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# Life activity patterns of high success women.

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LIFE ACTIVITY PATTERNS OF HIGH SUCCESS WOMEN

A Dissertation Presented

By

MARJORIE L. BRITT

Submitted to the Graduate School of the  
University of Massachusetts in partial fulfillment  
of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

February 1984

School of Education

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LIFE ACTIVITY PATTERNS OF HIGH SUCCESS WOMEN

A Dissertation Presented

By

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Dedicated to  
my mother,

Merle Hallock Britt Brown

Nov. 7, 1909 - Nov. 13, 1983

She lived with gentleness,  
courage and power.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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strength, support and continuing belief;

To my son, Bud H. Britt, who showed patience, love and encouragement as he shared his mother with a doctoral program.



ABSTRACT

Life Activity Patterns of High Success Women

February, 1984

Marjorie L. Britt, Ed.D., University of Massachusetts

Directed by: Professor Robert L. Sinclair

Much of the previous research on women as socioeconomic achievers has focused on factors over which one has no direct control. Life activity patterns are factors over which persons have control. The question then arises as to whether it is possible to identify life activity factors that are associated with high success. Even as success profiles of women are studied, the disparity with men in self-earned income remains vivid. It thus also becomes important to study men of high-success recognition.

The purpose of this study was to: (1) describe the life-activity patterns of four highly functional groups of people, high economic success women and men, non-economic success women and men; (2) assess similarities and differences in life activity patterns of the four groups. The sample consisted of 100 subjects. The instrument was the eco-system assessment Life Activity Record. The test of similarities and differences is a Discriminate Function Analysis using a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) in its simplest form, one-factor design. Basic data are

organized into ten areas of activity (work, education, recreation, social, public organizations, health, commercial/business, family/home, private and transit) and are described based on hours of participation. Further, attitudinal ratings are assessed with relation to anticipated change, anticipated satisfaction, importance of activity areas, present satisfaction, problems, competence and resources available.

Differences among groups with relation to hours of participation in the ten life activity areas reached significance only in the areas of work, family/home and private, with the latter two areas not demonstrating a high significance level. A significant product of the research, however, is a very interesting description of the life-activity patterns of the four groups of highly functional people and of their attitudinal feelings about their lives. Study of the life activity patterns of high-success persons holds value in providing a possible model for persons aspiring to success. To understand the pattern of high-success is to be able to have the choice to model after it.

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C H A P T E R    I  
DISCUSSION OF THE STUDY

Statement of the Problem

The choice of high level achievement for women is increasingly recognized as an important social issue. There is growing momentum in the determination of women who have asked for reexamination of previous assumptions and roles. Aspirations and expectations for moving upward and taking more responsibility have paralleled movements of women into non-traditional lifestyles. Change in individual lives has become a social reality.

The significance of the social, political and cultural issue is reflected in events of the past two decades. The women's movement has heightened women's awareness of themselves, their rights and their work situations. Federal legislation, executive orders, and state action have brought about legal mechanisms for change. Educational institutions are becoming more and more suppliers of women for management, professional and technical positions. Demographic trends in age, family size, and lifestyles have produced impetus for social movement.

However, while the issue of women and achievement is important and commonly recognized, it is still uncommon for women to have the actualized choice of high level



socioeconomic success. In the total work force in 1971 only 1.1% of women working earned \$15,000 a year or more, as compared to 13.5% of men. In 1977, according to the U.S. Bureau of the Census, 4.6% of women earned \$15,000 a year or more, as compared to 38% of men. Considering inflation, it seems appropriate to look at two additional reported years. In 1977, only 1% of working women earned \$20,000 and over as compared to 17% of working men. A meager one-half of 1% of women earned \$25,000 a year or more as compared to 9% of working men. In 1981, 7% of working women earned \$20,000 and over as compared to 36% of working men. Only 2.6% of women earned \$25,000 a year or more as compared to 23.1% of working men. The meager one-half of 1% of women earned \$30,000 a year or more in 1981, as compared to 11% of working men. Data do suggest, however, that larger numbers of women are moving into management and business entrepreneurship. Perhaps all that can be said is that women have moved from representing a very small percentage of high economic achievers toward representing a small percentage, this while in 1981 representing 53% of the total population and 44% of the total work force.

Because the issue has only been recognized widely for less than two decades, there has not been a great amount of research on women as economic achievers. There have

been some studies on what kind of women are achievers, focusing on factors which have included personality traits and demographic variables. An additional problem develops when we realize that even the limited knowledge we have now may not remain valid. The past has supported the development of a traditional female role, a role not compatible with a traditional high-achieving role. In the present, moving social forces have brought support to a non-traditional female role. The question as to how this has affected present-time life experiences remains unclear. We do not have extensive knowledge of how women live with success in their every day lives. Present-time life activity patterns of high economic achievers, male or female, need to be researched more extensively. Most studies have focused on factors rooted in the past and one cannot change the past in one's life.

Life activity patterns are significant factors which are time-present and over which persons have high degrees of control or potential for control. The question then develops as to whether it is possible to identify life activity factors that are associated with high socio-economic success, and if so, can these clarified factors provide time-present life activity choices for success motivated men and women.

Ecosystems theory and research make it clear that individual behavior is interactional with the environment as a whole; and that if one part of the system changes, other parts of the system change also. General ecosystems research has included settings as diverse as communities, Peace Corps training programs, industrial settings, schools, churches and mental hospital wards. Ecosystem research with direct relevance to the interrelationship of adjustment or competence behavior and one's life activity patterns has included studies on high and low adjustment in schools; the interrelationship of person, setting and outcome in drug-abuse treatment programs; and the relationships between patterns of child-rearing and the utilization of available community resources, reflecting the impact of community participation patterns and competence in a child's midadolescent lifestyle. Results have shown activities involved in settings described by ecological measures were similar, although levels of adjustment or competence profiles, as indicated by patterns of participation, varied markedly from setting to setting and were distinctly different.

If environment and life activity patterns show vastly different profiles in different groups of people, it then may be suggested that life activity patterns may have a positive or negative relationship on factors such as

career achievement or socioeconomic success. Consideration, therefore, needs to be given to determining the importance of life activity patterns in relation to socioeconomic success, and to similarities or differences as may exist between men and women. It is necessary to understand the nature of the daily and present effect of one's ecosystem environment in order to better facilitate appropriate time-present choices for those persons who are motivated toward high socioeconomic success. The present study will center on investigating the life activity patterns of high economic achievers as compared to non-economic achievers, and will compare similarities and differences in life activity patterns between men and women.

#### Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study will be to describe the life-activity patterns of selected persons who have achieved high economic success, hereafter termed "high economic success" group (HES) and the life-activity patterns of selected persons who are non-economic achievers, hereafter termed "non-economic success" group (NES). Similarities and differences in patterns of participation in the community ecosystem (life-activity patterns) as perceived by HES and NES groups are to be

analyzed. Further, similarities and differences in the life-activity patterns of men and women are to be analyzed. Finally, if such differences exist, can these complex life-activity data be described in terms of a smaller number of underlying patterns or functions for the groups analyzed?

Specifically, two research questions give direction to this study:

1. What are the similarities and differences in the life-activity patterns, as measured by the ecosystem assessment Life Activity Record, between:

- a. HESW and HESM;
- b. HESW and NESW; and
- c. NESW and NESM?

2. If such differences exist, can the complex life-activity data be described in terms of a smaller number of underlying patterns or functions?

Further, what are important further research questions about Life Activity Patterns and high success for women that will lead to future research?

#### Definition of Significant Terms

For the purpose of this study, four terms will be defined. They are: ecosystem, life activities, high economic success and non-economic success.

Ecosystem: An ecosystem is an organizational unit or interactive system composed of populations and their related environments. In human ecosystems the organizational unit is usually of intermediate size, ranging from family systems to communities, and is composed of individuals or groups in interaction with their physical or their psychosocial environments (Wilkinson & O'Conner, 1977).

Within ecosystems, the person-ecosystem interaction may be of two types: (1) A person's behavior may be seen as ecounit specific, referring to an individual's interaction with one bounded ecosystem or behavior setting such as a specific business office. (2) A person's behavior may be seen as ecosystem interactive, referring to the relationship between person and ecosystem that has to do with properties of the person that are not specific to one ecounit. An example would be the interaction between a person's position in a business office and how that affects/is affected by the person's personal life, social life, health, etc. Behavior may vary in critical and practical ways from place to place and time to time.

Psychosocial ecosystems occur when the focus of study is on behavior in a psychosocial context, including elements that are social or cultural such as organizational role, expected behavior and norms. The relationship emerges only when the environment takes on meaning for its

inhabitants. Interaction between person and environment is of significant importance and full meaning can only be assumed when the individual is viewed as an interdependent part of a larger system. Ecosystem competence is the ability to behave according to expectations in ecounit niches under a variety of circumstances imposed by a variety of ecounits.

Life Activities: For the purposes of this study the term Life Activities will be used to refer to ten major areas of one's daily life. These areas are: work, education, recreation, social, public organization, health, commercial, family or home, private and transit.

1. Work: Includes any time spent which results in a salary or income.

2. Education: Includes activities such as attending classes, vocational training programs, adult education, attending events such as educational seminars, library time, or educational conferences. This would include activities as a full or part time student.

3. Recreation: Includes activities such as movies, concerts, or plays; restaurants or night clubs; fishing, hiking, or picnics; spectator at sports or games, participant in sports or games; dances, driving a car or riding a bike for recreation.

4. Social: Includes activities such as visiting friends, church services or activities, civic, business or social organizations, or social activities with whom other people are involved.

5. Public Organization: Includes activities relating to government offices or agencies for other than work purposes, such as court appearances, or any organization the public can join such as political organizations not primarily social in nature.

6. Health: Includes activities such as physician visits, dentist, mental health contacts, hospital, rehabilitation, or other special health activities.

7. Commercial: Includes activities such as grocery shopping, other shopping, bank, gas station, restaurants (routine meal, not social/recreational), other errands or purchased services outside one's home.

8. Family and Home: Includes all activities within the home other than social events (e.g., parties with friends); includes visits with relatives, routine tasks at home; time at home with family, watching television, or with visitors.

9. Private: Includes time (distinct from other activities including home) for private activities such as reading or thinking alone, very personal conversations, intimate or sexual activities, being alone for personal



thought or feelings, and the like.

10. Transit: Includes walking or riding in any vehicle, or means of transportation (other than for recreational purposes).

High Economic Success: For the purposes of this study high economic success will include persons identified as successful with high occupationally achieved economic earnings per year of not less than \$25,000.

U.S. Bureau of the Census statistics (1981) report that \$25,000 per year was earned by 14% of the work force. This includes 23.1% of working men and 2.6% of working women. This break-through point of \$25,000 has been chosen because it is in the "above-average area" of the normal curve for the total population and indicates the large disparity between earnings of men and women.

Additional breakdown data will be collected to indicate levels of income in intervals (i.e., \$25,000-\$29,999; \$30,000-\$34,999; ...) in order that male and female subjects can be matched for data analysis.

Non-Economic Success: For the purposes of this study non-economic success will be defined as persons identified as successful with occupationally achieved economic earnings per year of less than \$25,000, but more than \$8,300.

U.S. Bureau of the Census statistics (1981) report that 86% of the total work force earned less than \$25,000 per year. This includes 76.9% of working men and 97.4% of working women. This statistical cut-off point was chosen because it includes the "average areas" of the normal curve for the total population and indicates the extreme difficulty of achieving high economic success for women. This also includes the median earnings for all workers of \$10,609 and the mean earnings for all workers of \$13,099. Mean earnings for full-time male workers were \$16,920; mean earnings for full-time female workers were \$8,300. Eight thousand, three hundred dollars represents the minimum earning requirement for inclusion in the definition for non-economic success for purposes of this study, i.e. the mean earnings for full-time female workers. This study will not include persons of low economic status with earnings per year of less than \$8,300.

Additional breakdown data will be collected on non-economic achievers to indicate levels of income in intervals in order that male and female subjects can be matched for data analysis. Income intervals will correspond to those intervals used by the U.S. Bureau of the Census for reporting of income statistics (\$8,000-\$8,999; \$9,000-\$9,999; \$10,000-\$11,999; \$12,000-\$14,999; \$15,000-\$19,999; and \$20,000-\$24,999).

TABLE 1

## MONEY INCOME OF PERSONS IN THE WORK FORCE, 1981

	Total Work Force--1981	Worked -- 1981 Full-time Jobs Only
<u>Both Sexes:</u>		
Under \$25,000	86%	82%
Over \$25,000	<u>14%</u>	<u>18%</u>
	100%	100%
Median Earnings	\$10,609	\$13,426
Mean Earnings	\$13,099	\$15,887
<u>Males:</u>		
Under \$25,000	77%	73%
Over \$25,000	<u>23%</u>	<u>27%</u>
	100%	100%
Median Earnings	\$15,061	\$17,087
Mean Earnings	\$16,920	\$19,066
<u>Females:</u>		
Under \$25,000	97%	96%
Over \$25,000	<u>3%</u>	<u>4%</u>
	100%	100%
Median Earnings	\$7,222	\$10,230
Mean Earnings	\$8,300	\$10,766

### Significance of the Study

This study is significant in that it will provide a rationale for including the psychosocial ecosystem and life activity patterns as viable factors related to socio-economic success. It will test the hypothesis that high economic success is related in part to life activity patterns in the human ecosystem. This study will provide information which will aid in diagnosing the nature of life activities as they relate to the achievement of economic success in the lives of women and men. The study of life activity patterns as they relate to socio-economic success moves one step further in understanding the complexities of human behavior.

Information will also be provided by this study which can be used at all levels of education, including continuing education, and in personal growth and awareness efforts of women and men who are striving to move from positions of non-economic success toward positions of high economic success. Such information will also be valuable to groups, institutions, business and industry as they strive to develop within their organizations the fullest potential of those individuals who can be identified as candidates for high achieving positions.

Further, valuable insights will be provided into similarities and differences between women and men in relation to ecological conditions and life activity patterns which contribute to economic success. A serious drawback in many previous studies has been that women were not included; and when women have been studied, men have often not been included. In analyzing similarities and differences, this study will have potential for assessing stereotype and "image" factors which operate at unconscious levels, especially as these stereotypes and image factors relate to the life activity patterns in the lives of women and men.

For women who strive to be high socioeconomic achievers and who belong to a segment of the population which has been highly blocked from such success, this additional information may be useful in life-career planning and goal development strategy; and it is present-time life activity information over which some degree of control is still maintained. Choices can still be made, it is not past history around which no change is possible.

Finally, out of this research recommendations will be suggested in the area of curriculum for fuller development of human resources, and particularly for areas relating specifically to women and achievement of high socioeconomic success.

### Delimitation of the Study

The following eight delimitations should be kept in mind when reading this study.

First, the definition of high economic success has been delimited with specific purpose. Traditionally, the concept of occupational socioeconomic status typically has taken into account the social image and economic rewards of an occupation as well as personal talents, training and achievement (Zafirau, 1975). Dimensions generally used in such classifications are three: the duties, the prerequisites, and the rewards (Hatt, 1962). A specific delimitation of this study has been the choice to exclude from the stated definition of economic success variables over which subjects have no time-present control or potential for time-present control. This would include variables such as family background, previous academic training or test scores, past behavior, or occupational status as rated by scales such as the Duncan scale, a well-established measure that ranks occupations according to the number of years of education required and how much people in the occupations earn. Past life data will be collected, however, as supplementary information for possible further analysis. This study reflects a specific desire to disassociate occupational status from earnings in order to more clearly

focus on the economic breakthrough point which has been achievable for only 2.6% (1981) of working women, as well as to focus on time-present choice possibilities.

Second, it is recognized that within our society there is a great pluralism in values. There is not a homogeneity centering on the idea that high economic success is a value desired by all. Rather, many individuals have other values, such as introspective values, self-fulfillment, growth and other chosen commitments. That notwithstanding, the question of the disproportionate number of women achieving high economic success remains significant.

A third delimitation is that this study has chosen to focus on individual self-achieved occupational economic success. Income from sources such as inheritance, or marriage (family income) will not be included. Because income of spouse, two-person family income or income sources such as inheritance may affect life activity patterns, data will be collected on marital status and other income sources. This will be available for further study if such is indicated.

A fourth delimitation is indicated in that life activity patterns will be self-reported over a one week time period. Although there will be interviewer validation of the self-report, it is recognized that an

individual's sense of time over a one-week period may not be precise. The self-report form will be jointly reviewed with the researcher, however, to control for this delimitation as much as possible.

Fifth, the population of subjects to be used will be selected from those who respond positively to the researcher's request for permission to administer the instrument. Therefore, it will not represent a random sample of high economic achievers or of non-economic achievers.

A sixth delimitation is indicated in that some subjects involved in the study may be moving from being a non-economic achiever toward being a high economic achiever. It can be assumed that the closer a subject moves toward high economic achievement, the more closely the subjects' ecosystem and life activities pattern will resemble those of high economic achievers.

A seventh delimitation is indicated because of the different levels of access to high economic achievement for women and men. The breakthrough point chosen for this study is directly tied to the most recent statistics of the U.S. Bureau of the Census (1981) and is a point which includes only 2.6% of working women. A study of only male high economic achievers might have chosen a higher or different breakthrough point.



Finally, the number of variables affecting economic achievement in one's life as well as in the environmental ecosystem are too numerous to insure the inclusion of all possibilities within this study.

#### Outline of Substance of Chapters

This dissertation will contain five chapters. Chapter I is devoted to a discussion of the study. It states the nature of the problem to be studied, determines the purpose of the study, defines significant terms, states the significance and delimitations of the study, and outlines the substance of the remaining chapters. Chapter II will review selected literature related to the nature of the problem and the purpose of the study. Chapter III will be a presentation of the research procedure. It will contain an explanation of the sample, the design including a description of the data collecting procedure, the presentation of the instrument and the procedure for data analysis. Chapter IV will include the presentation and analysis of the data and the resulting findings. Chapter V will contain the summary and implications. It will advance suggestions as to choices possible for persons, especially women, with regard to life-activity patterns as they relate to success. It will make recommendations for further research on the inter-relationship of life-activity patterns and specific levels of success achievement.

C H A P T E R   I I  
R E V I E W   O F   T H E   L I T E R A T U R E

Success is a simple word encompassing complex meanings among the lives of those who feel they have achieved it, who seek it, or who feel it has been denied them. For some it is simply the fulfillment of one's desires, whatever that may be. For others it may be the attainment of wealth, position, eminence, or esteem. Success may often be elusive, even for those deemed "successful" in that one's own focus on success may be on the ahead horizon rather than on the past achievement, on the event as yet not attained. Parts of society define success with socioeconomic elements, which may or may not correlate with one's individual success definition. Other segments within society esteem totally different values, stating sometimes that success in the socioeconomic realms may make success in one's ultimate search for meaning even more difficult. Success, or lack of it, however, socioeconomic or otherwise, is a factor influencing the lives of great numbers of persons.

The review of the literature relevant to the topic of this study will consist of three major components: First, the social and cultural definitions of success will be examined, as developed through success literature over history and in contemporary writings. The second component

will examine the research literature on socioeconomic status, including some studies which have focused only on men, or the limited studies which have included both women and men. Included in this component of the review of the literature will also be an examination of the area of high socioeconomic achievement for men and women. Additionally, a rationale will be delineated for the economic focus of the present study.

The final component will examine the development of human ecosystems research and the state of the art in that field. Further, this component will review the research on the inter-relationship between complex life-activity environments and individual behavior.

#### Social/Cultural Definitions

In looking for cultural definitions and explanations of success, a major source of information is literature that has been a part of public consumption. The avenue followed for this endeavor involved looking at books on the topic of success for the last 20 years. The period surveyed was chosen because it related to the time frame addressed in the statement of the problem. Additional strength was added to this time-frame decision when it was found that included in this period were three cultural/historical reviews of the literature on success which went

back to the seventeenth century.

In seeking a definition of success, one finds that the task is not easy. Attempts at definition are available, but often lead in differing directions. Webster defines success in several ways, including, "a succeeding fully or in accordance with one's desire," but also as, "the attainment of wealth, position, esteem, favor, or eminence" (Gove, 1981). This range exemplifies that of the success literature, moving from success as connected to socio-economic status to success defined in broader terms such as wholeness, balance and self-fulfillment.

Early ideas of success were explored by Rex Burns (1976) in Success in America: The Yeoman Dream and the Industrial Revolution, discussing an earlier agrarian ideal. Burns states that the yeoman's (or fee-simple farmer) success model included three major elements: material well-being, freedom from economic or statutory subservience and respect from society for honest, fruitful industry. Burns contends that the idea of success as being equated with great wealth did not become sanctified until the mid-nineteenth century.

A major attempt to survey success concepts was made by Richard M. Huber (1972), a cultural historian who researched numerous histories, biographies, magazine and newspaper articles, as well as success guidebooks moving

from the seventeenth century up to the present. His work is well organized, a near encyclopedia, and has a 16 page index and 86 pages of bibliography. Huber examines the antecedents of the American idea of success, exploring how Americans have approached the questions of how to live and what to live for. The interrelationship of heritage, schooling and religion with the value placed on money and status are analyzed. Large amounts of information are brought together in the work although there are some delimitations in that most materials available for this type of cultural-historical analysis dealt with white middle class values.

In another study, Associate Professor of English and Humanities at the University of Chicago, John G. Cawelti (1965) states there are three versions of the success ideal in America: the middle class Protestant ethos type; the tradition based mainly on economic advancement and status; and the idea that success is based on personal fulfillment and social progress. Important in Cawelti's work is his analysis of the fluidity of institutions which he believes precludes any definition of success, believing that the elements of success derive about equally from the individual and the society.

Another analysis of the literature of the last 100 years was done by Richard Weiss (1968) in The American

Myth of Success: From Horatio Alger to Norman Vincent Peale. Weiss attempts to study how American ideas about success have changed and why. Literature of business success is included as well as inspirational, self-help and "positive thinking" literature of the various periods. It is Weiss's thesis that these ideological literatures promise a new kind of "success" available by tuning into one's individual mental powers.

Search for a new definition for success appears in the literature as contemporary settings are examined. Battalia and Torrant (1973) write in The Corporate Eunuch about the American corporate manager who has achieved status, money and power but who still feels unfulfilled. The authors, who are management consultants, talk about not only success on the job but also look at the balance between home and office.

New directions in the spectrum of contemporary literature are also exemplified by John Cantwell Kiley (1977) in Self Rescue which has an introduction by William F. Buckley, Jr. Central to Kiley's argument is his existential insistence that only the now is real time when change can be effected. Although potentially categorized as just another self-help book in the success literature, it is of a more profound nature philosophically and theologically. Kiley's approach is eclectic, drawing on Buddhism, Tibetan

mysticism and Hinduism as well as Christianity. That such approaches are being considered with some seriousness is attested by Buckley's introduction although he disagrees with Kiley's assertion that "everything is God." Kiley speaks of wholeness and self fulfillment as well as peace within.

A shift in the success literature is also illustrated by Milton Fisher (1981) in Intuition: How to Use It for Success and Happiness. Fisher discusses developing one's intuitive abilities and outlines a process for doing such. He relies heavily on the split-brain theory and the development of right brain, the center of non-verbal communication and the source of intuition. Fisher reflects a far different approach to success as he uses language relating to holistic functioning.

In more traditional areas, the patterns and determinants of occupational achievement in American society were examined by Peter M. Blau and Otis Dudley Duncan (1967) in The American Occupational Structure, a study based on information from United States Bureau of the Census figures of 1962. Patterns of occupational mobility are analyzed in terms of ethnic background, the occupational background of the family in which one grew up and various other factors. In describing inequality of opportunity, attention is given to the way region, race and

immigration affect occupational chances. Questions relating to importance of birth order, family size, broken families as well as the bearing of kinship and marriage patterns are scrutinized. Problems of stratification are of deep interest and the phenomena of "downward mobility" are discussed. The not uncommon, but unfortunate omission of women from this survey (and from many previous studies of social mobility) presents a major weakness.

Fitting into the over-all examination of success literature is the study published by Christopher Jencks (1979) and his associates entitled Who Gets Ahead? The Determinants of Economic Success in America. This study, examined in greater detail in the second section of this survey of the literature, was important to the flow of the data of the designated survey review period because it was based on 11 previous research surveys. The summary study investigates the relationship between personal characteristics of economic success among American males ages 25 to 64. The study focuses on four kinds of personal characteristics: family background, cognitive skills, personality traits and years of schooling in an aim of assessing the effects of these characteristics on subsequent success. In an earlier work, Inequality, Jencks (1972) argued that more schooling by itself would not greatly change the distribution of wealth among individuals. In the 1979 study the amount of



schooling is shown to be more important than thought in the original work.

During this period when numerous studies were omitting women, other research began to be pursued, most often by women themselves, on women. These studies rather than focusing on economic determinants or other factors tended to first survey the lives of successful women in an open exploratory manner, seemingly with a need to produce a descriptive base upon which to draw.

Jane Adams (1979) in a well-researched study analyzed 60 successful women selected to present a diversity of age, lifestyle and geographic base. Included were executive women, entrepreneurs and professional women of high ranking success. Adams also used a more extensive definition of success, viewing it in terms of integration of both professional and personal goals. Including the personal and emotional experience of success, Adams weaves the interviewee's own dialogue into her narrative of her findings. In data gathered both by questionnaire and personal interviews, Adams found that her subjects did not feel they had sacrificed personal satisfactions, such as family, social and community involvements in order to achieve their career goals. The study provides an excellent analysis of how managerial skills have been applied both professionally and personally.

Nancy Lee (1980), a consultant and professor of business planning and strategy at Simmons College integrates the work of scholars with information from more than 400 professional women. Lee addresses personal as well as professional demands on time and energy, as well as raising some hard issues relating to the demands of corporate life. Strategic career planning and systematic career development are outlined. Finally, she addresses the responsibilities of success: the new questions she feels one must ask and the new answers one must find.

Some of the success literature of the designated time period falls into a category designed more for the general reading public. These works become of interest when seeking a cultural definition of success and as a part of cultural history even though there was no attempt by the authors (nor ever any intent) to produce serious research designs. The categories of these books range on one hand from suggestions for manipulation and aggressive behavior to, on the other hand, faith in God and proper direction of one's inner resources.

Examples of the category of manipulation/aggression include Michael Korda (1977) in his book Success and Joyce Brothers (1979) in her book How to Get Whatever You Want Out of Life. Korda's approach is Machiavellian and has been described as providing for the Playboy generation

a set of rationalizations and road maps for the most vulgarized definition of success (Choice, 1978). Success, as defined by Korda, is basically in monetary terms and with the advocacy of unashamed aggressive behavior.

Brothers, a psychologist, seeks to describe the tools that will allow one to achieve success by making use of knowledge relating to basic psychological principles of human behavior and motivation. Her advice, including topics such as commitment, energy and pacing oneself, seems to become more open to question as she moves to recommending the development of manipulative skills, including flattery, reward, guilt and fear.

Moving to the other side of the continuum, the categories of God and one's highest self appear. Two books by Norman Vincent Peale from this time period are strong illustrations. In Enthusiasm Makes the Difference (Peale, 1978) the premise is that one can become a success through the proper direction of inner resources, including faith in God and determination. You Can If You Think You Can (Peale, 1974) maintains that creative change and achievement come from perceiving your potential, making plans, carrying them out and believing in yourself.

Another category of books from the popular culture is seen in the group which provides biographical material while also attempting to analyze factors producing success.

An example is Isadore Barmash (1969) in The Self-Made Man: Success and Stress--American Style. Barmash, a financial and business writer for The New York Times, included profiles on Carnegie and Rockefeller as well-known historical personalities, but also examined contemporary profiles of people today. Personality, background and ability are analyzed in this well-researched work, as well as success paths and methods. Auren Uris (1967) in The Executive Breakthrough: Twenty-one Roads to the Top develops biographees of 21 executives with an analysis of the factors producing success following each biography. Finally Uris attempts to define components of executive success common to all of the subjects of the study. A final example in this category is Ruth Halcomb (1979) in Women Making It: Patterns and Profiles of Success which is based on interviews and case studies and which analyzes career development patterns of 40 successful women from a variety of fields. This study is similar to Adams (1979) but is not as solidly researched and structured.

Cultural definitions of success thus vary widely, from agrarian ideal to economic advancement; from personal fulfillment or social progress to business success. The "definitions" have often included suggestions for means to achieve the success, ranging from goal structuring to

positive thinking or even manipulation. Talk of balance, wholeness, peace within and holistic functioning have been representative of the quest for more than just the economic reward. There are truly many choices. But, as we move to the economic reward, when the economic component becomes a part of the definition, the choices then, for some, may become narrower, or at least not quite so clear.

### Socioeconomic Status and Success

Socioeconomic success, or lack of it, is related to social stratification defined by Gerhard Lenski (1966) as the unequal distribution of scarce values in societies. Social stratification has been studied through this century by social scientists, including Max Weber (1947), an early and influential member of the group, who saw social stratification as based on three principal factors. First, he distinguished the economic order, which was based on a person's economic life chances or opportunities. The second factor was the social order, or the distribution of social honor, prestige, and deference in society. Finally, the third factor was the political order, or the distribution of power in society. Weber argued that the three factors varied somewhat independently and that their interplay had to be understood in order to comprehend social stratification fully. The reliance of

sociological theorists and researchers on the threefold conception of class that Weber made explicit is reflected in the title of one of the most influential collections of work on stratification over the past two decades: Class, Status and Power edited by Reinhard Bendix and Seymour Martin Lipset (1966).

In a large amount of the empirical research on stratification, researchers have employed a measure based on a combination of income, occupational prestige, and education called socioeconomic status (SES). Although SES includes aspects of power and prestige, it is weighted toward economic factors. One scale that has been widely used in studies that attempt to correlate job prestige with other factors is the Duncan scale. Created by Otis Dudley Duncan (1961), a sociologist then at the University of Chicago, the scale was initially developed from surveys that asked people to rate a standard list of occupations for desirability. Duncan then found two other measures that were easier to quantify that could be accurately used as substitutes for desirability--the number of years of education an occupation requires and how much people in it earn. The rankings of occupations from the Duncan Scale are based on combined averages for men of these two factors, obtained from the 1950 census. The rankings have not been updated since Duncan created them as most social scientists

consider the relationships shown on the scale still to be valid.

One of the most recent major studies on determinants of economic success in America, incorporating the use of the Duncan scale, is that of Christopher Jencks (1979) and 11 colleagues at the Harvard Center for Educational Policy Research. This study analyzed 11 surveys conducted over more than a decade. The results are published in Who Gets Ahead? The Determinants of Economic Success in America. Jencks and his associates assessed the impact of family background, cognitive skills, personality traits, years of schooling, and race on men's occupational status, earnings, and family income. Unfortunately, only two of the surveys used by Jencks collected comparable data on both men and women. Therefore, the decision was made to restrict this major work to analyses of only males. This limitation, as acknowledged by the researchers, is both serious and regrettable since sex is one of the most important single factors affecting earnings.

The exclusion of women from the Jencks study represents what is probably one tip of a myraid of underlying factors that are part of a network of culturally influenced beliefs and values which has produced different access routes to different definitions of success. Beyond the factors integrated into the definition of socioeconomic

status which may make certain success choices more easily attainable by some than others are other factors such as race and sex. Each of these categories is still in need of more study to drudge out hidden and not-so-hidden factors which produce society-imposed limitations to an individual choice for fulfillment of one's potential, no matter what the individual success choice may be. Definitions according value based on social and cultural "norms" and attitudes have made it more difficult for men and women who have made choices outside of those "undefined-but-clear" society-suggested expectations.

A great deal of research and literature have been produced relating to society-imposed limitations to individual choice, large segments of which have dealt with issues relative to race and sex and the value of this research is recognized. It is, however, not within the scope of the present study to focus on these issues, but rather to focus on life-activity patterns. Issues relating to sex or race, nevertheless, will be noted as they emerge. It is important to review literature, however, which attempts to look at the acknowledged exclusion of women from major studies (such as the Jencks study), because the groups within the present study include definitions based on sex as well as definitions based on income.

Investigators who have done some analyses on the



effects of sex on economic success include Donald J. Treiman and Kermit Terrell (1975a) whose excellent study of Sex and the Process of Status Attainment compared working women and men, as well as David L. Featherman and Robert M. Hauser (1976) who conducted research on sexual inequalities and socioeconomic achievement in the United States between the years of 1962 and 1973. Treiman and Terrell compared the process of educational, occupational and income attainment of working men and women, finding the process and level of educational and occupational status attainment nearly identical for men and women, but finding that income attainment for women is far less than for men, even when work experience and hours of work are taken into account. Featherman and Hauser drew data from the 1962 benchmark study of socioeconomic stratification, "Occupational Changes in a Generation," by Peter M. Balu and Otis Dudley Duncan (1967) and from their own replicate (Featherman & Hauser, 1975) of this work. Featherman and Hauser found, in analyzing the comparative data, that changes in mean education, occupational status and income between 1962 and 1973 represent improvements for both men and women. However, while occupational and educational achievements of women kept pace with and even exceeded the male means, there was a slight decline in the ratio of female to male earnings. Causal models of the

process of socioeconomic achievement show men and women to be allocated to levels of education and occupational status in similar manners. However, equality of economic opportunity for women has not followed educational and occupational status. Findings (Featherman & Hauser, 1976) indicate that sexual "discrimination" accounts for 85% of the earnings gap in 1962 and 84% of the earnings gap in 1973.

In review, socioeconomic status (SES) has largely been based on measurement of the combined factors of occupational status, education, and income. Research before the last decade tended to focus on men and their relative attainments. Recent, but more limited, research has compared socioeconomic status of women and men. Findings have indicated that women have kept pace with men in the areas of occupational status and education. However, income attainments for women are far less than for men. Because of the centrality of these three factor areas, it is worthwhile to elaborate on related research in the areas. The two factors where equality seems indicated, that of occupational status and education will be first discussed. The review will then move to focus on the area of inequality of income, a major distinction in definitions for the present study.

### Occupational Status and Education

The question of how women's occupational status can be measured was addressed by Treiman and Terrell (1975a). The standard approach in studies of the male population had been to make use of a socioeconomic status scale such as the Duncan Scale or to use a measure such as the Prestige Scale developed by Treiman (1975). Some doubts had been expressed regarding the use of occupational status scales developed from the male labor force by Parnes (1970) and his associates, as well as by Heyns and Gray (1973). Similar reservations were expressed by Bose (1973) when she studied sex and occupational prestige. In examining the available evidence, Treiman and Terrell (1974) found the prestige hierarchy to be essentially invariant with respect to sex and the socioeconomic hierarchy nearly so. They found the correlation between male and female earnings in specific occupations to be extremely high. The Duncan scores, which are based on education and income levels of males are quite well predicted by the education and income levels of females in the same occupations, as found by Parnes (1970). Treiman and Terrell (1975) therefore conclude that there is a single occupational status hierarchy which holds for both male and female workers, and that the occupational attainments of men and women legitimately can be compared by means of a single occupational status scale.

Other studies have supported this conclusion. Both Carter (1972) and Wang (1973) found that men and women face rather similar basic processes of attainment vis-a-vis schooling and occupational status following completion of formal education. McClendon (1976) also found educational and occupational status distributions of both men and women nearly identical in demographically equivalent groups.

The factor of education as it relates to socioeconomic status also seems to indicate equivalency between men and women. Data analysis by Featherman and Hauser (1976) indicate that for both sexes the total effect of education increased from 1962 to 1973--by 48% for men and by 68% for women, and the female-to-male ratio of these effects increased from 0.48 to 0.54, indicating both an absolute and relative improvement in women's returns to education over the decade. A greater proportion of education's effect on earnings is associated with the occupational attainments of women than of men. Additionally, Featherman and Hauser found the process of economic attainment was less tied to social backgrounds in 1973 than in 1962 and the earning returns to education were larger for both sexes. With increased returns to education, along with decreases in the role of social origins on occupational status and earnings, a pattern of change appears to be in

the direction of meritocracy.

### Income

Women's pay has increased significantly in recent years, but not as fast as men's. Consequently the difference between men's and women's pay was wider in 1974 than it was 20 years earlier, according to a report issued by the Women's Bureau of the Department of Labor titled "The Earns Gap Between Women and Men" (Women's Bureau, 1976). This is, however, only considering women and men in the labor force and does not take into account sex-role related activities of large numbers of women which keep them outside the work force.

Several major sources of difference in unequal stratification of the sexes seem to exist. The first source, as noted by Featherman and Hauser (1976) is the tendency for a majority of women to have roles outside the regular labor force. Child-rearing and homemaking as the dominant domains of women is one of the major bases of sexual inequality of economic opportunity. A second source, as noted by Treiman and Terrell (1974) is that among persons in productive economic roles, occupational distribution is different for females and males. Women have entered (a) occupations which have been undesirable to men--those whose size has remained stable or has declined--and (b) jobs in which women have a traditional dominance. Jobs to which

women are traditionally recruited are typically underpaid, relative both to prerequisites for formal education and skill. These factors notwithstanding, however, Suter and Miller (1973) found in studying income differences between men and career women that even within constant occupational groups women earn less for equivalent work and effort.

Thus, in "common awareness" and in research, it is well established that women earn less than men. An extensive discussion of this is set forth by Fuchs (1971) in Monthly Labor Review. Updates to this information are not encouraging. McNeil and Sater (1975), in discussing changes in female to male earnings ratio at the Population Association of America Meetings, noted that pay differentials according to sex may have become even more disadvantageous for women in the recent past. Suter and Miller (1973), in noting the same phenomena, report that this is only in part due to the fact that women work less per year and have less labor force experience than men of comparable age.

In assessing sex-roles as factors in income inequality, marriage as a factor has been examined. Marriage was found to be costly for working women in research by Treiman and Terrell (1975). Women who have never married earn substantially more than their married counterparts, even when

differences in extent of work experience and amount of time devoted to work are taken into account. Never married women are, on the average, better educated, hold higher status jobs, work more hours per year, and have more work experience than women who have married. The earnings difference may, however, be attributable in part to these factors and not to marriage. Married women earn about half as much as their husbands. Single women who have primary responsibility for self-support earn substantially more than married women, but still much less than men.

In moving back to the question of economic status, it becomes necessary to again ask what part of this difference represents overt discrimination in the labor market, and what part represents differences in preferences or constraints arising out of role relationships or personal choices. The decades of the sixties and the seventies have produced enormous change in people's lives. With legal mandates doors were opened, but, how wide were the doors opened and is discrimination simply more subtle? Or are there legitimate choices which are more freely and knowingly made by women and men affecting life activity patterns in ways which are different from those who made other choices? Are life activity patterns of high-economic success persons similar or different than life activity patterns of high-success persons without the economic

component? And, how are these patterns similar or different between women and men? How, if at all, are the systems of life activities related to the phenomena of economic success? More research needs to be done in this area.

### Human Ecosystems/Life Activity Patterns

The individual and the individual's life activity settings, including home, workplace and community, are parts of a complex and interdependent system. More and more theorists, researchers and social scientists have attempted to understand, study, and ultimately predict what the results of these interrelationships might be. One of the major thrusts in describing complex natural environments has come from environmental psychology (Wohlwill, 1970). Ecological psychologists in particular have extensively explored situational variables which impact individual behavior.

An influential early researcher of the ecological systems approach was Roger G. Barker who developed the central concept of the behavior setting (Barker, 1968). Observational techniques which classify a complex environment such as a community may be organized around the identification of specific settings. A variety of descriptive measures may then be applied to the setting.



Such techniques have demonstrated remarkable stability over relatively long periods of time. Because the instrument of choice for this study, the "Life Activity Record," was developed out of ecosystem theory and particularly out of Barker's concept of behavior setting, this portion of the review of the literature will briefly survey the path of that research developmental process.

Several of the original studies which had interested Barker in developing his concept had come from the field of industry. In an attempt to relate size of organization to satisfaction, Katz (1949) had found that in various industrial organizations, individual workers in small groups assumed more importance and higher group cohesion arose in smaller organizations. Further, the Acton Society Trust (1953) studies had set out to investigate morale as related to size. It was found that interest in affairs of the organization and knowledge of names of administrators were negatively correlated with size, and that acceptance of rumors was positively correlated with size. In another study, Bales and Borgatta (1955) found that as group size increased, the numbers of persons who participated at low rates increased.

A primary interest of Barker's, however, was communities and schools. Roger Barker and H. F. Wright (1955) had published research entitled the "Midwest and

Its Children" where they presented in detail operations for identifying behavior settings. This was to be a forerunner of Barker's major study on schools entitled, Big School, Small School which he wrote with Paul Gump (Barker & Gump, 1964).

During this period more industrial research relating to ecological concepts was also being done. While studying 93 industrial organizations, Tallachi (1960) noted increasing size leads to increased division of labor, job specialization, and status differentiation. Indik (1961) found that size of 96 business organizations correlated positively with difficulty of maintaining communication among members and negatively with participation.

Barker's work, meanwhile, was focusing more sharply on the effect of size on behavior settings. In the Nebraska Symposium on Motivation, Barker (1960) first proposed his theory of undermanning, describing the consequences of people being placed in small settings. Roger Barker and Louise Barker (1961a) had compared data of two towns, using behavior units for the comparative study of culture. As a result of comparisons between a small town in England and a similar but smaller town in Kansas, he noticed profound differences in behavior that could be related to the size of behavior settings (Barker & Barker, 1961b). Barker began to build the case for saying that

the social structure of the environment had far-reaching consequences for human behavior.

Research moved ahead in studying the interrelationship between complex life activity environments and individual behavior. Barker's associate in the study of mid-western children, H. F. Wright (1961) used behavior settings in an extensive series of studies of the living environments, behavior, and experience of children in large and small towns. He found that children in large towns entered a wider range of settings, but that children in small towns (a) had more positions of importance in settings, (b) re-entered settings more often, (c) spent more time in community settings, (d) found more of the same persons using the settings they entered, and (e) were more familiar with objects and people in the settings of their towns.

A primary thrust of ecosystem theory and behavior settings occurred in the school studies done by Barker and Gump. It was in Big School, Small School (Barker & Gump, 1964) that undermanning theory received its most comprehensive presentation. An extensive review of the literature previous to this benchmark study was reported by Willems (1964) in which he noted consistent differences in behavior in terms of (a) frequency, depth, and range of participation (21 studies); (b) communication and social

interaction (10 studies); and (c) the reported experiences of persons (8 studies). Barker (1964) states that knowledge of the ecological context is essential because development is not a momentary phenomenon and the course of the life space can only be known within the ecological environment in which it is embedded.

One of the important concepts Barker and his colleagues dealt with is what they call the "school size illusion" (Barker & Barker, 1964, pp. 62-63). On the surface, everyone is impressed with the seeming advantages of a larger school. It has many facilities and impressive equipment. But when one compares student performance, the small school requires more of its students in a wider range of behavior settings. One of the clearest messages of the study is "that the negative relationship between institutional size and individual participation is deeply based and difficult, if not impossible to avoid" (Barker & Gump, 1964, p. 201). The meaning is clear--as organizations grow larger, individual participation deteriorates.

Bechtel (1974) re-evaluated Barker's original premises in terms of research between 1964 and 1974. In general, the contribution of external conditions suggested by Barker had been supported by succeeding investigations. Studies reported by Bechtel included community settings, i.e., a study of children's awareness of the towns in which they

were raised (Wright, 1969), as well as church settings (Wicker, 1969). Also reported is work assessing the relationship of financial cost and size of settings with relation to city size (Lamm, 1973). Additionally, studies are discussed relating again to industry (O'Toole, Hansot, Herman, Herrick, Liebow, Lusignan, Richman, Sheppard, Sephansky, & Wright, 1973; Walton, 1972).

Recent applications have extended ecological research to psychiatric facilities (Srivastava & Good, 1968; Gump & James, 1970); to hospitals (Le Compte, 1972); to large scale public housing projects (Bechtel, 1969); and studies of the quality of community life (Barker & Shoggen, 1973). Studies have also demonstrated the potential interaction of individual characteristics with environmental conditions with respect to competence, satisfaction and setting size (Wicker, McGrath, & Armstrong, 1972).

As ecosystem theory and research progressed and became more defined the ecosystem model was proposed as a general frame of reference in which both interactionist designs and ecological measures could be included. Achievement behavior, for example, may be viewed at the individual level in terms of individual achievement; at the interactive level in terms of recurrent patterns of interaction with others in the individual's life space; or at the community level in terms of awareness,

availability and use of community resources or demands as these impact an individual with particular competencies, needs, and choices.

The initial series of pilot studies in the developmental stages of the Ecosystem Assessment Record, the predecessor of the Life Activity Record, were conducted in a state hospital setting (O'Connor, 1977). Research was conducted in order to develop a reliable taxonomy reflecting community participation following treatment. The critical measure of the size of setting variable became a measure of the level of penetration in a setting in both hospital and community settings.

The Ecosystem Assessment Record then moved back to school setting. Hume (1976) compared two groups of male elementary students selected as unusually well adjusted or poorly adjusted. Categories of community participation, derived by post hoc inspection of the activities involved in settings described by ecological measures, were similar to those noted in the state hospital population although patterns of participation were distinctly different.

Development of ecosystem assessment techniques continued with movement toward identification of life activity areas. Following the initial studies, Klassen (1977) obtained a sample of 484 subjects participating in treatment for substance abuse. Interviews were conducted with each

subject using behavior setting measures. The settings were then subjected to cluster analysis to develop a reliable taxonomy of community participation areas. Ten independent clusters were derived. After several revisions of the rating procedure, the reliability of category measures and associated measures was 95% and 97% respectively. In analyzing the data for the study some treatment effects were noted. However, the sociodemographic characteristics of participants and the contribution of community participation accounted for the majority of explained variance. These findings were similar to those of Hume, who related patterns of community participation to level of adjustment.

Work continued to explore the interrelationship of life activity environments and individual behavior/achievement. A related study focused on a quite different group of subjects, that of black single parent families (Wilkinson & O'Connor, 1977a). Data were gathered on 101 families with a male child in which the mother had been sole parent since her son's infancy. The purpose of the study was to investigate the relationship between patterns of child rearing and utilization of available community resources, reflecting the impact of community participation patterns and competence in the son's mid-adolescent lifestyle. Results indicated two contrasting lifestyle patterns:

A high participative pattern with involvement in occupational, educational, and social activities and an aparticipative pattern associated with relative social isolation and in some cases dysfunctional behavior. Ecosystem assessment recording (EAR), the interview adaptation of Barker's ecological observation techniques, was utilized with reliability between 94% and 97% for retrospective and contemporary data.

Taken as a whole, the preceding series of studies suggest key areas of measurement: sociodemographic individual variables, competence, level of aspiration, community participation patterns, and perceived and actual community resources. The population varied widely and the studies included both "normals" (in the case of the family studies) and clinic populations (in the case of the hospital and drug treatment studies). At this point some general statements can be made regarding ecosystem research: (1) There is consistency of behavior across individuals occupying the same setting; (2) Categories of community participation described by ecological measures for different populations are very similar, although patterns of participation will be distinctly different; (3) Size of Setting or Levels of Penetration have relationship to participation patterns as well as to levels of adjustment. It might be assumed that ecosystem



life-activity patterns may be related to the occurrence of levels of socioeconomic achievement.

In this review of literature, three major topics associated with success in general and income in particular have been discussed. First, social/cultural definitions were advanced to provide an overview of ways success has been defined over periods of time in history. Second, socioeconomic status and success was presented with particular reference to occupational status, education, and income. Finally, human ecosystems and life activity patterns research were reviewed in order to trace the development of this research and place the present study in a proper perspective.

C H A P T E R     I I I  
PRESENTATION OF RESEARCH PROCEDURE

The design of this study consists of four sections. These sections include the sample, the data collecting procedure, the instrumentation, and the analysis of the data.

The Sample

The sample consisted of 100 subjects between the ages of 25-60 who were residents of the metropolitan Kansas City, Missouri area. All subjects pursued occupations on a full-time basis and had earnings income at or above the mean earning for women in the full-time work force (\$8,300) as reported in 1981 statistics from the U.S. Bureau of the Census. Earnings from investments or non-occupational sources were not considered. All subjects were voluntary and fully-informed participants.

Within the sample, four groups of subjects were selected:

1. Group 1, hereafter referred to as high economic success men (HESM) had occupational income of \$25,000 per year or greater.

2. Group 2, hereafter referred to as high economic success women (HESW) had occupational income of \$25,000 per year or greater.

3. Group 3, hereafter referred to as non-economic success men (NESM) had occupational income of not less than \$8,300 but no more than \$24,999.

4. Group 4, hereafter referred to as non-economic success women (NESW) had occupational income of not less than \$8,300 but no more than \$24,999.

The subjects were contacted through major employers and business and professional organizations within the area of greater Kansas City. Referred to as the "Heart of America" because of its geographical centrality, Kansas City ranks 26th in effective buying income and 29th in population among major metropolitan areas in the United States (Chamber of Commerce, 1978). There are 10 degree granting colleges and universities; major employers include state and local governments, regional federal offices, and companies such as General Motors Corporation, Trans World Airlines international headquarters and Hallmark Cards among 42 employers of 1,000 or more persons. Kansas City was chosen as a fairly representative city, not extremely large nor extremely small, a city which is neither deteriorating or rapidly expanding, and a city with a reasonably stable economy where effects of extreme economic change in the urban environment are less of a consideration.

The sample was obtained in the following ways:

1. Major employees of 1,000 or more persons in the

greater Kansas City area were listed. Employers were then numbered in alphabetical order and contacted according to a table of random numbers. No more than three subjects within a cell of 20 were selected from any single employer regardless of size.

2. Business and professional organizations or equivalent groups were contacted in order to represent self-employed persons and persons representative of small businesses. No more than three subjects per cell of 20 were selected from a single occupational or professional specialty. Where lists of potential subjects were obtained through an organization a random selection procedure was used.

3. Major employers of less than 1,000 persons (categories of 500 or more employees and 250-500 employees) were contacted if more subjects were needed for the specified completion of cells. Again, employers were listed, numbered in alphabetical order and contacted according to a table of random numbers. No more than three subjects within a cell of 20 were selected from any single employer.

4. Information regarding availability of subjects was obtained through contacts within educational institutions, business, industry and government, as well as contacts with professional associations. If a particular cell was not filled through use of the selection processes outlined

above, then subjects who were matched to subjects in the other cells were selected through such information.

#### Data Collection

The researcher made an initial contact, by letter, personal visit or phone, to the Presidents (or appropriate representatives) of employer organizations or groups. The initial contact explained the purpose of the study and the criteria by which subjects would be eligible to participate. Permission was requested to contact employees asking if they would be willing to participate in the study. A request was made that names of potential subjects be furnished the researcher. The researcher then contacted the potential subjects, by phone, explained the purpose of the study and asked their cooperation as subjects. If interest was indicated, the researcher then proceeded with the initial interview and explanation of the instrument. All participants were voluntary and signed a fully-informed consent agreement. Each participant was given a research number so that confidentiality could be maintained. All data was reported according to research numbers. When a minimum of 20 persons for each analysis cell was reached, subject selection was considered completed.

It was recognized that the person recommending the subject might not always know the subject's exact self-earned

income and therefore it would not always be possible to determine which group the subject would be in until the interview was in process and exact income information was requested. In order to fill the two groups of high success women 44 interviews were completed. This included 20 subjects in the non-economic success category (minimum requirement) and 24 subjects in the high-economic success category. To fill the two groups of high success men 56 interviews were completed. This included 21 subjects in the non-economic success category and 35 subjects in the high-economic success category. One extra interview was done with a non-economic success male, bringing the total number of interviews to 100. As discussed in Chapters IV and V, the group of non-economic success men was the most difficult to fill. All groups were then compared by group means.

Data collection involved a two-step interview procedure. The initial session, which was conducted by phone, included a general explanation of the purpose of the study, assessment of some demographic and informational data and instruction on use of the self-report form of the Life Activity Pattern Assessment Record which was to be used by the subjects in reporting life activity patterns. The Life Activity Record self-report form was then either mailed or delivered to the subjects. When completing the

Life Activity Record self-report form the subjects were requested to fill out the form for a representative week excluding holiday and vacation periods or other life events which represented substantial change in life activity patterns. A face sheet and additional demographic data questions accompanied the Life Activity Record self-report form. The face sheet gave the rationale for the study and explained the procedure to be used. The demographic data sheet asked for information with regard to age, marital status, children (primary care/non-primary care), education, career longevity, organization size, and other questions dealing with career data. An appointment was scheduled in the initial contact for session two. In session two, subjects were asked to review their specific week's activities as reported on the Life Activity Record self-report form. This allowed for discussion and clarification between the researcher and the subject. Appropriate scoring decisions were coded by the researcher at this time.

#### Instrumentation

The Life Activity Record of ecosystem assessment was used. The instrument utilizes a procedure developed to describe an individual's usual pattern of interaction with the community or psychosocial system as a whole. The basic unit of measurement consists of observable and naturally

occurring subsystems in a total community: a physical location, environmental properties, persons, and behaviors which are interrelated in consistent fashion. Examples of such "ecounits" are an individual's particular work setting, home, a group or organization in which the individual participates, etc. When all these units which are occupied by an individual for specific periods of time are added together, 24 hours a day over an extended period of time, the resulting participation pattern can be termed "lifestyle." The reliability of category measures and associated measures is 95% and 97% respectively (Klassen, 1977).

Ten primary activity areas provide the basic framework for assessment. These activity areas are:

- (1) Work
- (2) Education
- (3) Public recreation
- (4) Social
- (5) Public organization
- (6) Health
- (7) Commercial
- (8) Family
- (9) Private
- (10) Transit

Definitions for the ten primary activity areas are set forth in the definition section of this study.



All other measures are obtained with reference to these ten specific activity areas. Measurements in each area of activity include:

- (1) Importance of the area of activity
- (2) Satisfaction in the area of activity
- (3) Problems in the area of activity
- (4) Competence or abilities in the area of activity
- (5) Community resources available in the area of activity (subject knowledge of)
- (6) Future changes expected in the area of activity.

Each of these measurements is self-reported and is assessed on a scale of five points:

None / Below / Average / Above / Very  
at all / average / average / average / high

Thus, levels of satisfaction, importance, feelings of competence, etc., as perceived by the subject, can be rated for each of the 10 areas (a 5 x 10 measurement). Use of this category system allows comparison of participation patterns and also allows specific measures or descriptions to be organized by activity type.

The specific procedure for determining independent settings and setting characteristics are as follows:

#### Identifying Independent Settings

The settings described by a subject are first rated to determine if they are independent settings. In order

for a behavior pattern to be designated as an independent behavior-milieu unit, it must:

- (1) occur independently of the particular persons involved,
- (2) be anchored to and surrounded by a particular milieu complex,
- (3) occur at a particular time and place, and
- (4) consist of behavior and milieu which are synomorphic (similar in structure, i.e., the milieu should be arranged to accommodate the behavior pattern). An example of a behavior pattern which is a behavior-milieu synomorph is the communion portion of a church worship service. An example of a behavior pattern which is not a synomorph is the accent of the church members (it is not anchored to any particular milieu complex; it occurs throughout the geographic region).

Behavior-milieu synomorphs (hereafter referred to as synomorphs) identified by the Structure Test are then evaluated through the use of the "K Test," which calculates the degree of interdependence between two synomorphs (Barker. 1968, pp. 40-46).

#### Occupancy Time

Time is recorded in hours, using a decimal system. Time is ordinarily recorded to the nearest quarter hour.

#### Primary, Secondary, Trace Ratings

Since any given setting may contain elements of more than one setting type, a category rating scale is used.

Primary Rating: Refers to the primary purpose of the

setting, for example a movie would be rated 03 Public Recreation as the primary rating.

Secondary Rating: Refers to elements that are secondarily important in the setting. A movie attended as a family activity would receive a secondary rating of 08 Family.

Trace Rating: Refers to aspects of the setting which are of minor importance yet help to further describe the setting. The trace rating for a movie attended as a family activity with friends also present would be 04 Social.

#### Affect, Economic, Social Ratings

Each setting is also categorized according to Affect, Economic, and Social characteristics. This rating describes the amount and type of control imposed on the standing behavior patterns by the behavior setting. The definitions for these codes are as follows:

Affect: Measures to what degree affective display is appropriate in any given setting.

- 0 - Affect is not displayed.
- 1 - Much freedom. The emotional restrictions are those agreed upon by participants.
- 2 - Somewhat restricted.
- 3 - Highly predictable, organized, preplanned.

Economic: Settings oriented toward organized distribution of goods and services (control of materials).

- 0 - No obvious economic component.
- 1 - Behavior patterns with economic component but without pay.
- 2 - Settings entered for purpose of gainful employment.
- 3 - Terminal points of distribution of goods and services.

Social: Roles and patterns of communication and social interaction prescribed by the setting (force of role).

- 0 - Roles and patterns of communication are generally considered unimportant.
- 1 - Informal: Primary structure is based upon social mores; informal interaction and communication.
- 2 - Defined: Settings in which major roles are explicitly defined and titled. More formal communication.
- 3 - Legal: Governmental or quasi-governmental settings in which participants' roles are defined by force of law.

#### Level of Participation

The level of participation within each setting by its occupants is also recorded. Ecological techniques identify different levels, or zones of penetration, differing according to the amount of control over and type of activity in the setting.

- 0 - No participation: No activity in the area.
- 1 - On looker: Present, but no participation. Persons within the peripheral zone are present but

take no part. They may be tolerated but not welcomed, they have no power.

- 2 - Audience or Invited Guests: Below expected level. Persons in this zone have a definite place, they are welcome, but have little power. At most they can applaud or express disapproval. Examples include spectators at a ballgame, visitors in someone's home.
- 3 - Member or Customer: Usual or expected level of participation. Occupants of this zone have great potential power but usually little immediate power. They are the voting members, the paying customers, or members at a business meeting.
- 4 - Active Functionary: More than usual responsibility. Persons in this zone have power over a part of a setting but do not lead it. They may have direct power over a limited part of the setting. An example would be a treasurer of an organization.

#### Procedure for Data Analysis

For purpose of this research, discriminate analysis was used as a system of multivariate statistical techniques which integrates three distinct functions:

- (a) to determine whether or not significant differences exist among two groups of individuals in terms of several descriptor variables (significance testing);
- (b) If such differences exist, to try to "explain" them in terms of a smaller number of "underlying functions" than the original descriptor variables (explanation of group differences); and

(c) to utilize the multivariate information from the samples studied in assigning a future individual to one of the several groups studied--assuming that the individual must be a member of one or another of these groups (classification).

What is particularly critical in this research is the use of discriminant function analysis for purposes (a) and (b): to determine differences among groups as in point (a); and to reduce complex data to underlying patterns as in point (b). Data are grouped and analyzed according to each research question.

Question 1 addressed the problem of similarities and differences in the life-activity patterns, as measured by the ecosystems assessment Life-Activity Record, between:

- a) HESW and HESM;
- b) HESW and NESW; and
- c) NESW and NESM

The discriminant function analysis addresses this problem using the same statistical techniques as multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) in its simplest form (one-factor design). Group differences may be statistically assessed through the use of the conventional F, or through use of statistics associated with significance testing in the discriminant analysis (Wilks' likelihood-ratio ration).

Whenever a discriminant analysis is carried out, it automatically produces the necessary quantities for carrying out the significance test of the corresponding MANOVA problem. It is for this reason that the MANOVA can be regarded as one aspect of discriminant analysis--although some authors prefer to speak of discriminant analysis as an adjunct to MANOVA.

Question 2 examines whether such differences between groups, assuming they are significant, can be described in terms of a smaller number of underlying patterns or functions which characterize the complex life-activity data. This procedure is the discriminant analysis proper, and is mathematically and logically similar to factor analysis. The difference is that whereas factor analysis seeks to explain individual differences on a large number of attributes in terms of a small number of factors, discriminant analysis seeks to do this for group differences. Discriminant Factor Analysis does not provide a causal or etiological explanation, but simply a parsimonious description in terms of the discriminant functions which constitute the "underlying factors." The number of discriminant functions is equal to the smaller of the two numbers,  $p$  (the number of original variables) and  $K-1$  (where  $K$  is the number of groups). Since the number of groups is much smaller than the number of variables, using  $K-1$  discriminant

functions to "explain" the group differences constitutes a considerable decrease of variables from the original  $p$ .

The actual procedure for describing group differences in terms of the retained discriminant functions takes two forms. One is to examine the magnitudes and signs of the standardized discriminant function weights--that is, the elements of  $\underline{v}_i$  each multiplied by the standard deviation of the particular variable--and thereby to determine what kind of person would tend to score high (and what kind, low) on each discriminant function. Then the groups which have large means on a given discriminant function are characterized as consisting predominantly of the kind of people who would score high on that function, and vice versa. (By "kind of person" here is meant a person with a particular pattern of scores on the descriptor variables.) The second way for characterizing group differences more closely parallels the approach used in factor analysis to interpret the factors obtained. This is to examine the structure matrix, which is the matrix of correlations between the original variables and the retained discriminant functions. For purposes of Question 2, the former ("kind of person") approach is preferable.

The specific program utilized sub-program Discriminant as described in the SPSS Manual, second edition, pages 434-467. For purposes of analysis, Option 8, a separate plot



for each group, and Option 13, a varimax rotation of the discriminant functions to provide standardized coefficients, were included.

Means. Means on each of the discriminating variables were printed for each group and for the total set of cases. In this context, the total set of cases includes all classified cases which have not been deleted for missing values. Any unclassified cases were omitted.

Univariate F ratios. This is the one-way analysis of variance test for equality of group means on a single discriminating variable. An F was printed for each variable.

C H A P T E R   I V  
PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

Analysis of Data

As noted earlier in the proposal, this research addresses the problem of similarities and differences in the life activity patterns of males and females above and below a selected income criteria point, as measured by the Ecosystems Assessment procedure. The most rigorous test of this question was viewed as a Discriminate Function Analysis; the problem is addressed using statistical techniques equivalent to a multi-variate analysis of variance (MANOVA) in its simplest form, one-factor design. Group differences may then be assessed through the use of the conventional F, or through one of several statistics associated with significance testing in the discriminate analysis. When a discriminate analysis is conducted, it produces the necessary mathematics for carrying out the significance test of the corresponding MANOVA problem.

The basic data to be assessed consists of ecological measures of activities; the ecological assessment procedure produces a list of behavior settings which may be described as activities (Appendix A); these are then organized into ten areas of activity, which may be described based on

hours of participation. Table 2 shows mean participation hours in each of the ten setting areas for each of the four groups.

TABLE 2  
MEANS OF HOURS IN THE TEN SETTING AREAS FOR THE  
NESW, HESW, NESM AND HESM GROUPS

		Group			
		NESW	HESW	NESM	HESM
Area 1	Work Hours	44.98	51.64	40.78	53.67
Area 2	Education Hours	6.25	4.67	4.27	3.92
Area 3	Recreation Hours	15.46	16.84	15.93	18.46
Area 4	Social Hours	10.51	9.76	10.61	10.71
Area 5	Public Organiza- tions Hours	0.56	0.51	0.19	0.67
Area 6	Health Hours	0.59	1.17	0.57	0.40
Area 7	Commercial & Business Hours	4.55	4.55	5.09	4.05
Area 8	Family & Home Hours	19.49	13.67	18.45	14.96
Area 9	Private Hours	20.60	17.09	23.30	18.27
Area 10	Transit Hours	8.31	9.77	8.63	7.99
Total Hours Reported Per Week		131.30	129.67	127.82	133.10
Reported Hours Per Day		18.78	18.52	18.26	19.00

Group differences may then be tested in a preliminary fashion for each of the four groups in each activity area utilizing Wilks' Lambda and a Univariate F ratio. Table 3 shows the results of these comparisons with 3 and 96 degrees of freedom.

TABLE 3

WILKS' LAMBDA (U) AND UNIVARIATE F-RATIOS AMONG  
THE NESW, HESW, NESM AND HESM GROUPS  
FOR HOURS IN THE TEN SETTING AREAS

Variable	Wilks' Lambda	F	Signifi- cance
Work Hours	0.74	11.24	0.00
Education Hours	0.98	0.71	0.55
Recreation Hours	0.98	0.65	0.59
Social Hours	0.99	0.20	0.90
Public Organization Hours	0.97	0.92	0.43
Health Hours	0.96	1.45	0.23
Commercial & Business Hours	0.97	0.85	0.47
Family & Home Hours	0.92	3.06	0.03
Private Hours	0.92	2.83	0.04
Transit Hours	0.97	1.09	0.36

As can be noted, differences among groups reached significance only in Area 1 (Work), Area 8 (Family and Home), and Area 9 (Private). Significance levels for Areas 8 and 9 do not demonstrate a high significance level; further, the Univariate F ratio is not a reliable basis for assessing the question of group differences in a meaningful fashion. Results are preliminary to the Discriminate Function analysis, in the sense that a multiple F comparison which yields some significant results does not adequately assess the reliability of inter-group differences, in the sense that a unidirectional specific hypothesis has not been proposed (tests are two-tailed, thus not sufficient to reject the no hypothesis for Areas 8 and 9), and in the sense that the research question assesses similarities and differences in total life activity pattern rather than the possibility of some individual significant F ratios. In other words, while the description of mean differences may identify areas of difference, it should not be considered a sufficient analysis; prediction of group membership based on ecological measures, the Discriminate Function analysis, is the primary test of the question proposed.

When the group distributions in Areas 1 through 10 were entered in a Discriminate Function analysis, four areas and three functions were derived. Table 4 indicated

the standardized Canonical Discriminate Function coefficients obtained.

TABLE 4  
STANDARDIZED CANONICAL DISCRIMINANT FUNCTION COEFFICIENTS

	Function 1	Function 2	Function 3
Work Hours	1.108	-0.013	-0.173
Recreation Hours	0.674	-0.090	0.839
Health Hours	0.177	0.768	-0.079
Transit Hours	0.099	0.692	0.319

As can be noted, Area 1 (Work), Area 3 (Recreation), Area 6 (Health) and Area 10 (Transit) yield three functions. These canonical discriminate functions are evaluated at group means as shown in table 5.

TABLE 5  
CANONICAL DISCRIMINANT FUNCTIONS EVALUATED  
AT GROUP MEANS (GROUP CENTROIDS)

Group	Function 1	Function 2	Function 3
NESW	-0.601	-0.074	-0.092
HESW	0.447	0.481	0.002
NESM	-1.080	-0.023	0.063
HESM	0.685	-0.274	0.013

The value of these three functions with respect to the four comparison groups may then be evaluated as shown in Table 6.

TABLE 6  
CANONICAL DISCRIMINANT FUNCTION

	Function 1	Function 2	Function 3
Eigenvalue	0.551	0.086	0.002
Percent of Variance	86.08	13.50	0.42
Canonical Correlation	0.596	0.282	0.052
Wilks' Lambda	0.592	0.918	0.003
Chi-Squared	49.847	8.132	0.255
D.F.	12	6	2
Significance	0.000	0.229	0.880

Table 6 indicates the Eigenvalue, percent of variance, Canonical correlation, Wilks' Lambda, Chi-squared, and significance level of the three functions derived in the Discriminate Function Analysis. As can be noted, Function 1 accounts for an unusually large share of the variance, thus might be considered as reaching significance. Functions 2 and 3, however, account for a relatively

small proportion of the variance and do not reach significance. Further, Function 3, while mathematically derived in the Discriminate Function Analysis, accounts for such a small proportion of the variance as to be essentially meaningless.

The statistical procedures reported in tables 3 through 6 are essentially consistent with what may be observed in table 2; that is, the relatively low significance level and percent of variance obtained in the Discriminate Function procedure may be understood in descriptive terms by inspection of table 2 and is further reflected in table 3. Mean differences are quite small when the data are considered in "real world" descriptive terms: A mean of 4.6 hours in educational activities, for example, suggests that the differences among groups which range from a high of 6.3 to a low of 3.9 hours have little meaning. In other words, the life activity pattern of an individual who spends 6 hours in an educational setting as opposed to an individual who spends almost 4 hours in that setting are not particularly meaningful. In general, means for the groups do not differ from the total mean for the four groups in a meaningful fashion (one open to a relevant interpretation) for most major types of activity.



Referring to table 3, the only high level of statistical significance (only one-tailed significance level beyond .05) was in the area of work; this difference in mean hours may be meaningful, in the sense that a difference of 40 hours (ordinary full-time employment) and 53 hours (mean work time for Group 4, HESM) can be interpreted in a meaningful fashion. The additional 13 hours invested in a work setting in a typical week can be sensibly interpreted as reflecting a lifestyle with a greater proportion of investment (i.e. time) in the work setting.

Purely on a descriptive level, therefore, the results as reported thus far do not reflect dramatic differences among the four comparison groups. The Discriminate Function Analysis, therefore, may be viewed as an attempt to select the finest consistent measures by which any reliable predictor of group membership can be derived. The classification results shown in table 7 indicate that 47% of the cases grouped were correctly classified. Again, a relatively low percent of variance of Functions 2 and 3, the lack of significant differences among groups on Univariate F's, and the inspection of descriptive means are consistent with the findings demonstrated in table 7. Overall life activity patterns do not vary in a major or systematic fashion among the four groups compared.

TABLE 7

DISCRIMINANT FUNCTION ANALYSIS CLASSIFICATION RESULTS  
FOR THE NESW, HESW, NESM AND HESM GROUPS

Group	No. of Cases	Predicted Group Membership			
		1	2	3	4
NESW	20	5 25.0%	1 5.0%	8 40.0%	6 30.0%
HESW	24	4 16.7%	8 33.3%	3 12.5%	9 37.5%
NESM	21	2 9.5%	3 14.3%	14 66.7%	2 9.5%
HESM	35	8 22.9%	7 20.0%	0 0.0%	20 57.1%

Overall correct classification: 47.0%

(A more detailed graphic plot of the group centroid for the Canonical Discrimination Function 1 may be seen in Figure 1, following page.)

Inspection of table 7 in more detail suggests the following: For the NESW group membership is obtained in only 25% of the cases. The Discriminate Function Analysis does appear to discriminate between the NESW and the HESW groups, but does not separate NESW from the NESM and HESM groups. If these results are interpreted against the position of the discriminate functions, it can be noted that only Function 1 is highly significant and that Function 1 is heavily loaded for hours in Area 1,

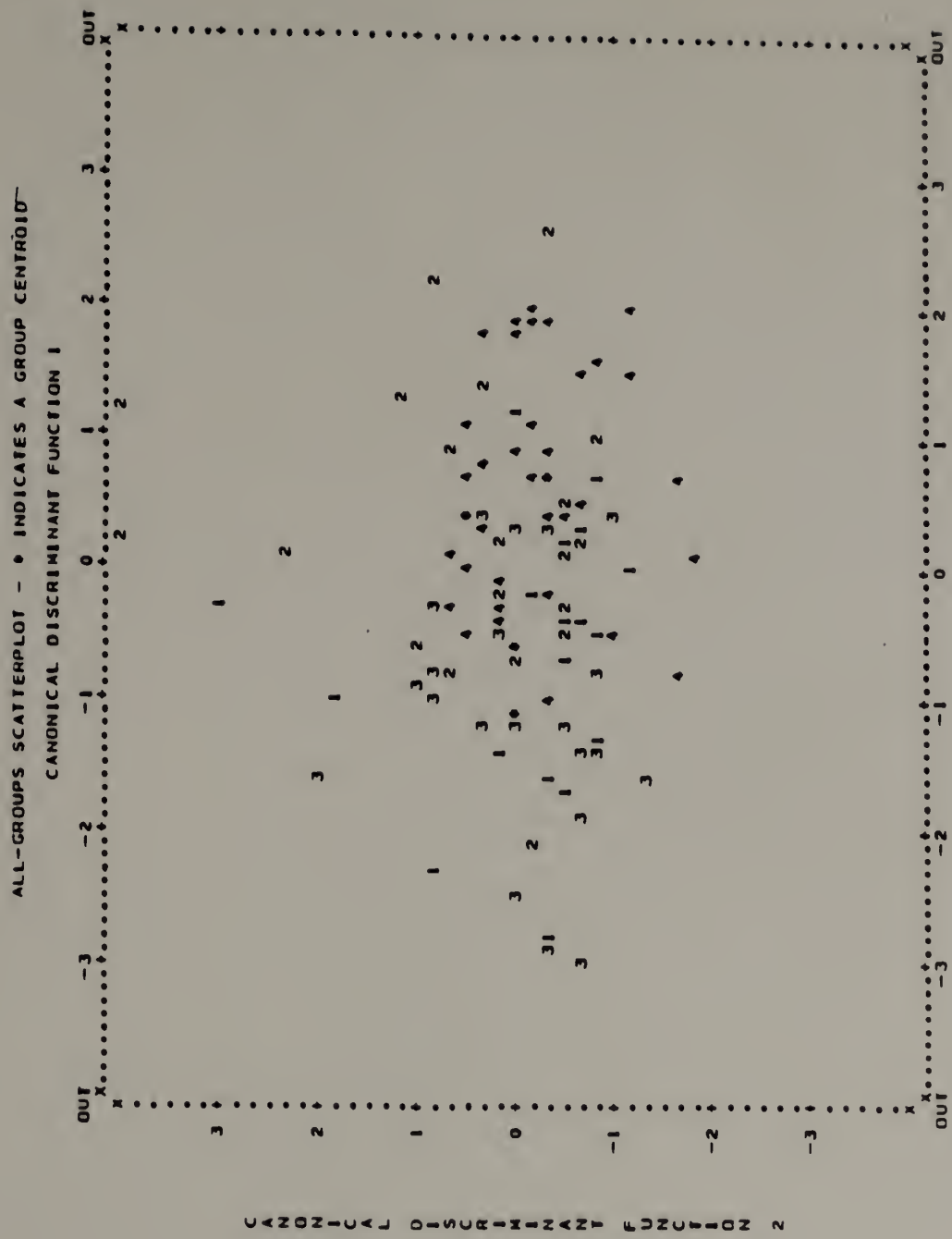


Figure 1. Scatterplot of discriminant functions 1 and 2 for groups.

Work. In effect, then, work hours are the strongest predictor of group membership, but the prediction does not exceed roughly a 50% or essentially chance level. Further, while a minor distinction may be noted between NESW and HESW groups, even work hours cannot distinguish the NESW group from the two male comparison groups. In the case of the HESW females, approximately one-third can be correctly predicted in terms of group membership. Some distinction, again likely to be based primarily on work hours, can be made between the HESW group and the NESW and NESM groups; inspecting group means, the HESW group spends more hours in a work setting, but cannot be distinguished from the HESM group. Viewing predictions for the NESM group, approximately two-thirds could be correctly classified. For the HESM group, approximately 57% could be correctly classified; the group was distinctly different than the NESM group, but in approximately one-fifth of the cases could not be distinguished from either NESW or HESW groups.

In effect, the discriminate function analysis demonstrates little difference between and among groups in terms of life activity patterns.

It should be noted that ecological variables associated with hours in type of setting (zone and number of settings) were more narrowly distributed and on preliminary

analysis appeared even less significant than the hours measure; where no major differences are noted among groups on the measure of actual activity, hours, zone and number of setting differences are not subject to meaningful analysis or interpretation. Further, no Univariate F differences among groups on these measures were obtained.

The finding that total life activity patterns do not discriminate among the comparison groups is, however, a meaningful finding. It does not, of course, suggest that there are "no differences" of any sort among and between the individuals selected for membership in the comparison groups; nor does it mean that the findings may not be discussed in some meaningful fashion. The composition of the groups and the descriptive similarities among individuals in the comparison groups will be discussed in detail in the discussion section of this dissertation.

Further, the ecological data do yield some meaningful comparison when ratings of areas are inspected. Tables 8 through 17 indicate the results of Chi-square comparisons (which should be considered descriptive of a rating procedure) for the four comparison groups.

Table 8 indicates group differences on the rating of expected amount of time change in the near future.

TABLE 8  
 TOTAL CHANGE RATINGS FOR THE NESW, HESW,  
 NESM AND HESM GROUPS

"Do you expect your amount of time to change in the <u>near future</u> ?"					
Group	1 Much Less	2 Somewhat Less	3 No Change	4 Somewhat More	5 Much More
NESW	17 2.02%	82 9.74%	503 59.74%	222 26.36%	18 2.14%
HESW	6 .58%	119 11.45%	706 67.95%	192 18.48%	16 1.54%
NESM	12 1.29%	100 10.78%	570 61.42%	226 24.35%	20 2.16%
HESM	3 .19%	100 6.40%	1119 71.64%	303 19.40%	37 2.37%

Chi Square = 37.82295 with 9 degrees of freedom  
 Significance = 0.0000

Descriptively, NESW group tended to expect "much more" change, as did the NESM and HESM groups. Relatively speaking the HESW group did not anticipate "much more" time change as strongly as the other three groups. The Chi Square obtained was 37.8 with 9 degrees of freedom, p less than .001.

With respect to evaluating anticipated satisfaction, results are shown in table 9.

TABLE 9

TOTAL ANTICIPATED SATISFACTION RATINGS FOR THE  
NESW, HESW, NESM AND HESM GROUPS

"Do you expect these activities to be more or less satisfying than at present?"					
Group	1 Much Less	2 Somewhat Less	3 No Change	4 Somewhat More	5 Much More
NESW	0 0.0%	30 3.6%	439 52.1%	268 31.8%	105 12.5%
HESW	17 1.6%	43 4.1%	655 63.0%	279 26.9%	45 4.3%
NESM	16 1.7%	45 4.8%	510 55.0%	266 28.7%	91 9.8%
HESM	7 0.4%	53 3.4%	964 61.7%	373 23.9%	165 10.6%

Chi Square = 95.09499 with 12 degrees of freedom  
Significance = 0.000

Again, a raw Chi Square of 95.1 with 12 degrees of freedom yields a significance level less than .001. While all groups tend to anticipate "no change" most frequently, the highest ratings of anticipated change ("much more") are noted in the NESW and HESM groups.

Table 10 indicates the rating of importance assigned to areas; no significant differences are noted.

TABLE 10  
 TOTAL IMPORTANCE RATINGS FOR THE  
 NESW, HESW, NESM AND HESM GROUPS

"Importance of this area of activity."					
Group	1 Much Less	2 Somewhat Less	3 No Change	4 Somewhat More	5 Much More
NESW	7 0.8%	87 10.3%	206 24.5%	249 29.6%	293 34.8%
HESW	4 0.4%	79 7.6%	233 22.4%	347 33.4%	376 36.2%
NESM	7 0.8%	74 8.0%	228 24.6%	312 33.6%	307 33.1%
HESM	16 1.0%	132 8.5%	379 24.3%	486 31.1%	549 35.1%

Chi Square = 13.97152 with 12 degrees of freedom  
 Significance = 0.3025

Table 11 indicates present satisfaction with activities.



TABLE 11  
 TOTAL CURRENT SATISFACTION RATINGS FOR THE  
 NESW, HESW, NESM AND HESM GROUPS

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"At present, satisfaction with this area of activity."

Group	1 None At All	2 Below Average	3 Average	4 Above Average	5 Very Satisfied
NESW	2 0.2%	175 20.8%	260 30.9%	233 27.7%	172 20.4%
HESW	4 0.4%	129 12.4%	375 36.1%	347 33.4%	184 17.7%
NESM	7 0.8%	117 12.6%	323 34.8%	340 36.6%	141 15.2%
HESM	11 0.7%	151 9.7%	572 36.6%	524 33.5%	304 19.5%

---

Chi Square = 81.06760 with 12 degrees of freedom  
 Significance = 0.0000

The Chi Square of 81.1 with 12 degrees of freedom yields a significance level less than .001. Overall, satisfaction ratings tend to be high, but are more evenly distributed for the NESW group.

Ratings of current problems in activity areas are shown in table 12.

TABLE 12  
 TOTAL PROBLEMS RATINGS FOR THE NESW,  
 HESW, NESM AND HESM GROUPS

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"At present, problems in this area of activity."

Group	1 None At All	2 Below Average	3 Average	4 Above Average	5 Very Satisfied
NESW	221 26.2%	187 22.2%	264 31.4%	155 18.4%	15 1.8%
HESW	187 18.0%	279 26.9%	436 42.0%	137 13.2%	0 0.0%
NESM	108 11.6%	246 26.5%	436 47.0%	130 14.0%	8 0.9%
HESM	396 25.4%	421 27.0%	588 37.0%	146 9.3%	11 0.7%

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Chi Square = 159.53723 with 12 degrees of freedom  
 Significance = 0.0

The Chi Square of 159.5 with 12 degrees of freedom yields a significance level less than .001. "Very Serious" problems are least frequently reported in the HESW group.

Competence ratings are shown in table 13.

TABLE 13  
 TOTAL COMPETENCE RATINGS FOR THE NESW,  
 HESW, NESM AND HESM GROUPS

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"At present, competence in this area of activity."

Group	1 None At All	2 Below Average	3 Average	4 Above Average	5 Very High Ability
NESW	11 1.3%	38 4.5%	236 28.0%	327 38.8%	230 27.3%
HESW	10 1.0%	49 4.7%	306 29.5%	456 43.9%	218 21.0%
NESM	0 0.0%	45 4.8%	256 27.6%	490 52.8%	137 14.8%
HESM	1 0.1%	69 4.4%	452 28.9%	649 41.5%	391 25.0%

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Chi Square = 89.55556 with 12 degrees of freedom  
 Significance = 0.000

The Chi Square of 89.6 with 12 degrees of freedom indicates a significance level less than .001. The NESW and HESM groups report feeling the highest levels of competence ("Very High Ability").

Available resources are shown in table 14.

TABLE 14  
 TOTAL RESOURCE RATINGS FOR THE NESW,  
 HESW, NESM AND HESM GROUPS

"At present, resources available in this area of activity."					
Group	1 None At All	2 Below Average	3 Average	4 Above Average	5 Very High
NESW	0 0.0%	145 17.2%	195 23.2%	273 32.4%	229 27.2%
HESW	3 0.3%	51 4.9%	256 24.6%	470 45.2%	259 24.9%
NESM	2 0.2%	47 5.1%	307 33.1%	405 43.6%	167 18.0%
HESM	1 0.1%	65 4.2%	288 18.4%	628 40.2%	580 37.1%

Chi Square = 314.63599 with 12 degrees of freedom  
 Significance = 0.0

The Chi Square of 314.6 with 12 degrees of freedom indicates a significance level less than .001. The highest resources are reported by the HESM group, and lowest by the NESM group; interestingly enough the NESW group reports higher maximum rating (Rating 5) than does the HESW group.

Ratings for affective, economic and social pressure do not show significant differences among groups. These ratings are shown in tables 15, 16, and 17.

TABLE 15  
 TOTAL AFFECTIVE PRESSURE FOR THE  
 NESW, HESW, NESM AND HESM GROUPS

Group	1 Much Freedom	2 Somewhat Restricted	3 Highly Predictable
NESW	206 46.7%	169 38.3%	66 15.0%
HESW	255 46.9%	219 40.3%	70 12.9%
NESM	220 46.9%	190 40.5%	59 12.6%
HESM	409 46.9%	325 37.3%	138 15.8%

Chi Square = 4.50804 with 6 degrees of freedom  
 Significance = 0.6083

Definition for code:

Affect: Measures to what degree affective display  
 is appropriate in any given setting.

- 0 - Affect is not displayed.
- 1 - Much freedom. The emotional restrictions  
 are those agreed upon by participants.
- 2 - Somewhat restricted.
- 3 - Highly predictable, organized, preplanned.

TABLE 16  
 TOTAL ECONOMIC PRESSURE FOR THE  
 NESW, HESW, NESM AND HESM GROUPS

Group	Economic Component		
	1 Without Pay	2 Gainful Employment	3 Terminal Point
NESW	25 6.1%	23 5.7%	359 88.2%
HESW	28 5.3%	32 6.1%	465 88.6%
NESM	25 5.5%	25 5.5%	407 89.1%
HESM	36 4.7%	50 6.6%	677 88.7%

Chi Square = 1.75997 with 6 degrees of freedom  
 Significance = 0.9404

Definition for code:

Economic: Settings oriented toward organized distribution of goods and services (control of materials).

- 0 - No obvious economic component.
- 1 - Behavior patterns with economic component but without pay.
- 2 - Settings entered for purpose of gainful employment.
- 3 - Terminal points of distribution of goods and services.

TABLE 17  
 TOTAL SOCIAL PRESSURE FOR THE NESW,  
 HESW, NESM AND HESM GROUPS

Group	1 Informal	2 Defined	3 Legal
NESW	395 69.5%	149 26.2%	24 4.2%
HESW	500 73.2%	171 25.0%	12 1.8%
NESM	430 73.1%	137 23.3%	21 3.6%
HESM	765 72.6%	266 25.2%	23 2.2%

Chi Square = 11.35937 with 6 degrees of freedom  
 Significance = 0.0779

Definition for code:

Social: Roles and patterns of communication and social interaction prescribed by the setting (force of role).

- 0 - Roles and patterns of communication are generally considered unimportant.
- 1 - Informal: Primary structure is based upon social mores; informal interaction and communication.
- 2 - Defined: Settings in which major roles are explicitly defined and titled. More formal communication.
- 3 - Legal: Governmental or quasi-governmental settings in which participants' roles are defined by force of law.

### Discussion on the Groups

It was found that often the person identifying a potential subject did not know the exact income of the person being recommended for an interview. Therefore, this specific income information did not become known to the interviewer until the interview was in process. It was indicated to the recommending person, however, that this was a study of the lifestyles of successful people, that there were four groups being studied, men and women and within each of these there would be a group with an economic criteria factor and a group without that economic criteria factor.

The groups easiest to fill were the HESM and the HESW. These persons seemed to be highly visible, and interestingly, when contacted all were willing to be interviewed. The researcher was able to obtain interviews with people who were "thought" to be "unreachable." (These included, for example, the President of a Fortune 500 company, a multi-millionaire, etc.) There seemed a genuine interest and a curiosity in what the data would show. The interviews with NESW were only slightly more difficult to obtain with these women often showing feelings of being flattered and appreciation of the fact that someone had recommended them for such a study.



The filling of the final group, however, that of NESM, was a different story. Fifty-one (as compared with forty) interviews with men had to be completed before the NESM group became filled. There seemed to be a lot more of a veil of mystery surrounding the men's salaries, especially with regard to men who made less than \$25,000 per year. It was as if to make less than \$25,000 was somehow a label of "non-success" equating with "failure." Seldom was seen the attitude of being flattered or of being appreciative of the fact of being recommended for such an interview. Only in two cases, both in the field of religious leadership, did the researcher find recognition of self-appreciation non-related to income. In this group of NESM were the only refused interviews, as well as statements reflecting denial of success such as, "I'm not someone you want to interview . . .," etc. Because these reactions were so common the NESM became almost the "non-group" with the research identification of subjects effort needing to be doubled and completion taking nearly three times as long. It was literally easier to get the interview with the President of the Fortune 500 company than to get many of the interviews in the NESM group.

### Mean Hours in Setting Areas

In Chapter I, presentation of instruments, the ten setting areas were discussed as they appear in the instrument. In this discussion on the mean hours, the ten setting areas will be discussed in the order of their significance.

**Work Hours:** Work hours is the one setting area that shows significant differences between the groups studied. One of the salient facts reported is that high success persons who are economically well-remunerated put in more hours in work related activities than persons who are in the non-high economic success groups. HESM put in nearly 54 hours a week, HESW spend 52 hours a week in work activities. This is compared to 45 hours a week for NESW and only 41 hours a week for NESM.

Personal interview data for HESM and HESW suggest that one of the facets of the lifestyles of these two groups is an ability to "operate" on multiple levels. These individuals seem at times to function horizontally as well as vertically in their life style activities. Within a particular time segment, two or three hours in an evening, for example, a HES person may be functioning out of a "work role" identity, may be involved in a "work role" or perhaps even a "public organization role" conversation, for example, but may be at a "social role"

setting. In other words, time in effect becomes expanded through use of this horizontal over-lap ability imposed on the reality of the time limitation factor of a twenty-four hour day.

This horizontal/vertical integrating was highly evident in the lifestyle interviews of HES persons. It was less evident with the NESW, who sometimes showed recognition of it, but less skill (or sometimes only a developing skill) at achieving it. NESM seemed, of all the groups, to make the strongest effort not to do this type of integrating.

Home/Family Hours: The highest commitment to home-family hours was reported by NES persons. Often a clear value choice was discussed with regard to this area. There was also some discussion of "role-expectation" conflicts which limited the horizontal-vertical integration in the personal interviews of the NES persons. The most often cited example in this area was perceived role conflict demands between work and family roles where an identified choice was being made toward family. This factor might have been predicted for women due to cultural conditioning, but would not have been as clearly predictable for men. NESM spent only one hour less per week in family/home settings than NESW. Five hours less were spent by HESM and six hours less were spent by HESW.

Another interesting factor developing out of the supporting personal interview data was the fact that the family/home "support system" for HESM is often much greater than for HESW in that there is more often a non-working wife at home who assumes responsibilities in this area and thus "frees" the HESM to make the "choice" of less hours of family/home time commitment. This support system is often not present for the HESW, who is often either unmarried or married to someone who also has a high "work" commitment and thus understands it and does not impose the expectations which impose the "work-family" conflict perceptions. Thus the HESW reports the least amount of time devoted to home/family settings, although only one hour less than the HESM.

Little evidence was found of "role reversal" with a house-husband, although there was some evidence of HESW who were married to NESM who made stronger home/family hour commitments. Whether this was the result of evolving circumstances, choice, or preference was unclear.

Private Hours: Private hours reflect time spent alone or with one other significant person. This would include hours spent for such diverse activities as reading, meditation or sex. It was specifically defined in interview settings and described as time which provided personal nourishment.

The group with the greatest time allocated to private hours was NESM who spent 23 hours per week in this area of activity. The second highest group was NESW with 3 hours less time spent than for NESM. HESM and HESW spent 18 hours and 17 hours respectively, with HESW having the least amount of time spent in this area.

Because this area included intimate time spent with a significant other, an interesting side factor of perceived "resources available" became a factor. A greater number of HESW were not involved in significant relationships which provided them with as great a "resource" for potential intimate time shared with another person. Here, in some of the interviews, HESW talked about some of the "prices" for moving out of traditionally defined female roles, i.e., more aloneness, less relatedness in significant-other relationships with the opposite sex. Here there seemed to be voiced some evidence of a feeling of a void.

Among the NESM with the highest commitment in this area there was clear evidence of choice for personal growth involving personal value systems and sometimes service to others such as religion, social service or education. It might be asked if when one gives substantially to others as a result of one's commitments if it then becomes necessary to spend greater private time to replenish oneself.

Education: The group reporting the highest number of education hours was NESW. The group reporting the lowest number of education hours was HESM. This may be due to the fact the HESM often perceived themselves as having already "arrived" and thus needing only continuing supportive training, which many times could be obtained in non-formal educational settings.

The group feeling least "arrived" with probably the greatest ambitions for work-role changes was the NESW. These women had sometimes been culturally influenced into traditional female educational choices in years where "traditional" was the life-style priority and were now sometimes involved in education background "catch-up" in non-traditional female education areas such as business administration.

The second highest group in educational hours commitment was the HESW. These women were often already degreed in non-traditional educational areas (for example, law) or felt some degree of already recognized achievement with thus less demand for filling in the gaps or playing "catch-up."

Among the NESM there was at times evidenced a clear choice for a professional field known to be less economically well remunerated (sometimes female dominated) such as education or social service. These choices were

sometimes stated to be because of other factors, such as available hours for home/family or service to humankind. There seemed to be less educational dissatisfaction with the NESM than with NESW. It might be speculated that this was due to clearer choices being made rather than by culturally influenced expectations.

**Recreation Hours:** The group reporting the highest number of recreation hours was HESM (reporting  $18\frac{1}{2}$  hours per week) with HESW reporting 17 hours. This is compared to 16 hours for NESM and 15 hours for NESW.

A relevant factor for the higher group is probably partly due to the resources available (for example, money, facilities, etc.) as well as the aforementioned factor of horizontal/vertical integration of setting areas. Work, for example, may actually get done on the tennis court.

**Social Hours:** Very little difference was reported in social hours among the four groups, with only one hour of difference between the highest and the lowest groups. HESM reported the greatest number of social hours (11 hours per week) and HESW reported the least (10 hours per week).

**Public Organization Hours:** Interestingly, few hours were devoted to public and governmental activities. HESM contributed the greatest time, but only about one hour per week. NESM contributed the least, only 0.19 hours

per week.

Of note is the fact that a few of the subjects interviewed were deeply involved in public activities such as politics or public boards or commissions. It seemed, however, to be almost an "all-or-nothing" phenomena. Either one was deeply involved with great commitment, or involved not at all. More often it was involved not at all.

Health Hours: Weekly activities relating to the area of health reported by the four groups were negligible, only about one-half hour per week for three of the four groups (with HESM reporting the least amount of time spent).

Although still negligible, the time spent by HESW was double that spent by any of the other groups. From interview data it was noted that larger numbers of HESW have sought occasional therapy. Interview data indicated that for these HESW this was a resource which was available to them which lent them some degree of clarification in examination of issues relating to life value changes they were experiencing as women who had moved out of the female cultural mainstream. A therapist aware of issues relating to women in non-traditional roles became a stabilizing and strengthening resource to these HESW in dealing with their lives.



Commercial and Business Hours: Differences reported by the four groups in time spent "spending money" was negligible. The group which spent the most amount of time in this pursuit, however, interestingly was the NESM. And, the group reporting the least amount of time spent was the HESM, the group which by far had the most money to spend. This raises the interesting issue as to whether work, for successful people, is really for the purpose of earning money to spend. It appears there are stronger motivating factors.

Transit Hours: In the area of transit, differences were not significant. However it is interesting to note that the group which spends the greatest amount of time in travel is HESW. This is of interest in that one of the issues raised in the past relating to the appropriateness of women moving into non-traditional careers was their ability or willingness to travel. The evidence of this study is that of the four groups studied the reality of what actually happens in the lifestyles of HESW is that they do travel and in fact report more time spent traveling than any other group.

#### Attitudinal Ratings

Total Anticipated Change Ratings: "Do you expect your amount of time to change in the near future?"

Interestingly the groups which least expected change were the groups (HESM and HESW) which were already putting in the greatest number of hours and had the highest income.

On the other hand, rating differences between NESM and NESW are small (about 2-4%) while rating differences between NESW/NESM and HESW/HESM are greater (8-10% with "change" ratings).

If working more hours is recognized as in fact related to higher economic remuneration there may be some indication that choices may consciously (or unconsciously) be made which show preference for other setting areas over work.

Total Current Satisfaction Ratings: "At present, satisfaction with areas of activity." The group reporting the highest levels of above average satisfaction is the HESM group. The group reporting the highest levels of below average satisfaction is the NESW group. The question as to "why?" of course naturally arises. Is it related to income or to other factors such as cultural attitudes as expectations?

Total Anticipated Satisfaction Ratings: "Do you expect these activities to be more or less satisfying than at present?" The group anticipating the greatest positive change in satisfaction is the NESM. The group anticipating the least amount of change in satisfaction (although they

had the second highest satisfaction rating) was HESW. What are the inter-relationships of present satisfaction with anticipated satisfaction? Is there a leveling off in the anticipating of greater satisfaction? How are these factors related to sex of the subject and income?

Total Importance Ratings: "Importance of areas of activity." The group reporting highest feelings of importance was HESW. The male groups (NESM and HESM) reported similar ratings. The group reporting least feeling of importance about areas of activity was NESW.

Total Problems Ratings: "At present, problems in this area of activity." The least number of perceived problems is reported by the HESM group. The greatest number of perceived problems is reported by the NESW group. Interestingly, the strongest reporting of no problems at all is also the NESW. The NESM group, on the other hand shows the strongest perception of "average" problems.

Total Competence Ratings: "At present, competence in areas." High feelings of competence are reported by all four groups with no significant differences. It is interesting to note, however, that the highest level of "very high ability" being reported is reported by NESW. And, when all ratings above average are considered, the highest rating was indicated by NESM.

Total Resource Ratings: "At present, resources available . . ." The highest levels of perceived resources available was reported by HESM. The second highest rating occurred in the HESW group.

A gap occurs then with lower perceived resources seen by NESM and NESW with the least number of resources perceived by NESW.

## C H A P T E R V

### SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS

A great deal has been written about success and about some of the people who have achieved it. More research needs to be done on the way successful people live their lives on a day-to-day basis, describing their life activity patterns, the routine, the mundane, as well as the outstanding.

This research has studied the life activity patterns of four highly functional groups of people: high economic success men, high economic success women, non-economic success men and non-economic success women. Similarities and differences between the four groups have been assessed.

A significant product of the research is a very interesting description of the ecosystems or life activity patterns of these four groups of highly functional people and their attitudinal feelings about their lives. Summary analysis of the patterns indicates that there seems to be little significant difference in the life activity patterns of the four groups. The one significant difference is that those persons who make more money work a significantly greater number of hours. The two life activity areas from which this time is taken are in the areas of family/home and in private time. Overall, however, life activity

patterns do not vary in a major or systematic fashion among the four groups compared.

The finding that total life activity patterns do not discriminate among the comparison groups is not an unmeaningful finding. It does not, of course, suggest that there are "no differences" of any sort among and between individuals selected for membership in the comparison groups. However, it is necessary to consider why the research findings produced no differences on the variables measured. There are several possibilities as one begins to speculate on this question. An obvious possibility is that the differences exist outside of the ten variables considered in the life activity pattern assessment, that while one's hours of participation may be similar, one's mode or attitude of participation may be quite different.

Other difficult-to-measure factors of perception may be interrelated. All four groups have been perceived as high success, but the vision of the perceiver was a critical factor in the selection process. Recommendations were made by chief executive officers or their designated representatives. The age bracket was purposely left open to allow for differences to become clear in these perceptions. Interestingly, a majority of the males recommended as high-economic success were over the age of 45 years old. A majority of women, on the other hand, who were recommended

as high-economic success were under the age of 45 years old. Perhaps we truly are in a period of transition--a period where younger women with different backgrounds, attitudes, and modes are moving into success-acceptance in ways in which their older sisters were not able. Perhaps these women, after age 45, will move into positions of influence where they will become mentors and gatekeepers in a way which will aid their younger sisters. Or perhaps they also will reach points where the perceptions of "success" which would lead them to higher levels of influence will not as easily be made available to them. Only time can clarify this issue.

Another possible answer in the differences of economic success while there is lack of differences in life activity patterns may lie in the expectation of what is acceptable, either on the part of the individual or on the part of the company. There seemed to be a greater willingness of women to "expect" less and this no doubt could interrelate with an expectation of a company that a woman would accept less. At levels of influence and higher levels of executive status, salaries are not as clearly known and career work requirements are not as easily delineated. Equal work for equal pay becomes an issue whose relevance is much harder to put into concrete terms, especially, when this is often related to seniority, informal networks and opportunities offered.

Networks becomes another area for speculation of differences. Are the informal networks to which the different groups belong allocators of power and status in very different ways? Is it possible for high success women to break into informal systems in a way that these ties can reward them in similar ways to male counterparts? Or is there an informal barrier that social change has not been able to as adequately assess and penetrate? Of significance is the fact that women themselves have moved to identify and understand the networking process and here perhaps is where some of the greatest hope for equal economic opportunity lies.

#### Life Activity Choices

Study of the life activity patterns of high success persons holds value in providing a possible model to persons aspiring to success levels of various choices and patterns. To understand the pattern of high success is to be able to have the choice to model after it. The clear implication that high financial remuneration is often linked with greater hours invested gives a potential high success person information related to value choices and the tradeoffs or prices attached. Interviews also tended to suggest that the choice of job or career area was important--that higher pay was often more accessible to



persons who were not on a specified income relating to specific set hours.

Choices are also clearly made relating to home/family and private time. Understanding what these choices are should allow one to understand the demands related to different career and income level ambitions and to better evaluate one's willingness to meet these demands.

An interesting factor is that there are demands for some form of balance in the life activity patterns of all four groups. This is noted in the areas of recreational and social activities. Interestingly, this was not a significant area where choices were made to "cut back," even though there clearly could have been this possibility.

In understanding the life activity patterns of high success persons as they are reported, it then becomes possible to postulate choices which might be available either to persons who are aspiring to high success, to persons desiring to move positionally between non-economic success and high economic success, or to persons feeling some levels of dissatisfaction and desiring to make some shifts in life activity patterns in order to obtain greater satisfaction levels.

There are limited hours, a reality that has to be dealt with. A clear values assessment would be wisely called for. It is recognized, of course, that there are

individual exceptions to all statements about groups. However with the group profile showing definite "trade-offs," one might ask: 1) Am I willing to forego hours with my family or private time in order to have higher economic income?, and 2) Are there other choices that I could make, for example, would I be willing to adjust social or recreational time in order to spend more time with my family or for private replenishment?

An interesting finding is that because of the limited hours, high success persons have seemingly developed an ability to "over-lap" and operate on multiple levels. In other words, there is a vertical "stacking" of activities as well as the horizontal activity that involves the time-line limitation of only 24 hours in a day. This kind of planning can be systematically done by persons aspiring to success which gives them, in effect, access to greater numbers of hours. Again a values scan seems appropriate when determining where the overlap will occur. For example, will this be in areas designed to promote greater income and business success (such as social or recreational activities planned with potential clients) or will this be in areas designed to promote other value priorities (such as a recreational outing including the family)?

It is possible for a success-oriented person to image or project the areas that are going to be complementary to

one's value choices and then develop those areas in one's life. If, for example, one is interested in high economic success and also desires active involvement in recreational activities, an advantageous choice for recreational skill development might be in an area that could be participated in with a business associate, such as golf, tennis or racquetball. For women, this knowledge might be important in that women have not been as culturally supported for achievement in sports or for skill development in these areas. For women this might also give an added dimension in the area of exposure to learning competitive skill, as well as giving them more access to areas more often participated in by males. It is clear, however, that society is in a period of cultural change and some of the sex related stereotypes are gradually becoming less applicable.

The development of support systems is clearly a very important choice for success oriented women and especially high economic success oriented women. These support systems were observed in the form of household help, child care persons, support groups of peers in organizational improvement, mentors and even therapists. The built-in support systems of high economic success women as compared to high economic success men were often lacking the "full-time at-home wife" which more often was found in the life of the high economic success male. It thus becomes a

necessary choice for the high economic success woman to build that support system in other ways. Interestingly, another group lacking in support systems, and perhaps the group most lacking, is that of the non-economic success men. This will be discussed further in suggestions for further research.

The importance of choices in the educational area also become evident in the large number of non-economic success women who are involved in playing educational "catchup" in areas less traditionally open to women (for example, business). This is also seen in the higher involvement of high economic success women as compared to high economic success men. Appropriate choices should be made earlier so that "re-educating" or "catchup" does not become so commonly necessary. This may indicate a need for better career education and counseling at both the high school and college level as well as in human resource development areas of businesses.

Finally, there are some noted differences in the area of attitudes. A question arises here with regard to whether the situation promoted the attitude or whether the attitude promoted the situation. There does seem to be a sufficient possibility that attitudes can influence situations. It is believed that the wise success-motivated person would choose to recognize this potentiality and give

positive and constructive attitudinal choices development, strong support and consideration. The attitudes of high success persons are clearly attitudes of people who see themselves as winners.

### Recommendations for Further Research

Interestingly, one of the most startling areas to come out of the research was the attitudes held about themselves by the non-economic success males. These were males identified already as successful (with no economic component requirement) and yet the subjects in this group had difficulty identifying themselves as successful. There seemed to be many underlying feelings of non-success related to some of their life choices for these males. What can be learned about and from this group which virtually still remains unnoticed? The women's movement has given women support (and often resulting feelings of self value) for non-traditional choices. This support does not appear to be available to the non-economic success male. What does the cultural expectation for "money being equated with success" do to self images of males who choose career fields where they can be highly successful though perhaps may not be highly rewarded economically? What do non-economic success males do to themselves that is different than non-economic success females with regard to the "shroud of

silence"? Are sources of support for growth, recognition and esteem thus nullified? What are the positive aspects of this lifestyle that have balanced, for this group, the choice against the cultural norm?

Another area that proved startling was the fact that high economic success women devoted twice the amount of time to health as any other group and revealed in supplementary interview data that this was often in the field of therapy. Are these highly functional women representative of an area of therapy designed to support functional lifestyles rather than to heal dysfunctional lifestyles in a society that has made that necessary due to changing cultural norms? What are the therapy needs and how are they being addressed? How are inadequate systems in the lifestyles of this group failing them? How do therapists work with persons who are, in effect, changing systems?

Additionally, there is a need for more study with regard to how high economic success women live their private lives successfully or nonsuccessfully and how this may or may not be related to their highly effective work role. In this group some of the strongest statements of the price of choices were made in relation to family and significant-other relationships. High economic success women need role models for integration of high economic success with high success as whole persons, including success with significant others in their lives.

Further, the relationship of education to high success may deem further study. The non-economic success women had the greatest involvement in education, while the high economic success men had the least. Is this because inappropriate choices were made more often by women or is the need for "catch-up" education an oversell? Was there educational counseling? What kinds of educational counseling would be appropriate if what exists is not working?

Attitudinal areas also hold interest for further research. Further questions should be asked about what things high success persons are satisfied or dissatisfied with. Are they the same or are they different for men and women and for the economic and non-economic component groups? What creates satisfaction or dissatisfaction and how is that related to life choices? Which comes first--the attitude or the success? A longitudinal study identifying attitudes at entry levels and at intermediate and long-range levels of career success would be valuable, as well as correlation with the "rise rate" itself in relationship to attitudes and career ladders.

In the area of attitudes is a further interesting note in that the perceived problems of non-economic success women move to extremes--problems are perceived either at the highest or at the lowest point on the scale. Does

this relate to the upward shift in the career ladder climb?

The fact that perceived competence is highest in the non-economic success groups also brings to mind further questions. Is it possible that as one moves higher on career ladders that one perceives greater and greater needs for competence? Do over-inflated views of competence keep some groups from moving higher economically? Do feelings of competence get "beaten down" along the path, and if so, is this positive or negative? Or do feelings of competence simply become more realistic?

Further research would also be appropriate in the area of two-career families. How is work vs. family/home negotiated and lived when it is done successfully, or non-successfully? Models for living in areas of one's life other than work would be equally as valuable as role models have been in career related areas.

One of the clearest statements of this study is that success is in the perception. The success was originally in the perception of the person recommending the subjects for the study--this the outer view. The inner view is not as easily defined or identified and is probably always changing. As some successes are accomplished, success becomes redefined in terms of further goals. As some experiences of success are reinforced by the outer, identity



of success becomes stronger. And as some experiences of failure or non-success are experienced either from the inner or the outer, the high success person's own image of self grows in different dimensions or experiences change.

This study has been as fascinating as the lives of the people who have been its subjects. Much is left unsaid even as much is said. Yet, what is obvious is that economic disparity can reflect the mission of human potential. The issue is not just to determine the nature of the pattern. The issue is rather to build the correct pattern. Only men and women working together can replace this disparity with equal opportunity to achieve economic and personal success. From awareness can come choice for action which in turn can produce change. The intention of this study was to make equal opportunity for success more of a reality.

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APPENDIX A

TOTAL NUMBER OF SETTINGS AND PERCENT OF TOTAL SETTINGS  
FOR ALL SUBJECTS FOR ALL AREAS

TABLE 18

TOTAL NUMBER OF SETTINGS AND PERCENT OF TOTAL SETTINGS  
FOR ALL SUBJECTS FOR ALL AREAS

Category Label	Code	Number of Settings	Relative Frequency (Pct)
<u>Area 1: Work</u>			
Interview for Job	101	18	0.4
Primary Employment	102	95	2.2
Second Job	103	39	0.9
<u>Area 2: Education</u>			
No Activity--Education	200	7	0.2
College	203	3	0.1
Graduate School	204	9	0.2
Professional/Continuing Education	205	66	1.5
Vocational Training	206	2	0.0
Lessons	207	9	0.2
Education-Other	208	7	0.2
Homework-Other	209	42	1.0
PTA Meetings	210	9	0.2
Teacher Conferences	211	10	0.2
Library Time	212	22	0.5
Extracurricular	213	17	0.4
Education-Other	214	1	0.0

TABLE 18--Continued

Category Label	Code	Number of Settings	Relative Frequency (Pct)
<u>Area 3: Recreation</u>			
Movies	301	89	2.0
Concerts	302	77	1.8
Plays	303	73	1.7
Dances	304	33	0.8
Restaurants	305	97	2.2
Nightclubs/Disco	306	65	1.5
Fishing	307	25	0.6
Camping/Hiking	308	34	0.8
Picnics/Parks	309	52	1.2
Swimming	310	50	1.1
Tennis/Handball	311	59	1.3
Biking/Jogging	312	54	1.2
Spectator Sports	313	66	1.5
Playing on Team	314	18	0.4
Recreation-Other	315	50	1.1
Skiing-Snow	316	18	0.4
Boating	317	28	0.6
Golf	318	16	0.4
Flying	319	3	0.1
Horseback Riding	320	8	0.2

TABLE 18--Continued

Category Label	Code	Number of Settings	Relative Frequency (Pct)
Vacation	321	80	1.8
<u>Area 4: Social</u>			
Visiting Friends	401	98	2.2
Parties	402	79	1.8
Playing Cards	403	32	0.7
Visiting the Sick	404	28	0.6
Informal-Other	405	8	0.2
Church	409	51	1.2
Boards, Meetings	410	59	1.3
Business Organizations	411	54	1.2
Charity Organizations	412	20	0.5
Service Organizations	413	21	0.5
Professional Organizations	414	44	1.0
Special Interest Organ.	415	29	0.7
Formal-Other	416	15	0.3
<u>Area 5: Public Organizations</u>			
Public Organ.-No Activity	500	38	0.9
Government Offices	501	43	1.0
Employment Offices	502	1	0.0
Police, Legal	504	8	0.2
City, City Government	505	8	0.2

TABLE 18--Continued

Category Label	Code	Number of Settings	Relative Frequency (Pct)
Public Boards	506	11	0.3
Political Organizations	507	22	0.5
Public Organ.-Other	508	9	0.2
<u>Area 6: Health</u>			
Health-No Activity	600	1	0.0
Physician	601	86	2.0
Dentist	602	93	2.1
Optometrist	603	41	0.9
Psychol/Psychiatrist	604	21	0.5
Private Hospital	605	11	0.3
Public Hospital	606	1	0.0
Dental Clinic	607	2	0.0
Health Activity	611	4	0.1
Sick Care	612	2	0.0
Health-Other	613	9	0.2
<u>Area 7: Commercial/Business</u>			
Grocery	701	92	2.1
Corner Stores	702	49	1.1
Banking	703	84	1.9
Gas Stations	704	91	2.1
Quiktrip	705	45	1.0

TABLE 18--Continued

Category Label	Code	Number of Settings	Relative Frequency (Pct)
Shopping Center	706	96	2.2
Pharmacy	707	66	1.5
Cleaners/Laundry	708	66	1.5
Barber/Beauty Shop	709	89	2.0
Business-Other	710	20	0.5
Hardware Store	711	29	0.7
Book/Art Store	712	30	0.7
<u>Area 8: Family/Home</u>			
Routine Chores	801	100	2.3
Television	802	93	2.1
Visitors	803	90	2.1
Visiting In-Town Relatives	804	53	1.2
Family-Other	805	7	0.2
Visiting Out Town Rel.	806	64	1.5
<u>Area 9: Private</u>			
Reading	901	97	2.2
Thinking/Planning	902	43	1.0
Napping	903	56	1.3
Conversation	904	85	1.9
Gardening	905	59	1.3
Carpentry	906	25	0.6



TABLE 18--Continued

Category Label	Code	Number of Settings	Relative Frequency (Pct)
Hobbies	907	61	1.4
Sex	908	80	1.8
Private-Other	909	35	0.8
Meditation/Prayer	910	25	0.6
<u>Area 10: Transit</u>			
Driving	1001	98	2.2
Riding	1002	57	1.3
Walking	1003	58	1.3
Bus/Taxi	1004	24	0.5
Travel	1005	93	2.1
School Bus	1006	2	0.0
Transit-Other	1007	7	0.2
		4372	100.0
Total			

APPENDIX B

SUPPLEMENTARY DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

TABLE 19

## AGE

Age	Group			
	NESW n = 20	HESW n = 24	NESM n = 21	HESM n = 35
% in Group over Age 40	40%	33.3%	23.8%	74.27%
25-29	2 10%		2 9.52%	
30-34	6 30%	5 20.83%	7 33.33%	7 20%
35-39	4 20%	11 45.83%	7 33.33%	2 5.71%
40-44	5 25%	4 16.66%	1 4.76%	6 17.14%
45-49	1 5%	3 12.5%	1 4.76%	10 28.57%
50-54	2 10%	1 4.16%	3 14.28%	6 17.14%
55 & over	0			4 11.42%

TABLE 20  
EDUCATION

Education	Group			
	NESW n = 20	HESW n = 24	NESM n = 21	HESM n = 35
Did not finish high school		1 4%		
GED				1 2.85%
High school	2 10%		1 4.76%	
Attended college	2 10%	3 12.5%	3 14.28%	3 8.57%
Undergraduate degree	5 25%	6 25%	4 19.04%	6 17.14%
Graduate study	3 15%	4 16.66%	5 23.8%	6 17.14%
Graduate degree	8 40%	10 41.66%	8 38.09%	19 54.29%

TABLE 21  
MARITAL STATUS

Marital Status	Group			
	NESW n = 20	HESW n = 24	NESM n = 21	HESM n = 35
Single (never married)	4 20%	5 20.83%	6 28.57%	6 17.14%
Married	7 35%	9 37.5%	9 42.86%	12 34.29%
Divorced	9 45%	9 37.5%	6 28.57%	15 42.86%
Widowed		1 4.17%		1 2.86%
Separated				1 2.86%

TABLE 22

## CHILDREN

Children	Group			
	NESW n = 20	HESW n = 24	NESM n = 21	HESM n = 35
None	10 50%	13 54.17%	12 57.14%	8 22.86%
1	2 10%	2 8.33%	2 9.52%	6 17.14%
2	4 20%	4 16.66%	6 28.57%	10 28.57%
3	2 10%	5 20.83%		5 14.29%
4 or more	2 10%		1 4.76%	6 17.14%

TABLE 23  
CHILDREN LIVING WITH YOU

Children Living with You	Group			
	NESW n = 20	HESW n = 24	NESM n = 21	HESM n = 35
None	14 70%	16 66.67%	17 80.95%	21 60%
1	2 10%	4 16.67%		5 14.29%
2	4 20%	3 12.5%	4 19.05%	4 11.43%
3		1 4.17%		2 5.71%
4 or more				3 8.57%

TABLE 24

## RACE

Race	Group			
	NESW n = 20	HESW n = 24	NESM n = 21	HESM n = 35
Caucasian	14 70%	20 83.33%	19 90.48%	28 80%
Black		1 4.17%		2 5.71%
Hispanic	1 5%	1 4.17%		
Jewish	5 25%	2 8.33%	2 9.52%	4 11.43%
Other				1 2.86%



TABLE 25  
SELF-EARNED INCOME

Self-Earned Income	Group			
	NESW n = 20	HESW n = 24	NESM n = 21	HESM n = 35
\$10,000-\$11,999			1 4.76%	
\$12,000-\$14,999	4 20%		3 14.29%	
\$15,000-\$19,999	7 35%		4 19.05%	
\$20,000-\$24,999	9 45%		13 61.9%	
\$25,000-\$29,999		6 25%		5 14.29%
\$30,000-\$34,999		6 25%		1 2.86%
\$35,000-\$39,999		4 16.67%		3 8.57%
\$40,000 & Over		8 33.33%		26 74.29%

TABLE 26  
 REPORTED INCOME FROM OTHER SOURCES  
 (can answer more than one)

Reported Income from Other Sources	Group			
	NESW n = 20	HESW n = 24	NESM n = 21	HESM n = 35
Spouse's Income	8 40%	8 33.33%	4 19.05%	2 5.71%
Investment Income	7 35%	15 62.5%	7 33.33%	21 60%
Other	5 25%	2 8.33%		6 17.14%

TABLE 27

## NUMBER OF YEARS IN FULL-TIME WORK FORCE

Number of Years in Full-Time Work Force	Group			
	NESW n = 20	HESW n = 24	NESM n = 21	HESM n = 35
Less than 2			1 4.76%	
2 or 3	2 10%			
4 or 5	1 5%		1 4.76%	
6 to 9	2 10%	4 16.66%	5 23.81%	5 14.29%
10 to 14	8 40%	11 45.83%	9 42.86%	2 5.71%
15 or more	7 35%	9 37.5%	5 23.81%	28 80%

TABLE 28  
 NUMBER OF FULL-TIME JOBS IN YOUR CAREER

Number of Full-Time Jobs in Your Career	Group			
	NESW n = 20	HESW n = 24	NESM n = 21	HESM n = 35
1	1 5%	2 8.33%	3 14.29%	3 8.57%
2	1 5%	3 12.5%	2 9.52%	8 22.86%
3	4 20%	3 12.5%	4 19.05%	8 22.86%
4	7 35%	4 16.67%	4 19.05%	4 11.43%
5 or more	7 35%	12 50%	8 38%	12 34.29%

TABLE 29  
YEARS WITH PRESENT EMPLOYER

Years with Present Employer	Group			
	NESW n = 20	HESW n = 24	NESM n = 21	HESM n = 35
0-5	18 90%	15 62.5%	12 57.14%	11 31.43%
6-10	2 10%	5 20.83%	4 19.05%	7 20%
11-15		2 8.33%	3 14.29%	6 17.14%
16-20		1 4.17%	2 9.52%	4 11.43%
21-25		1 4.17%		3 8.57%
26 or more				4 11.43%

TABLE 30  
 SIZE OF COMPANY  
 (Number of Employees)

Size of Company	Group			
	NESW n = 20	HESW n = 24	NESM n = 21	HESM n = 35
5 or less	9 45%	6 25%	2 9.52%	8 22.86%
6-25	2 10%	5 20.83%	5 23.8%	5 14.29%
26-50	1 5%	2 8.33%		4 11.43%
51-100	1 5%			1 2.86%
101-500	3 15%		3 14.29%	3 8.57%
Over 500	4 20%	11 45.83%	9 42.86%	13 37.14%
Don't Know			2 9.52%	1 2.86%

TABLE 31  
 ORGANIZATIONAL INVOLVEMENT  
 (answered more than one indicating numbers)

Organizational Involvement	Group			
	NESW n = 20	HESW n = 24	NESM n = 21	HESM n = 35
None	1 5%		5 24%	1 3%
Social	8 40%	11 46%	1 5%	32 91%
Business/ Professional	64 320%	77 321%	34 162%	82 234%
Civic	12 50%	26 108%	6 29%	57 163%
Political	7 35%	9 36%	2 10%	10 29%
Religious	3 15%	5 21%	9 43%	16 46%
Other	2 10%		2 10%	1 3%

TABLE 32  
PLEASURE DERIVED FROM WORK

Pleasure Derived from Work	Group			
	NESW n = 20	HESW n = 24	NESM n = 21	HESM n = 35
Work & Pleasure are One	8 40%	7 29.17%	4 19.05%	17 48.57%
Work Affords Above Average Pleasure	8 40%	17 70.83%	8 38.1%	15 42.86%
Work Affords Average Pleasure	3 15%		4 19.05%	1 2.86%
Work Affords Below Average Pleasure	1 5%		3 14.29%	1 2.86%
Work & Pleasure are Separate & Distinct	0		2 9.52%	1 2.86%



TABLE 33

## HAVE YOU HAD SIGNIFICANT MENTORS OR ROLE MODELS

Have You Had Sig- nificant Mentors or Role Models	Group			
	NESW n = 20	HESW n = 24	NESM n = 21	HESM n = 35
None	1 5%	3 12.5%	3 14.29%	7 20%
1	5 25%	4 16.67%	5 23.81%	4 11.43%
2	4 20%	3 12.5%	4 19.05%	9 25.71%
3	5 25%	5 20.83%	2 9.52%	10 28.57%
4 or more	5 25%	9 37.5%	7 33.33%	5 14.29%

TABLE 34

HOW DO YOU RATE YOUR SATISFACTION  
WITH YOUR CAREER PROGRESS?

How Do You Rate Your Satisfaction with Your Career Progress?	Group			
	NESW n = 20	HESW n = 24	NESM n = 21	HESM n = 35
Very High	8 40%	15 62.5%	5 23.81%	16 45.71%
High	7 35%	3 12.5%	8 38.06%	14 40%
Average	4 20%	6 25%	6 28.57%	5 14.29%
Low	1 5%		1 4.76%	
Very Low			1 4.76%	

