support the contention that minorities will express a traditional career interest more than a non-traditional interest.

Null-Sub-Hypothesis 3c was, 'There is no difference between the cumulative grade point averages of students who express a non-traditional career interest and those who express a traditional career interest.' This was analyzed by an Analysis of Variance. Table 7 demonstrated the results were significant at the .0005 level with an obtained F of 13.400. Out of 974 students who gave a career interest, 510 were of a

Table 6
Students' Ethnicity and Their Expressed Career Interest

Interest	White	Minority	Total
Traditional	349 (N) 62.9%	156 (N) 67.8%	505 (N) 64.3%
Both	82 (N) 14.8%	36 (N) 15.7%	118 (N) 15.0%
Non-Traditional	124 (N) 22.3%	38 (N) 16.5%	162 (N) 20.6%
Total	555 (N) 70.7%	230 (N) 29.3%	N=785 100.0%

$(\chi^2 = 3.37 \quad df = 2 \quad P = .19)$

traditional nature, 119 were Career or Both, that being in which men and women have about an equal representation; and finally, 165 students mentioned a non-traditional career interest. The mean of the G.P.A. was highest for the non-traditional group (2.95). The traditional group mean was 2.65, and the career of both groups was 2.86. This indicated a trend for high G.P.A. students to move away from traditional career interests given the low probability of occurrence by chance, Null-Sub-Hypothesis 3c was rejected. Alternative Sub-Hypothesis 3c was retained as being true for this group.

Summary

Female twelfth grade counselors in this study agreed more than male counselors with the aims of the women's movement. This was shown by the statistically significant difference between the means of the groups. However, within each group there was no statistical significance between supporters or opposers of the aims of the women's movement, and their tendency for suggesting non-traditional male/female career options to

Table 7

Analysis of Variance of Twelfth Grade Students' Grade
Point Average Mean and Their Expressed Career Interests

Dependent Variable: Students' G.P.A.

Independent Variable: Career Interest

<u>Source of Variance</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Sig.</u>
Between groups	12.994	2	6.498	<u>13.400</u>	.0005
Within groups	<u>383.542</u>	<u>791</u>	0.485		
Total	396.537	793			

N=794 Traditional \bar{M} = 2.65 Both \bar{M} = 2.86 Non-Traditional \bar{M} = 2.95

their counselees. Therefore, Null-Hypothesis two had to be accepted.

Sub-Hypothesis 3a was retained, since more female students expressed a non-traditional interest. This was statistically significant, showing a difference between student's sex and career interest. Sub-Hypothesis 3b was rejected since there was no statistical significance in the differences between students' ethnicity and traditional or non-traditional expressed career interest. Finally, Sub-Hypothesis 3c was retained since a significant statistical difference existed between students G.P.A.'s and their expressed career interest. The interpretation, and a discussion of the relationship of these findings to previous research, is done in Chapter 5. Finally, the conclusions and recommendations derived from these findings will be presented.

Chapter 5

Summary, Conclusions, Recommendations

The study began with a description of the women's movement and its fundamental aims. These aims were identified as influencing not only women's lives, but also men's role in society. The school counselor as the agent for providing vocational awareness to students was considered in the present study. Twelfth grade students usually express some career interest to their counselors. The careers were placed in categories; female non-traditional/traditional, male non-traditional/traditional, and career of both.

The purpose of this study was to investigate if male twelfth grade counselors differed with female twelfth grade counselors in their tendency to agree with the aims of the feminists movement. Once the counselors were identified as opposers, neutrals, or supporters, the counselors' suggested career options were examined. The suggested career options were classified as either traditional for the student's sex, career of both, with equal sex representation, and non-traditional for the students' sex. One objective was

to see if the counselors' attitude toward the feminist aims would influence their suggesting traditional or non-traditional career options. Finally, the relationship between the student's sex, ethnicity, and cumulative grade point average, and the tendency to mention a non-traditional career interest was examined. This study was designed to provide information as to the counselor's attitude toward the aims of the feminist movement, and the actual career guidance provided to the counselees.

The format of the study was a survey approach. The questionnaires consisted of Dempewolff's Feminism II Scale--Form A, which identified opposition or support with respect to the aims of the feminist movement. A Background Questionnaire was used to provide relevant demographic characteristics of the counselors. Finally, counselors Estimate Sheet was used to examine the students reported career interest and the counselors suggested career options. The questionnaires were mailed to the members of the California School Counselors Association (CSCA), a division of the California Personnel and Guidance Association (CPGA). Since

there was no way to identify the counselors who had only twelfth grade students, all 767 members were mailed the three questionnaires. One hundred counselors responded and through supported State Department of Education data, it was estimated that the 100 respondents in this study represented 89% of the 113 counselors in CSCA that were calculated as having 11th and 12th grade counselees.

The data were analyzed statistically through the use of the computer program, Statistical Package for the Social Science (Nie, 1975). The collected data answered the hypotheses that comprised the study. A discussion of the findings, conclusions, and recommendations derived from them follows.

Discussion

Female counselors supported the aims of the feminist movement more than male counselors. This study proved this position by the obtained mean difference between male and female counselors on the Dempewolff's Feminism II Scale; male counselors $X = 89.3077$ and female counselors $X = 97.5208$. No previous comparison was done as the research seems to indicate. Most

research undertaken examined the attitude toward feminists themselves but not the aims (Chreniss, 1972; Fowler and Van DeReit, 1972; Joesting, 1971). Dempe-wolff (1972) devised the instrument to measure the attitude toward the aims of the feminist movement but did not report either sex's tendency toward more support of the aims. This researcher felt it was important to examine the difference between female counselors' and male counselors' attitude toward the feminist aims. Counselors deal with students who are interested in career options that are supported by the feminist movement and are considered part of the feminist aims. Donahue and Costar's (1978) study and Goldberg's (1972) earlier research suggested counselors should examine their attitude toward feminism. This investigation supported this suggestion by indicating counselors differ in their degree of support with the Feminist aims. The difference could be explained, at least in part, in that men, although they may agree with the aims of the feminist movement, may not have a strong conviction because of a fear of what social change in women's roles might mean for them.

Career Options

This study was not able to demonstrate any significant relationship between support for the aims of the feminist movement and tendency for more non-traditional male/female career options suggested by counselors. However, this study added a new dimension to previous studies on traditional and non-traditional careers. Hill, Tanney, and Leonard (1977) suggested counselors were more concerned with women who expressed personal-social problems, rather than vocational concerns. Thomas and Steward (1971) found counselors rating non-traditional choices as more deviant. Hill, et al., (1977) suggested counselors perceived no differences between the problems of women considering the traditional and non-traditional college major or career. Previous research did not examine the counselors' support or opposition to the feminist aims, and how this might influence their perception of women and their career interest. This present research, in part, demonstrated that female counselors as a group, regardless of support or opposition to the aims, suggested more non-traditional female careers (25.9%) than did male coun-

selors. Male counselors as a group suggested 15.1% non-traditional female careers. These differences might be explained, at least in part, by the fact that male careers are better paid and are held by society with some degree of status. Female counselors might have suggested them to female counselees in order to improve women's role in society. Male counselors on the other hand, although suggesting to their female counselees non-traditional careers, might still have reservations because of their own personal biases. This researcher also noted that regardless of the counselor's sex, not every student was given a career option by counselors. Most of them agreed with or offered no suggestion to their counselees.

Students' Career Interest

The results of student's career choices were along non-traditional lines. When sex was considered, it showed a statistically significant difference. Previous research did not deal with these variables in this type of a relationship. Therefore, this study offered an opportunity to examine the variable sex and its influence on non-traditional career interests. Most

research focused on parental influence and career choice (Sorensen and Winters, 1975). Other research focused on the influence of marriage and future family plans in choosing the type of career (Klemmack and Edwards, 1972). Yet, this study showed that 39.1% of the female students expressed a non-traditional career interest as compared to only 3.4% of male students. This could be related to the fact that contemporary females are more influenced by feminist aims than their male counterparts.

A second variable related to career interest was ethnicity. No related research was found to have examined ethnicity as an influencing factor. This study found that white students (22.3%) express a non-traditional career interest, compared to minority students (16.5%). However, the results were not statistically significant, but there was a trend among minority students (67.8%) preferring a traditional career interest. One explanation might be that minorities want to succeed by traditional, more established means, rather than choosing new career routes which might not have the social status they want. Another explanation, in part,

is that most minority students come from traditional homes in which sex role functions are clearly defined.

The last variable examined was student's cumulative grade point average and its relationship to choosing a non-traditional career interest. Those students who were reported as having expressed a non-traditional career interest had a mean G.P.A. of 2.95 as compared to those students expressing a traditional career interest with a mean G.P.A. of 2.65. The present study seemed to support earlier findings that higher G.P.A.'s were a characteristic of women choosing a non-traditional career. However, this study included both male and female students. Academic achievement might have given the few male students in this study who expressed a non-traditional career interest (3.4%), the necessary stimulus to take the challenge of a non-traditional route. More awareness of the issues held by the women's movement in relationship to traditional/non-traditional roles for both sexes might also have influenced male students as well as female students.

Conclusions

1. More women counselors tended to support the

aims of the women's movement than male counselors. Women had a higher mean score on the Feminism II Scale than male counselors.

2. Support or opposition to the feminist aims did not influence the counselors' suggestions of non-traditional male/female career options to their counselees.

3. Most counselors reported not suggesting options to their counselees.

4. More female students expressed a non-traditional career interest than male students.

5. In this study ethnicity did not influence student's career choice.

6. Students with a higher G.P.A. have a tendency to express a non-traditional career interest.

Recommendations

Based on the findings of this research study certain recommendations might be made.

Research

1. Ethnic groups should be studied to examine their attitude towards the aims of the women's movement and how these attitudes might influence their career interest.

2. Students in the ninth grade should be studied to see what their career interests are.

3. Longitudinal studies examining the change in career interests from the ninth to twelfth grade should be done. Traditional and non-traditional career interest should be part of these studies.

4. Counselors' family background and how this might influence his support or opposition to the aims of the women's movement should be considered for a further study.

5. Further study on the marital status of counselors, and how this might influence their support or opposition with the aims of the women's movement should be undertaken.

6. Religious preference of counselors could be studied to see if this area might influence a counselor's attitudes towards women's aims.

7. Counselors' age might also provide a study on the influence it might have toward their attitude of the women's movement.

8. A comparison study of ninth and twelfth grade counselors' suggested career options might provide further research information.

9. An examination of vocational theory and the feminist position on career options should be undertaken to see if theory and practice in counseling are in harmony.

10. Counselor preparation and its implications toward career guidance in the light of the feminist aims would provide more needed insight into the present counseling process.

Practical

1. Counselors need to examine their theoretical beliefs concerning the women's movement.

2. If the theoretical beliefs of the women's movement are supported, counselors must then begin to reflect this support by offering more career options to their counselees.

3. Regardless of the counselors attitude toward the aims of the women's movement more career options for both sexes of counselees must be practiced.

4. Secondary school counselors should be providing career options to their counselees regardless of each student's sex.

5. Counselors should provide students with infor-

mation of job requirements, especially in areas of non-traditional careers.

6. More community and counselor cooperation should be shared in order to provide students with all possible career options available.

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Appendix A

Counselor's Estimate

1

Please answer the following questions as accurately as possible based upon the data available:

1. In what type of school do you counsel?

A. Urban____ B. Suburban____ C. Inter-City____ D. Rural____

2. What is your school's student population? (approximately)_____

3. What is your school's ethnic make-up (approximately %) of?

Anglos____% Mexican-Americans____% Blacks____% Orientals____% Others____%
(Specify)

4. From your files take only the first 10 twelfth grade counselees, and give the following information.
Be as specific as you possibly can:

(PLEASE COMPLETE BACK SIDE ALSO)

Appendix B

FEMINISM SCALE - FORM A

Directions: Fill in the circle under the letters which most closely indicate your feeling about each statement.

AA = Agree very much
A = Agree a little

D = Disagree a little
DD = Disagree very much

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. AA A D DD
o o o o | 1. Women should feel free to compete with men in every sphere of economic activity. |
| 2. AA A D DD
o o o o | 2. It is better to have a man as a boss or supervisor than a woman. |
| 3. AA A D DD
o o o o | 3. Management of property and income, acquired by either husband or wife, should rest with both husband and wife. |
| 4. AA A D DD
o o o o | 4. If a woman with an infant continues to work outside the home, she is neglecting her maternal duty. |
| 5. AA A D DD
o o o o | 5. A woman could be just as competent as a man in a high political office. |
| 6. AA A D DD
o o o o | 6. A woman should take her husband's last name at marriage. |
| 7. AA A D DD
o o o o | 7. Both husband and wife should be equally responsible for the care of young children. |
| 8. AA A D DD
o o o o | 8. Women should not compete in football or baseball, even against other women. |
| 9. AA A D DD
o o o o | 9. Sex is no indication of fitness or lack of fitness to enter any type of occupation. |
| 10. AA A D DD
o o o o | 10. The intellectual leadership of a community should be mostly in the hands of men. |
| 11. AA A D DD
o o o o | 11. Society should be prepared to provide day care centers so any woman who wants to hold a job can do so. |
| 12. AA A D DD
o o o o | 12. It is only fair for a school which offers professional training to limit the number of female students in favor of males. |
| 13. AA A D DD
o o o o | 13. Objections which one might have to the use of obscene language should bear no relation to the sex of the speaker. |
| 14. AA A D DD
o o o o | 14. Men should usually help a woman with her coat and open the door for her. |
| 15. AA A D DD
o o o o | 15. Men should have an equal chance for custody of children in a divorce. |

16. AA A D DD
o o o o

17. AA A D DD
o o o o

18. AA A D DD
o o o o

19. AA A D DD
o o o o

20. AA A D DD
o o o o

21. AA A D DD
o o o o

22. AA A D DD
o o o o

23. AA A D DD
o o o o

24. AA A D DD
o o o o

25. AA A D DD
o o o o

26. AA A D DD
o o o o

27. AA A D DD
o o o o

28. AA A D DD
o o o o

16. It should usually be the duty of the husband to support his wife and family.

17. Women workers have abilities equal to those of men workers for most jobs.

18. Women should be happier in the long run if they could adjust to their role as housewives.

19. Women can control their emotions enough to be successful in any occupation.

20. Police duty is a job that should usually be done by men.

21. A woman should have the same freedom and the same restrictions as a man.

22. The husband should usually initiate sexual relations with his wife.

23. It is natural if a woman's career is as important to her as husband and children.

24. For her own safety, parents should keep a daughter under closer supervision than a son.

25. Women should feel free to enter occupations requiring aggressiveness rather than remaining in jobs calling for compliance.

26. A woman should almost always let her date pay for whatever they do together.

27. Women should ask men out for dates if they feel like it.

28. Women should accept the intellectual limitations of their sex.

Appendix C

FAMILY BACKGROUND

Please check the most appropriate category for each question.

1. What level of education did your mother complete?

- ☐ Grade school
- ☐ High school
- ☐ Some college
- ☐ College graduate
- ☐ Some graduate school
- ☐ Master's degree
- ☐ MD, PhD, LLB, etc.

2. What level of education did your father complete?

- ☐ Grade school
- ☐ High school
- ☐ Some college
- ☐ College graduate
- ☐ Some graduate school
- ☐ Master's degree
- ☐ MD, PhD, LLB, etc.

3. What is (was) your mother's occupation?

- ☐ Scientific and/or professional-religious worker, teacher, advisor, forester, etc.
- ☐ Artist, technician, or related work-actress, writer, airline pilot, computer programmer, etc.
- ☐ Clerical or related work-office work, communications, ticket clerk, finance, sales, etc.
- ☐ Operative or related work-building, factory, bus or taxi driver, delivery, etc.
- ☐ Service worker-personal service like nurse's aide, domestic, waitress or general service like policewoman, stewardess, etc.
- ☐ Manager, official, proprietor-farmer, gardener, laborer, etc.
- ☐ Housewife

4. What is (was) your father's occupation?

- ☐ Scientific and/or professional-religious worker, teacher, advisor, forester, etc.
- ☐ Artist, technician, or related work-actor, writer, airline pilot, computer programmer, etc.
- ☐ Clerical, or related work-office work communications, ticket clerk, finance, sales, etc.
- ☐ Craftsman, foreman, operator of power tools, etc.
- ☐ Operative or related work-building, factory, taxi or bus driver, delivery, etc.
- ☐ Service worker-personal service like orderly, barber, cook, or general service like policeman, fireman, etc.
- ☐ Manager, official, proprietor-farmer, gardener, laborer, etc.

5. Did your mother work while you were a child?

- ☐ Worked full time throughout my childhood.
- ☐ Worked part time, or full time on and off, throughout my childhood.
- ☐ Did not work while her children were very young, then worked full time.
- ☐ Did not work while her children were very young, then worked part time.
- ☐ Did not work at all.
- ☐ If not applicable, explain why _____.

6. If your mother worked, how satisfied do you think she was with her work?

- ☐ Very satisfied
- ☐ Somewhat satisfied
- ☐ Somewhat dissatisfied
- ☐ Very dissatisfied; would have preferred to spend more time with her family
- ☐ Very dissatisfied; would have wanted greater or different career involvement
- ☐ If not applicable, explain why _____

7. How satisfied do you think your father was with his work?

- ☐ Very satisfied
- ☐ Somewhat satisfied
- ☐ Somewhat dissatisfied
- ☐ Very dissatisfied; would have preferred to spend more time with his family
- ☐ Very dissatisfied; would have wanted greater or different career involvement
- ☐ If not applicable, explain why _____

8. What was the approximate annual income of your family when you were in high school?

- ☐ less than \$4,999
- ☐ \$5000 to \$9,999
- ☐ \$10,000 to \$14,999
- ☐ \$15,000 to \$24,999
- ☐ over \$25,000

9. What was your mother's religious preference?

- ☐ Atheist, agnostic
- ☐ Unitarian
- ☐ Jewish
- ☐ Protestant
- ☐ Roman Catholic
- ☐ Other

10. How would you describe her religious interests?

- ☐ Strong
- ☐ Moderate
- ☐ Mild
- ☐ None

11. What was your father's religious preference?

- ☐ Atheist, agnostic
- ☐ Unitarian
- ☐ Jewish
- ☐ Protestant
- ☐ Roman Catholic
- ☐ Other

12. How would you describe his religious interests?

- ☐ Strong
☐ Moderate
☐ Mild
☐ None

13. What is your religious preference?

- ☐ Atheist, agnostic
☐ Unitarian
☐ Jewish
☐ Protestant
☐ Roman Catholic
☐ Other

14. How would you describe your religious interest?

- ☐ Strong
☐ Moderate
☐ Mild
☐ None

15. How many children were born into the family including yourself?

MALES

☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6 ☐ 7 ☐ 8+

FEMALES

☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6 ☐ 7 ☐ 8+

16. Which child were you in order of birth?

☐ 1st ☐ 2nd ☐ 3rd ☐ 4th ☐ 5th ☐ 6th ☐ 7th ☐ 8th

17. When you were young, what did your father do around the house?

- ☐ Only repairs and odd jobs
☐ Helped out occasionally in household tasks like cooking, cleaning, and laundry
☐ Shared equally with mother in household tasks
☐ Did most or all household tasks
☐ If not applicable, explain why _____

18. When you were young, what did your mother do around the house?

- ☐ Only household tasks
☐ Helped out occasionally with odd jobs or repairs such as mowing the lawn, fixing an appliance, or tinkering with the car
☐ Shared equally with father in odd jobs and repairs
☐ Did most of the odd jobs and repairs
☐ If not applicable, explain why _____

19. Circle the sex of your older and younger siblings

M ☐ F ☐ Older
 M ☐ F ☐ Younger

20. What is your ethnicity?

- ☐ Anglo
- ☐ Black
- ☐ Japanese
- ☐ Chinese
- ☐ Vietnamese
- ☐ Mexican-American
- ☐ Hispanic
- ☐ Other

21. In what year were you born.

22. Are you a member of any Feminist Organization?

- ☐ Strong active member
- ☐ Support with contributions
- ☐ Somewhat active
- ☐ No participation at all

23. Are you married?

- ☐ Married
- ☐ Divorced
- ☐ Separated
- ☐ Never married

24. Are you?

- ☐ Male
- ☐ Female

Appendix D

June 3, 1980

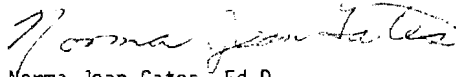
Dear CPGA member,

I am pleased to address you on behalf of a colleague Ms. Stella Alonzo. Stella is presently a doctoral student at the University of the Pacific in Stockton. She is a highly professional individual who is asking for assistance from each of you as professionals.

Her dissertation prospectus is exciting in scope and promises to provide our profession with meaningful information in working with students. Stella has assured me that CPGA will receive a copy of her research for member review.

Therefore, I encourage each of you to return the enclosed questionnaires as soon as possible so Ms. Alonzo may complete data gathering the summer of 1980.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads "Norma Jean Gates".

Norma Jean Gates, Ed.D.
Immediate Past President
California Professional Guidance Association

NJG:se
(encl)

Appendix E

Members of the California
Personnel & Guidance Association

Dear Member:

I would like to begin by thanking you for the time spent on my request. Your most valuable time is truly appreciated.

You will find a brief questionnaire regarding your own evaluation of your counseling procedures. This information will be compared with other variables in the second questionnaire that will be sent to you as soon as this questionnaire is received. Finally together with the second questionnaire you will find some questions that deal with your family background. These will be some independent variables that will be examined.

I must stress that confidentiality is of prime concern, and there will be no names or identification of respondent given in the results of the study. I am conducting this research regarding Counselors and their attitudes in order to write my doctoral dissertation.

My doctoral work has been completed at the School of Education, University of the Pacific, Stockton, California. Therefore, your most prompt response to my request will be greatly appreciated.

The results of the research will be reported to the California Personnel and Guidance Association-Secondary School Counselors division. They provided their active member list and therefore, I am indebted. In order to speed the response of the second mail questionnaire please provide me with your . . . address, if different from the present address.

Thank you for your kindness.

Respectfully yours,


Stella E. Alonzo