ANALYSIS BY A CONSTRUCTED TYPOLOGY OF
FAMILY MEMBERS' VALUES EVIDENT IN MANAGERIAL
DECISION SITUATIONS

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ABSTRACT

ANALYSIS BY A CONSTRUCTED TYPOLOGY OF FAMILY MEMBERS' VALUES
EVIDENT IN MANAGERIAL DECISION SITUATIONS

by Esther A. Martin

This study was performed as Phase II of a Michigan
Agricultural Experiment Station project of the Department
of Home Management and Child Development of Michigan State
University entitled "Values Underlying Managerial Decisions
in the Family." Phase I explored the values of groups of
wives, using a projective story completion instrument to
gather data and a constructed typology as a conceptual sys-
tem to identify and classify values. The present study,
Phase II, explored the values of the entire family, using
the same projective device and conceptual system developed
in Phase I.

The projective stories, built around a set of fam-
ily decision situations, were administered to 51 families
comprised of husband, wife and children between the ages
of 12 and 18. Simultaneously, in their own homes, respond-
ents from each family wrote completions to the stories.
Questions at the end of each story, "What should be done?"
and "Why?" guided respondents to express their "conceptions
of the desirable which affect choices among possible courses
of action"--the definition of values chosen for the master
project to distinguish values from a host of related concepts.

Values identified and classified by the constructed typology consisted of four value types: traditional, social, autonomous, and change-prone, which were developed for twelve themes. The classified values were used to construct a composite value profile for each respondent. The values were further analyzed by type and by family role for stories and themes and by commonality in the family.

On a continuum of composite value profiles ranging from traditional to autonomous, husbands' profiles were about equally distributed in each direction from the center point, but wives' profiles were largely at the autonomous end. Sons' and daughters' profiles fell toward the center point, with sons' tending toward traditional and daughters' toward autonomous. More younger sons had predominantly traditional profiles than had any other age group of any role. Husband-daughter and wife-daughter pairs had the most profiles alike and wife-son pairs, the fewest. Husband-wife pairs had the fewest predominantly traditional profiles and husband-son pairs, the most.

Of total values coded, 42 percent were traditional and 54 percent autonomous; only 4 percent were social and less than 1 percent change-prone.

Themes predominantly traditional were control of child's behavior (for all roles); social organization (for wives and daughters); mobility, mode of child's control, and form of response (for sons and daughters); and scope of wife's time alternatives (for husbands only).

Themes predominantly autonomous were division of work (for all roles); control of adult son and emphasis (for all roles but sons); mobility and mode of child's control (for husbands and wives); kinship and material possessions (for wives and daughters); and scope of wife's time alternatives (for daughters only).

Patterns of commonality varied among families in quantity and in roles holding common values.

Consequences of holding different types and holding common or disparate values are yet to be investigated. A conclusion may be drawn that no one person can be the indicator of values for the entire family since each role appears to have characteristically different value types. Numerous hypotheses are suggested by this exploratory investigation. To mention a few: Husbands, wives, sons and daughters tend to have characteristically different value profiles. Quantity of value expression is a function of role and of type. The higher the level of education, the more autonomous values an individual will hold.

Values and other related concepts such as interests, preferences and desires are conceptually distinct entities. Operationally maintaining this distinction is important in value research.

ANALYSIS BY A CONSTRUCTED TYPOLOGY OF FAMILY MEMBERS' VALUES

EVIDENT IN MANAGERIAL DECISION SITUATIONS

By

Esther Alice Martin

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Man differs from other animals in that he can think and express himself symbolically, can store ideas and conceptions in his mind and, through imagination, can think of the future and what it should be and organize his life toward bringing it about. Man is also social and interacts with the society in which he lives. His closest relationships are with his family, a small group which interacts within the home as well as with the larger society. How do values relate to the nature of man and the management of his home?

As early as 1938, Frank said:

> If we are to gain an understanding of home management, we must see homemaking in the context of the family life to which it is primarily oriented. . . . Homemakers can be helped to discover the ideas and the concepts and the values which they will attempt to realize as members of the family.[1]

Relationship Between Values and Home Management

The field of home management is concerned with the family and its present and future oriented, purposive

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[1] Lawrence K. Frank, "The Philosophy of Home Management," Home Management Papers, Seventh International Management Congress (Washington, D.C.: National Management Council, 1938), p. 3.

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behavior. The formulation of family goals, and the selection and organization of resources and courses of action to attain these goals, are all key decision-making activities of home management. Underlying all management is a set of values. Management causes action to take place and values of the family are closely related to directing and controlling that action.

Home management is distinguished from other areas of management primarily by its concern with the family. The values of all the family group influence the goal formation and creation of ways and means to achieve goals. The Cornell Value-Study Group says that "values appear as the criteria against which goals are chosen, and as the implications which those goals have in the situation."[1]

Since the family is composed of individuals, the values of the family may include, not only those ascribed to by the entire family, but also values held solely by individual family members. The realization of values through decision-making and action determines the well-being of the family. Woodruff says:

. . . the determination of what constitutes well-being is a function of the concepts of the individual and especially of his value concepts. In any situation the individual will attempt to satisfy his needs in a manner designed to promote to the fullest those conditions of living which he deems

[1] Glenn H. Beyer, Housing and Personal Values, Cornell University Agricultural Experiment Station Memoir 364 (Ithaca, New York, July, 1959), p. 4.

essential to his well-being.[1]

Perhaps the most important and inseparable relation-ship of values to home management is their function in choice-making or decision-making, an integral part of all manage-ment. Values influence choice of goals (ends), choice of resources (means) to use in achieving goals, and also the choice of ways (modes) of carrying out the action. Values function as criteria or normative standards by which these family choices are evaluated and, as such, bring about rec-ognition of the implications of the situation and the range of means and ends that are acceptable to choose from. Smith writes about this cognitive quality of values which leads to choice and commitment, yet permits flexibility in use:

> Values characterized by what I am calling self-requiredness . . . are standards that may be im-plicit, but, in any case, are accessible to con-scious formulation. They are actively embraced by the person and thus become constituents of the self, part of what the person feels himself to be and to stand for. Characteristically their appli-cation involves . . . finely differentiated cogni-tive discriminations . . . and they can therefore be applied with more flexibility, appropriateness, and rationality. . . . Since they are integrated in the self rather than sealed off in an infantile form, they are open to progressive modification and elaboration. They are sustained by the indi-vidual's active commitment to them as the values that he chooses to live by.[2]

Management depends upon the ability of the person

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[1]Asahel D. Woodruff, "The Concept-Value Theory of Human Behavior," _Journal of General Psychology_, XL (1949), p. 152.

[2]M. Brewster Smith, "Personal Values in the Study of Lives," _The Study of Lives_, ed. Robert W. White (New York: Atherton Press, 1963), p. 338.

to consciously recognize his objectives, in fact, to choose them, and to devise ways and means of achieving them which are compatible with his values and then to adapt his ways and means flexibly as situations change, but in harmony with his values. Perhaps even the objectives change as the situation changes. The most stable element in the management situation would seem to be the values to which the individual is committed.

Since the home is the place where socialization of the child begins, usually a goal of management is to arrange for experiences that develop and perpetuate values. Smith describes some of the limitations and possibilities that values impose upon carrying out this goal:

> If you want to persuade someone to value something as you do, you can follow one of at least two strategies: First, you can try to open his eyes to new ways of seeing things—increase the range of possibilities of which he is aware, create the conditions for differentiations and restructurings in his experience from which it is possible (not necessary) that, seeing things like yourself, he may come to value them likewise. Or, second, you can give him evidence that the position he takes on a particular value has consequences for other values to which he is also committed. For the fact that values rest on a personal option does not make them arbitrary in the sense of being detached from cause or consequence. . . . Since values rest on personal option, no argument is conclusive, though many can be persuasive, and appropriately so.[1]

Since the present study concerns the values of the family and its individual members, some discussion of the

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[1]M. Brewster Smith, "Mental Health Reconsidered: A Special Case of the Problem of Values in Psychology," American Psychologist, XVI (June, 1961), p. 302.

need for study of family values follows.

In the field of home management, belief prevails that choices in decision-making situations in the family are based on common values in the family. As Henle points out:

> The family is a little hearth around which values center. The family is an intimately integrated group of people among whom there must be an acceptance of values, to a large extent, of common values.[1]

Coyle also supports the existence of a family value system which influences the behavior of the group:

> The value system is the pattern of values that evolves out of the group's life. It determines the norms of behavior for group members and for the group as a whole. . . . Each person has a system of values as part of his heritage, values he has taken on largely from his own family, from prestige figures, and from his social environment.[2]

Inasmuch as decision-making is the core of management, it is of utmost importance to know more about the family value system influencing decision-making within the family. Deacon and Bratton emphasize the need to recognize and appreciate the family value system:

> Since evaluation of relative success in the process of management depends upon a clear conception of the goal or goals to be achieved, the recognition and appreciation of the underlying individual or family values has considerable significance. From a management standpoint, it might be

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[1]R. J. Henle, *S.J.*, "Intellectual Elements in Home Economics Education," *Journal of Home Economics*, LII (January, 1960), p. 10.

[2]Grace L. Coyle, "Concepts Relevant to Helping the Family as a Group," *Social Casework*, XLIII (July, 1962), p. 353.

hypothesized: Individuals or families who have developed or recognized a system of values which provides a basis for selection among attainable goals will experience more satisfaction in their management activities than those who have not.[1]

This research was conducted as Phase II of a Michigan Experiment Station project of the Department of Home Management and Child Development at Michigan State University. The master project is entitled "Values Underlying Managerial Decisions in the Family." The general purposes of this project were to carefully select a definition of values that would distinguish them from a host of related concepts and to attempt to identify family values. In Phase I, Engebretson[2] developed a projective story completion instrument to gather data and constructed a typology as a conceptual system to identify and classify values. She explored values of groups of wives, using these instruments. Phase II, using the same projective device and conceptual system, explored the values of the entire family.

Assumptions and Objectives

Assumptions

This study is based upon the assumptions that:

1. The decision situations in the incomplete

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[1]Ruth E. Deacon and Esther Crew Bratton, "Home Management: Focus and Function," _Journal of Home Economics,_ LIV (November, 1962), p. 763.

[2]Carol L. Engebretson, "Analysis by a Constructed Typology of Wives' Values Evident in Managerial Decision Situations" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Department of Home Management and Child Development, Michigan State University, 1965).

stories will evoke value responses.

2. The selected decision situations in the instru-
ment will not presume to elicit the entire value
system of a respondent or family.

Objectives

Three objectives were formulated to give direction
to the study:

1. To elicit values of individuals in the family
and of the entire family by means of a story
completion instrument.

2. To identify values and determine value types
of family members by means of a constructed
typology and compare values and types within
the family and among the total group of families.

3. To explore further: (a) the story completion
instrument as a productive device to elicit
values, both quantitatively and qualitatively;
and (b) the typology as a conceptual system
used to identify, structure and analyze value
responses.

Due to the meager knowledge available in this area
of study, formulating hypotheses would not be meaningful
at this stage of the investigation. However, the research
is expected to generate hypotheses as an outcome.

Selected Definition of Values

Values are conceptions of the desirable which

obligate and commit the person or group who holds them; as such, they may be considered normative standards and rules, or pattern principles which guide selection and choice among perceived alternatives. As conceptions, they are expressed symbolically by word or act. They are involved in defining purpose, in guiding action, and in evaluating results.

The foregoing view of the relation of values to action is in harmony with the views of a number of writers from the fields of sociology, philosophy and psychology. According to Kluckhohn:

> A value is a conception, explicit or implicit, distinctive of an individual or characteristic of a group, of the desirable which influences the selection from available modes, means, and ends of action.[1]

And Jacob and Flink state that values are:

> The normative standards by which human beings are influenced in their choice among the alternative courses of action which they perceive.[2]

Thus, they show a point at which the influences take place and imply that the courses of action are limited or controlled by the perception of the actor as well.

Although Kluckhohn expresses the cognitive and the

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[1]Clyde Kluckhohn and others, "Values and Value Orientations in the Theory of Action," Toward a General Theory of Action, eds. Talcott Parsons and Edward Shils (Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1954), p. 395.

[2]Phillip E. Jacob and James J. Flink with the collaboration of Hedvah L. Shuchman, "Values and Their Function in Decision-Making," Supplement to the American Behavioral Scientist, Vol. IX, No. 9 (May, 1962), p. 10.

affective in his phrase "conception of the desirable,"
Williams is more explicit in this respect and yet includes
the idea of a standard for action: "Values are meaningful,
affectively invested pattern principles that guide human
conduct."[1]

Smith brings in the idea of commitment and, in
addition, reconciles the social origin of values with the
possibility of individuality:

> We have values, in the sense of personal standards
> of desirability and obligation. We see them, now,
> as committing choices that people make (often un-
> wittingly) in the interplay of cultural tradition
> and individual experience. . . . [Although] values
> are social products, they rest, ultimately, on
> personal commitment.[2]

From the field of philosophy, Taylor makes a con-
tribution with a point of view somewhat different from the
view, often taken by philosophers, that values are absolutes:

> When 'value' is used as a substantive and we talk
> of a person's 'values,' I suggest that the word
> refers to three sorts of things--the value judg-
> ments and prescriptions accepted by the person as
> being justified (whether or not he has ever in fact
> tried to justify them); the standards and rules
> which the person would appeal to if he were asked
> to justify his value judgments and prescriptions;
> and all other standards and rules which constitute
> the value systems the person has adopted, con-
> sciously or unconsciously. Thus a person's values
> include all the standards and rules which together
> make up his way of life. They define his ideals
> and life goals (to fulfill the standards; to fol-
> low the rules). They are standards and rules ac-
> cording to which he evaluates things and prescribes

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[1]Robin M. Williams, "Value Orientations in American
Society," Social Perspectives on Behavior, ed. Herman D.
Stein and Richard A. Cloward (Glencoe, Illinois: The Free
Press, 1958), p. 289.

[2]Smith, "Mental Health Reconsidered," op. cit., p.
302.

acts, as well as the standards and rules he tries
to live by, whether or not he is aware of them.[1]

Stein and Cloward cite the many areas of pertinence
of values as well as reiterating their conceptual property
and their relationship to action:

> Values determine the choices men make, and the ends
> they live by. What is considered good and what is
> evil; what is right and wrong, success and failure,
> what is important and unimportant, desirable and
> undesirable, beautiful and ugly, all are value
> questions. Whether the values lie in the realm
> of ethics, economics, aesthetics, or religion,
> they exist as they are experienced in human minds
> and translated into human action.[2]

Although human activity, the area in which values
apply, is sometimes considered difficult to investigate
scientifically, values are researchable. Eames expresses
it:

> In the case of a valuational situation . . .
> concern is with human activity . . . which is
> directed toward what shall or should or ought
> to be done. . . . The same kind of logical deter-
> minations of definition, classification, discrim-
> ination, and symbolization apply to valuational
> behaviors as to other scientific subject matters.[3]

For this study, as in Phase I, conducted by Enge-
bretson,[4] values are considered to be conceptions of the

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[1]Paul W. Taylor, _Normative Discourse_ (Englewood
Cliffs: Prentice Hall, 1961), p. 297.

[2]Herman D. Stein and Richard A. Cloward (eds.),
Social Perspectives on Behavior (Glencoe, Illinois: The
Free Press, 1958), p. 263.

[3]Morris S. Eames, "Valuing, Obligation, and Evalu-
ation," _Philosophy and Phenomenological Research_, XXIV
(March, 1964), p. 323.

[4]Engebretson, _op. cit._

desirable which affect an individual's choices among pos-
sible courses of action. As conceptions, they are experi-
enced in the minds of individuals but may be socially shared.
They are often implicit. As conceptions of the desirable,
they have cognitive and affective qualities as well as
commitment and so pertain to beliefs of what <u>ought</u> or <u>should</u>
be. As normative standards which guide conduct they influ-
ence choice, not only of ends of action, but also of means
and modes of action.

CHAPTER II

RELATED RESEARCH

Research reviewed in this section will be divided

into three categories: homemaker's values, family's values,

and other related research.

Homemaker's Values

Three studies with homemakers as respondents were

conducted by Ketchum,[1] Dyer,[2] and Kohlmann.[3]

Ketchum's general purpose was "to gain some degree

of knowledge about the level of homemaker's awareness of

the value content in their everyday lives." More specif-

ically, she wanted to compare the homemakers' values as

reflected in reasons given for their daily activities with

their ranking of twelve selected values to see whether they

had the same hierarchical pattern. Values were considered

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[1]Frances N. Ketchum, "A Study of Homemaker's Values
as Reflected in Time Used for Family and Personal Activi-
ties" (unpublished Master's thesis, Department of Home Man-
agement and Child Development, Michigan State University,
1961).

[2]Doris M. Dyer, "Students' Wives Values as Reflected
in Personal and Family Activities" (unpublished Master's
thesis, Department of Home Management and Child Development,
Michigan State University, 1962).

[3]Eleanore L. Kohlmann, "Development of an Instrument
to Determine Values of Homemakers" (unpublished Ph.D. dis-
sertation, Department of Home Economics Education, Iowa
State University of Science and Technology, 1961).

"directors of managerial choices." Her sample consisted
of homemakers with families who were volunteers from a Home
Demonstration Group.

She used both rank order and forced choice tests
to determine the relative importance to the individual home-
maker of twelve selected values, namely: security, influ-
ence, recognition, helpfulness, freedom, new experience,
friendship, family life, religion, orderliness, wealth,
workmanship.

The homemakers' activities, reasons for these ac-
tivities and statements concerning their satisfactions with
these activities were obtained by two open-end questions:
"How did you use your time yesterday—from the time you
got up until you went to bed?" and "Why did you use your
time this way?"[1]

The number and kinds of values reflected in the
reasons were categorized by the researcher, and relation-
ship between these and the rank ordering and forced choice
were compared, using the Spearman Rank Order Correlation
Coefficient. High correlation found between the rank order
and forced choice tests leads one to assume that they may
be used interchangeably. However, the coefficient of cor-
relation between values reflected through reasons given
for activities and values selected in the forced choice
test was much lower, perhaps due to the difficulty mentioned
by Ketchum in classifying reasons according to the selected

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[1]Ketchum, op. cit., p. 20.

value categories and also by the somewhat limited ability of the homemakers to verbalize reasons for their use of time. Nevertheless, this investigation contributes knowledge and research techniques to family value study.

Dyer[1] also proposed to explore and identify the values of homemakers through their expressed reasons for their day-to-day family activities and by comparison of the hierarchy of their values by three research techniques. Her sample consisted of student wives. To bring the values chosen for study to the level of awareness, she used a rank order test. Nine values similar to Beyer's[2] were included: health, family centrism, aesthetics, economy, education, religion, freedom, friendship, and prestige. These values were defined and made explicit by reference to family activities. Nine projective stories were developed from descriptive statements concerning each of the values. The statements were classified into value categories by three graduate students working independently before they were incorporated into the stories. Each story concerned what a homemaker did, why she did it and some of her feelings and beliefs about her management.

In addition, the homemaker was asked to record her day-to-day activities with reasons for doing each. Nine envelopes were labeled for the nine values and the homemaker

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[1]Dyer, op. cit.

[2]Beyer, op. cit.

was asked to place her activities and their accompanying reasons in the envelope in which she thought they belonged. Having the homemaker herself categorize her reasons overcame a limitation reported by Ketchum: the difficulty the researcher encountered in classifying the responses in value categories. The validity of results may also have been increased by this device.

The Spearman Rank Order Correlation indicated the highest correlation between projective stories and categorized reasons, and the lowest correlation between rank order test and categorized reasons. Categorized reasons were ranked by the quantity the homemaker placed in each category, whereas the rank order test and the projective stories were ranked by the homemaker's selected ordering. Dyer came to the conclusion that the more projective the instrument, the more likely it is to reveal values underlying the homemaker's behavior.

Kohlmann[1] developed a forced choice instrument to determine the values of homemakers. She agreed with the definition given by Kluckhohn[2] and accepted it for her study. From an extensive list of values investigated in previous studies, she selected eight values deemed to be consistent with the definition; however, there seemed to be no explanation as to how they met the criteria of the

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[1]Kohlmann, op. cit.

[2]Kluckhohn, op. cit., p. 395.

definition. Behavioral descriptions of homemakers, believed to reflect the eight values, were developed from professional and non-professional literature, from talking to professionals who worked with homemakers, and from actual observations of homemakers. Each descriptive item was directed toward one of the values included in the study. Four judges sorted the items according to the values believed to be represented and discarded ones on which three of the four judges failed to agree, thus insuring a greater degree of validity.

Social acceptability of items was controlled by having graduate students rate the items on a five-point scale, after which items were paired so that each value was paired an equal number of times with each other value and that the two items in a pair had as nearly equal social acceptability as possible. Although the number of values investigated was limited, an effort was made to have as many phases of the homemaker's behavior related to each value as possible in the eighty-four paired items.

To this researcher it seems that the directions given in the introduction to the paired statements would not assure value responses in keeping with the chosen definition. The questionnaire asks, "Which of these two statements most nearly describes what you actually do or would do if you had the opportunity?" Thus an expression of preference is given, rather than of the "preferable" or "desirable," as Kluckhohn's definition specifies. Kohlmann's thesis contains an excellent and extensive review of literature.

Family's Values

Studies of family values include five in which parents and one or more of their children of varying ages were respondents and two studies with teen-age respondents.

One of the first research studies to investigate similarity of values among family members was conducted by Fisher.[1] Questionnaires were answered by college students in the classroom and then students were asked to take copies for their parents to answer on a voluntary basis. Relatively few parents returned completed questionnaires, so only about half of the men and women students had data from both parents. No family represented had children of both sexes.

Both the terms value and attitude were used and distinguished thus by Fisher:

> The words attitude and value will be used merely to designate the two different sets of data from the two inventories used [Watson Survey of Public Opinion and Allport-Vernon 'Study of Values']. . . . The use of the two terms does not reflect a contention on my part that fundamentally different neuropsychic entities are involved. If any distinction is to be made, the term value might be taken to refer to the more generalized trait, or the neuropsychic organization itself, while the term attitude would refer to the positive or negative motor (or 'mental') orientation toward objects or events of the class with which the organization is concerned. Values could not be observed directly; they would of necessity be reconstructed

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[1] Sara C. Fisher, Relationships in Attitudes, Opinions, and Values Among Family Members, University of California Publication in Culture and Society, II (1948), 29-100.

from observed attitudes and choices.[1]
However, the findings from the Allport-Vernon "Study of Values" test seem most pertinent to review in relation to the present study. Scores represented measures of relative strength of six types of values: theoretical, economic, aesthetic, social, political, and religious. Differences in values by sex were about equal in magnitude to differences by age. Mothers and daughters exceeded fathers and sons in aesthetic, social, and religious values, while the men exceeded the women in theoretical, economic, and political values. With religious values, sex differences surpassed age differences. With respect to correlations, of the five relationship pairs (father-mother, father-son, mother-son, father-daughter, mother-daughter), mothers and daughters showed the highest degree of correspondence. Son-mother resemblance was lowest. Daughters resembled both parents more than sons did, and at the same time sons resembled fathers slightly more than they did mothers.

Although the Allport-Vernon test measures consistently expressed preferences which may or may not be convictions of the preferable, it contributes valuable information about the resemblance of preference behavior among family members.

Few value studies have included all members of the

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[1]Ibid., pp. 31, 33.

family as respondents. A study by Cutler[1] included all children over ten years of age as well as other persons living in the household from three social prestige levels varying in composition from those with single women to those with parents and one to ten children. Her aims were to develop a self-teaching home values test which would aid in discovering and thinking through the values of functional importance to the individual in choice of a home. Definition of a home value was, "a condition of the home which offers an individual or a family maximum enhancement of home life." The ten values which she selected for use in her research included beauty, comfort, convenience, location, health, personal interests, privacy, safety, friendship, activities, and economy.

These were described as if each were an isolated entity in order to facilitate comparison of that value with every other value. Comparison was made of: (1) "first thought" rank order placement of the ten values, called verbalized values for convenience; and (2) rank order placement of the values resulting from preferences in paired comparisons, called functional values.

The family met together as a unit and in the presence of the researcher each person aged 10 years or over worked independently in completing a copy of the home

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[1]Virginia F. Cutler, *Personal and Family Values in the Choice of a Home*, Cornell University Agricultural Experiment Station Bulletin 840 (Ithaca, New York, November, 1947).

values test. Questions and comments were encouraged.

The wives had the highest correlation between ver-
balized and functional values; the lowest correlation was
in the group 12 years and under. Husbands, teen-agers,
and the group as a whole had middle-range correlations.
Cutler suggests that differences would be expected at dif-
ferent levels of maturity.

Due to the heterogeneity of the family compositions,
the comparison of values seems to be between husbands, wives,
and children of dissimilar ages grouped by sex or age but
not related to their own families.

However, the family ties were maintained in the
value pattern profiles Cutler made for each family, show-
ing the relative importance of the separate values of an
individual and the position of each of his values in rela-
tion to those of the other members of his family. She
found that family members were more likely to agree on
the most important and on the least important values than
on the ones in between. She believes this test is sensi-
tive to individual differences and identifies each member
by role.

The family groups compared were husbands and wives,
fathers and children, and mothers and children in each of
the social classes. The correlations between verbalized
and functional values for the husbands and wives were .36,
.38, and .55 from the upper class to the lower class. For
the fathers and children they were .11, .35, and .31 for

upper, middle and lower classes respectively. And for the mothers and children the correlations were .39, .42, and .37. Other comparisons were made between those with the same role but in different classes and between nonkinship groups.

Conner, Greene and Walters[1] sought to find the extent of agreement among family members on conceptions of "good" parent and child roles. If "good" is equivalent to "desirable," then their research can be considered a value study. Respondents were tenth grade high school students and both parents of these students. Each subject was asked to choose five statements from a set of 10 for each of three categories, describing the "good" father, mother, and child. The set of 10 statements were derived from replies of college women and their parents to an open-end questionnaire asking, "What are five things a good mother (father, child) does?" Each family member's conception of a good mother, a good father, and a good child was classified as traditional, intermediate, or developmental, using Duval's designation of traditional if it was "what used to be expected" or was rigidly conceived, and developmental if it emphasized growth and development rather than specific behavioral conformities. These classifications have points in common with the traditional and

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[1]Ruth Conner, Helen F. Greene, and James Walters, "Agreement of Family Member Conceptions of 'Good' Parent and Child Roles," Social Forces, XXXVI (1958), pp. 353-358.

autonomous value types (see pp. 50-51) in the present study.

Their findings supported observations in clinical experience, that: (a) members of the same family have different conceptions of what constitutes "good mother," "good father," and "good child," roles, (b) greater agreement exists between the conceptions of husbands and wives than between fathers and their children, and (c) greater agreement exists between conceptions of mothers and their children than between fathers and their children. The authors state that the data fail to support an earlier observation that women tend to be more developmentally oriented than men.

Values of other family members as well as the homemaker were sought in Kohn's study[1] in which father, mother and fifth grade child were interviewed. Unfortunately, data concerning the child do not appear in the report. Kohn selected Kluckhohn's value definition[2] as a basis. A card listing 17 characteristics of a child considered highly desirable by other parents was offered the respondents. They were asked to choose those few which they considered most important for a child of a given age. The characteristics selected are interpreted by the researcher as indicating values of the person selecting them. The

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[1]Melvin L. Kohn, "Social Class and Parental Values," American Journal of Sociology, LXIV (January, 1959), pp. 337-351.

[2]Kluckhohn, op. cit., p. 395.

father's values were similar to those of the mothers, with few exceptions. Kohn plausibly says that limiting the respondents' choice to particular characteristics denied them the opportunity to select others they might consider more desirable. In answer to the question of whether it is wise to accept the parent's assertion of a value, he says that if we can ascertain that parents act in reasonable conformity to the values they assert, we gain confidence in assertions as indicators of values. However, his research did not presume to test this hypothesis.

Motz[1] devised a role conception inventory as a tool for research in social psychology. Her study focused on the way married student couples conceived husband and wife roles. It has bearing on value research because the statements in the instrument were intended to be presented in such a form as to permit judgment of value rather than fact. She says that persons with decidedly different conceptions may agree on statements of fact whereas they probably would not agree on desirables. The statements were developed from preliminary interviewing with an open-ended questionnaire and participant observation. All but six of the 24 statements had "should" as a key word. Without the "should," the remaining six might elicit responses

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[1]Anabelle B. Motz, "The Role Conception Inventory: A Tool for Research in Social Psychology," American Sociological Review, XVII (August, 1952), pp. 465-471.

indicative of mere preference or desire rather than of the desirable, or values as defined in the present study. This distinction, important to the present study, is not always made by value researchers and theorists. However, if values are "conceptions of the desirable which influence action" and normative standards by which choices are evaluated, inclusion of the words "should" and "ought" will make more certain that statements will elicit value-laden material.

Motz used an inventory rather than a scale to study contradictory or confused role conceptions which could hardly be ascertained were scalability the aim. The respondents' conceptions of role were limited to the statements presented. Scoring indicated the relationship of numbers of statements indicating belief in companionship husband-wife roles to numbers of statements indicating traditional husband-wife roles. Further differentiation was made between the public (applying to all husbands and wives) and the personal (applying to responding pair only) conceptions of role. These classifications were empirically devised. This Role Conception Inventory seems adaptable into a useful tool for value research.

Teen-agers responded to questions about their family life to provide data for a study by Slocum and Stone[1] to develop a method for use in evaluating the extent of

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[1]W. L. Slocum and Carol L. Stone, "A Method for Measuring Family Images Held by Teen-Agers," Marriage and Family Living, XXI (August, 1959), pp. 245-250.

the influence of selected family values, standards, and interaction patterns upon the attitudes and conduct of teen-agers.

In construction of an instrument for measuring family images held by teen-agers, statements were assembled relevant to four aspects of family life: (1) the extent to which democracy is used in the family, (2) the extent of cooperation in the home, (3) the fairness of discipline in the home, and (4) the degree of affection existing in the family. Then judges evaluated the classification of items into the four categories. But it is the next step, intended to ascertain the acceptability ratings of the statements used in the test, that seems to ascertain values as well and is therefore pertinent to value research as defined in this study. The directions given to a cooperating eighth grade group were:

> The following is a list of items which describes various traits of family life. We are asking for your help in finding out how desirable or undesirable you think each of these traits is for a wholesome American family. Please rate each item according to the following scale:
>
> 1. Very desirable
> 2. Somewhat desirable
> 3. Somewhat undesirable
> 4. Very undesirable[1]

The items so rated were used in a questionnaire from which students chose the statements which described their families as they saw them, resulting in the family

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[1]Ibid., pp. 246, 247.

image held by the teen-ager. Comparison of these findings with a delinquent behavior scale showed a relationship between the images which teen-agers have of their families as reference groups and conduct. Had they compared with what they felt a family "should" be, the findings no doubt would be values comprised in the family image.

A Puerto Rican study[1] focused upon three themes to explore the question: "To what extent have the family values of Puerto Rico changed from values like those of other Latin Americans to more Americanized values?" A Mexican study by Diaz Guerrero[2] represented the Latin American values. Values were stated rather than defined. By American values, the authors meant emphasis upon commercial and economic pursuits, increased competitive individualism, more equalitarian relationships between the sexes, and espousal of political and social democracy.

According to Diaz Guerrero, family values in Mexico were based upon:

> The unquestioned and absolute supremacy of the father and the necessary and absolute self-sacrifice of the mother . . . these two fundamental propositions in the family derive from the general

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[1]Ramon Fernandez-Marina, Eduardo D. Maldonado-Sierra, and Richard D. Trent, "Three Basic Themes in Mexican and Puerto Rican Family Values," The Journal of Social Psychology, XLVIII (1958), pp. 167-181.

[2]Rogelio Diaz Guerrero, "Neurosis and the Mexican Family Structure," American Journal of Psychiatry, CXII (1955).

existential value orientations, or better, gen-
eralized sociocultural assumptions which imply
an undubitable, biological and natural superior-
ity of the male.[1]

Data were collected from a sample of Puerto Rican
teen-agers, all of whom were unmarried freshmen at the Uni-
versity of Puerto Rico.

The three primary themes selected for study included:
(1) family affectional patterns, (2) family authority pat-
terns and (3) the differential evaluation of the status
of the sexes. The latter two may have points in common
with two themes in the present study, control of child's
behavior, and social organization.

The ten open-end questions used in the Mexican study
were adapted and extended to 123 declarative sentences to
be answered by yes or no. There was some confusion both
in the questionnaire and in the discussion between what
"is" and what "ought to be." Only part of the questions
and statements seemed to be couched in the value language
of "should" and "ought" so there is some question as to
whether this instrument consistently elicits values as de-
fined in the present study.

The researchers suggest that differences in find-
ings between the two studies may be due to dissimilar sam-
ples rather than real differences in belief. This might
be amended to say that real differences in belief may exist

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[1]Ibid., p. 411.

but between the samples rather than the countries. Possibly differences were also due to difficulty in accurately comparing the results of the two instruments.

However, they found that Puerto Ricans still tended to hold the concept of male superiority and male dominance. Also, there seemed to be a clash between mainland American and Latinized family values in Puerto Rico, and a trend toward more Americanization of beliefs. Fewer Puerto Ricans than Mexicans agreed with the statement that the place of women is in the home; but over two-thirds said that men should "wear the pants in the family." Even so, there seemed to be a trend toward believing the family should be more democratic. In the area of children's control, Puerto Ricans did not agree that strict parents made good children, yet more than half said children should be obedient to their parents.

Other Related Research

A long list of preference studies could be cited. But since people often prefer what is preferable and desire what is desirable, the distinction between the two is not always made and both are sometimes labeled value studies. However, the distinction is necessary in the definition of values accepted for this study. An important part of the definition is its focus on conceptions of the desirable that affect an individual's choices. Smith[1] speaks of the

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[1]Smith, "Personal Values in the Study of Lives," op. cit., p. 332.

"objective" requiredness of the desirable (ought) as compared with the merely desired (want).

Morris and Jones' cross-cultural study appears to gather preference data. They did use value language of "should" and "ought" in describing the "Ways to Live" which, as they said, "represent conceptions of the desirable life as embodied in the main religious and ethical traditions." However, their directions call for an expression of preference. They instruct:

> Remember that it is not a question of what kind of life you now lead, or the kind of life you think it prudent to live in our society, or the kind of life you think good for other persons, but simply the kind of life you personally would like to live.[1]

Value analysis of unstructured material is necessary in some value research. It serves to organize material elicited by a projective type test. Benner[2] used a special technique for this purpose. The analyzer expressed the values found in the response in phrases and sentences and then classified them under large headings, such as, family, education, occupation, money and saving, religious and moral issues, recreation, interpersonal relations, and other. To check the validity of the values expressed by the

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[1]Charles Morris and Lyle V. Jones, "Value Scales and Dimensions," Journal of Abnormal Social Psychology, LI (1955), pp. 523-535.

[2]Norma Benner, "The Development and Use of a Projective Type Test to Determine Values of Students from Varying Social Classes" (unpublished Master's thesis, School of Home Economics in the Graduate School, Southern Illinois University, 1963).

analyzer, a 5 percent random sample of the value-analyses were submitted to a jury of three graduate students trained in the value analysis technique.

In order to compare values there must be some uniformity of expression. Heal's[1] research shows a reason for material being noncomparable. Heal asked students in two eleventh grade classes of two socio-economic groups to give their definitions of value and to list at least 10 specific values they considered most important as a guide in their daily living. Their definitions varied widely, falling into the following groupings: (1) stuff that the minister says is good, (2) what a man gets for his crops, (3) the labor union, and (4) important things in life. Although many of the same specific values were listed, the meaning and importance of these were not the same for the two groups. For example, faith ranked high in both groups but the lower socio-economic group was divided about equally between faith in a Higher Power and faith in a certain individual. In the other group faith meant faith in God. Categories for the replies were devised from the empirical data. One might question how the values could be compared since the value definitions of the individuals who gave them varied widely.

A study coherent in theory, definition of value,

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[1]Florence L. D. Heal, "Values in a Group of Lower Socio-Economic Students," Marriage and Family Living, XXII (November, 1960), pp. 370-372.

data collection and analysis was executed by Scott to assess the values of three different groups: adults in a university community, students in the university, and students in a minority sect religious college. Scott[1] used an open-end method of data collection because "it had the advantage of permitting expression of a limitless variety of values, so that the researcher can determine empirically just what standards of 'goodness' or 'rightness' are expressed voluntarily by members of a given population."[2] Thus it was an appropriate instrument to explore values defined as "an individual's concept of an ideal state of affairs or relations among people, which he uses to assess the 'goodness' or 'badness,' the 'rightness' or 'wrongness' of actual relations which he observes."[3] Scott also called values an "abstract standard for judging concrete actions."

From categories of values developed from the first fifty interviews, a set of eighteen traits the subject admired in other people was selected and described to form a typology for coding data of this study. Reliability was assessed: (1) from the extent to which two different coders agreed in inferring a particular value from a response, and (2) by the degree to which respondents mentioned the

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[1]William A. Scott, "Empirical Assessment of Values and Ideologies," American Sociological Review, XXIV (June, 1959), pp. 299-310.

[2]Ibid., p. 301.

[3]Ibid., p. 301.

same value in two successive interviews. Scott used the typological method to categorize and simplify complex data.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY AND ITS CONCEPTUAL BASIS

In this chapter are definition of terms; selection of sample; collection of data including the instrument and its administration; and the analysis of data including the typology, coding and analytical procedures.

Definition of Terms

For the purpose of this study and to be consistent with the first phase of the project, the terms were defined in this manner:

Values are conceptions of the desirable which affect an individual's choices among possible courses of action and refer to an individual's coded responses to the incomplete stories by position on the typology.

Story refers to one of the ten incomplete stories.

Type refers to one of the four large categories of the typology: traditional, social, autonomous, or change-prone.

Theme refers to the twelve subject matter content classes of the typology: two of which were general and coded from every story response and ten of which were specific and coded only where this content was evident in the story responses.

Typology refers to the descriptions of the forty-eight value positions organized by type and by theme constructed for analyzing the responses to the incomplete stories.

Composite value profile refers to the calculated symbolic representation of an individual's total values showing the proportionate strength of each type coded in the individual's responses. The details of calculation are explained on pages 47 and 48.

Family refers to the related husband, wife, and child respondents.

Role refers to husband, wife, son, or daughter. Although it is recognized that husbands and wives are also fathers and mothers to their sons and daughters, for simplicity they are designated in one capacity only.

A value held in common or common value refers to a value coded identically for two or more family members from the story completion responses.

Selection of Sample

Rationale

For this exploratory study, a non-probability sample was used. The sample consisted of 51 families with husband, wife and children between the ages of 12 and 18, from an area in the vicinity of Lansing. The prevalence of well-educated, professional people in this area increased the probability that they would be especially able to express their thoughts in writing. The lower age limit for

the children was 12, an age at which it seems reasonable
to expect ability to complete a written response and to
be concerned with the decision situations presented. Eight-
een was the upper age limit, to ensure that the child still
would be an intact member of the family group.

Choice of a community with similar socio-economic
levels and limiting the age range of the child respondents
decreased the number of variables, thus increasing the homo-
geneity of the sample.

Criteria

The sample chosen met these specifications: (1)
that the families be unbroken, that is, both parents living
at home, (2) that each family include one or more children
between the ages of 12 and 18, (3) that families be willing
to cooperate with the study and able to be at home together
to respond at the same time, (4) that at least 50 families
complete responses. In addition, an attempt was made to
have approximately the same number of children of each age
and sex.

Mechanics

The school principal in the selected area allowed
use of the school records to obtain names, addresses and
telephone numbers of parents and the birth dates of child-
ren in grades seven to twelve which included both junior
and senior high school. Care was taken to have boys and
girls of each age from 12 to 18 represented about equally.

Other than meeting the criteria for the sample, the names were taken in alphabetical order from each grade, starting at the beginning of the alphabet for two grades, at the end for two and in the middle for two. For the twelfth grade, it was necessary to take all the 18-year-old boys to have a margin for refusals. One hundred fifty names were drawn to ensure responses from at least 50 families.

Names were arranged according to the age and sex of the child, rather than by grade, making 14 categories. Beginning with the first names on the lists, the families were contacted by telephone in order to explain the study and make an appointment for an interview with those families agreeing to cooperate. As different ages of sons or daughters were needed to balance the number in each category, they were called in the order they appeared on the list.

Ninety-two of the 150 families were called before 51 agreed to participate. In the 51 families were 24 sons and 27 daughters from the names drawn from the school records. In addition, in these same families, there were 21 more sons and 19 more daughters in the specified age range, bringing the total sample of children to 45 sons and 46 daughters. Because of selectivity, the ages and sexes were fairly evenly divided with not less than six nor more than eight in each age and sex. Together with the 51 wives and 51 husbands, a total of 193 respondents resulted.

Collection of Data

The Incomplete Stories

Data were collected by presenting to the respondents a set of 10 incomplete stories, each of which described a family situation requiring decision-making. The respondents were directed to write completions to the stories, including in them their own conceptions of what should be done and why. The stories were devised by Engebretson[1] to meet these criteria: (1) the decisions concern the whole family, (2) the decisions be major ones which most families might face, (3) the situations be meaningful to the respondents, and (4) the decisions require deliberation. And further, variables were reduced by constructing the stories about a single hypothetical family as it progresses through stages of its life cycle. The stories may be found in the Appendix.

Inasmuch as values are conceptions and are not directly observable, they must be expressed before they can be identified by a researcher. Also, an effort must be made to get an expression of implicit as well as explicit values. The incomplete stories are a projective instrument encouraging the respondents to judge the decision situations and express their beliefs about desirable courses of action. When they appear in writing they are not always explicit; the researcher must often infer values from their symbolic expressions. Goldschmidt and Edgerton support the inference

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[1]Engebretson, op. cit.

of values from symbols:

> If expressions of behavior are considered symbolic,
> then that which they symbolize is considered pres-
> ent. The participant in a culture does not ordin-
> arily make the decision between the symbol and
> reality.[1]

Another research problem is to elicit values in
such a manner that they may be classified and compared.
Home management studies have attempted to elicit values
by grouping questions around resources[2] and around reasons
for activities.[3,4]

Wheelwright and Eames point out the need for con-
nection of values to the situation in which they occur,
giving reason for centering research around common situa-
tions so that responses may be comparable:

> To make values explicit is to give them a rela-
> tively abstract formulation; they still, however,
> derive concrete significance from their imagined
> exemplifications. . . . Values cannot be reduced
> to a common denominator. . . . Family happiness . . .
> in spite of the identical words by which our lin-
> guistic poverty forces us to describe it, does not
> always mean the same thing. Family happiness may
> mean any number of things; so may success, and
> honor—although these different meanings have, of
> course, an intelligible bond of unity . . . the

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[1]Walter Goldschmidt and Tobert B. Edgerton, "A Pic-
ture Technique for the Study of Values," American Anthro-
pology, LXIII (February, 1961), p. 26.

[2]Pamelia Lott Millar, "A Pilot Study of Patterns
in Home Management over a Period of Three Generations in
a Selected Group of Families" (unpublished Master's thesis,
Department of Home Management and Child Development, Mich-
igan State University, 1959).

[3]Dyer, op. cit.

[4]Ketchum, op. cit.

abstract values that serve as the logical ground
of the comparison are continuous with, and inter-
active with, the concrete particulars that serve
as its starting point.[1]

The connection of an event to its conditions and
consequences is important in all fields of sci-
entific study, including the field of value.[2]

Closely connected with controlling the research

situation so that comparable results may be obtained is

the danger of limiting the responses. Scott suggests a

solution:

. . . an open-question measure . . . has the ad-
vantage of permitting expression of a limitless
variety of values, so that the researcher can de-
termine empirically just what standards of "good-
ness" or "rightness" are expressed voluntarily by
members of any given population.[3]

The wide range of responses to a uniform situation

may then be categorized for analysis and later may serve

as a basis for formulation of a more concise type of ques-

tionnaire which would be easier to administer, suitable

to a more varied group of respondents, and more quickly

analyzed for larger samples.

The incomplete stories served as a projective de-

vice allowing freedom to express a quantity and range of

values, but they did not presume to elicit the entire value

system. By providing uniform stimuli they were expected

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[1]Philip Wheelwright, A Critical Introduction to
Ethics, Third Edition (New York: The Odyssey Press, Inc.,
1959), p. 8.

[2]Eames, op. cit., p. 325.

[3]Scott, op. cit., p. 301.

to cover similar parts of the respondents' value systems and to elicit values in such a manner that they could be classified and compared. By connecting the responses to real situations, values operating in daily life are more apt to be expressed.

Care must be taken in value research to elicit responses indicating the "desirable" and not merely the "desired." Concern is with the desirable as each individual or group of individuals see it for themselves. This is more than what they desire, an expedient or emotive want; it is a more general class serving as a criterion or standard which includes cognitive as well as emotive aspects and by which desires may be measured and inhibited or promoted. Therefore, the questions at the end of each story, "What should be done?" and "Why?" were included to lead the respondent to express his conceptions of the desirable rather than what he or his family have done or felt would be possible in the situation.

The story completions were used by Engebretson[1] with homemakers. She attempted to test the reliability of the stories as a device to elicit values by asking some of the same homemakers to complete the same stories a few months after the first test. Depth interviews were conducted with a part of the sample in an effort to test validity. She judged that validity and reliability were

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[1]Engebretson, op. cit.

satisfactory for an exploratory study of this type. The
present study should provide a further test.

Collection Procedure

After making a telephone appointment for a time
when the family, including the husband, wife and children
between the ages of 12 and 18 could be at home at the same
time, the researcher visited each home to administer the
incomplete stories. Following an introduction and explana-
tion of procedure, the family members separately, but si-
multaneously, wrote completions to the stories. The 10
mimeographed stories were placed two on a page with equal
space for completing each story. Family members chose where
they wished to sit to write their responses, e.g., around
the dining room table, on the floor next to a coffee table,
in an easy chair, etc. Either the husband or the wife,
whoever finished writing first, filled out a separate form
about family demographic data (Appendix, p. 131).

The stories took about 45 minutes to complete.
From one to three interviews were scheduled per day at any
time of day convenient to the family. Two per day was the
goal, until a total of 51 families was interviewed. Data
collection lasted from January 30 to March 18, 1964. The
childrens' after-school activities and the parents' away-
from-home activities in the evening limited the choice of
days and influenced the ease of scheduling interviews.

In nearly all cases, the wife in the family made
the interview appointment. Some wives were able to make

the appointment at the time of the first telephone call
but the majority had to consult their families before they
could be certain of a time when all members of the family
could be together for the time required.

Conditions for collecting the data were standard-
ized by these provisions: (1) the same researcher visited
all the families, (2) the families all responded to the
same set of stimuli, and (3) the researcher made appoint-
ments and presented the story completion instrument accord-
ing to a planned form. Most of the families seemed inter-
ested in the decision-making situations in the stories and
many of them wished to discuss the situations and their
own responses after completing them.

Analysis of Data

The Constructed Typology

The unstructured data from the incomplete stories
were organized and analyzed by means of a typology con-
structed by Engebretson.[1] According to Doby,[2] a constructed
typology "is a purposive planned selection, abstraction,
combination and accentuation of a set of criteria that have
empirical referents and that serve as a basis for compari-
son of empirical cases." Constructed types are analytical
tools. Becker describes the evolution of a constructed

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[1]Engebretson, op. cit.

[2]John T. Doby (ed.), An Introduction to Social Re-
search (Harrisburg: The Stackpole Company, 1954), p. 10.

typology:

> The process begins with a vaguely defined problem,
> the framing of a hypothesis, selective observation
> (and all observation is selective in some sense)
> with reference to it, and eventual construction
> of a type, or a battery of them, that aids in
> further research.[1]

Engebretson hypothesized that an individual's values are organized in a system which will correspond generally to one of four types: traditional, social, autonomous, or change-prone.[2] She developed her typology by working back and forth from empirical data to relevant theory stemming mainly from Becker[3] and Diesing.[4] She noted that the four organizing principles from Becker (interpreted from Thomas and others) of man's search for: (1) security, (2) response, (3) recognition, and (4) new experience were similar in design to Diesing's orders of decision and their underlying principles. From these she constructed the traditional type around productivity and security; the social type around shared experience and response; the autonomous type around economic concerns, recognition and achievement; and the change-prone type around new experience and play.

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[1]Howard Becker, Through Values to Social Interpretation (Durham, North Carolina: Duke University Press, 1950).

[2]Engebretson, op. cit., p. 8.

[3]Becker, op. cit., pp. 3-92.

[4]Paul Diesing, Reason in Society: Five Types of Decisions and their Social Consequences (Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois Press, 1962).

Values comprising these types were developed for a set of family themes common to the four types, by specifying the distinguishing values for each type and theme.

The typology includes two general themes and ten specific themes. The general themes, _form of response_ and _emphasis_, characterize the structure and content of the responses. _Form of response_ refers to kinds of "ought" or "should" statements (logical, prudential, categorical), the range of alternatives considered, the universals present, and the relation of means to ends. More detailed explanations of logical, prudential, and categorical statements as well as of means, modes, and ends, as developed by Engebretson, appear on pages 54-55. Each of the value types has its characteristic description of conceptions of the desirable for _emphasis_. In the _traditional_ type, production, duty, rights and responsibilities, and security are seen as being desirable. In the _social_ type, affection, love, solidarity, and loyalty are of prime importance. The _autonomous_ type emphasizes growth and development, fairness, impartiality, and responsible inner-direction. The _change-prone_ type includes conceptions that means, modes, and ends should be new and novel, with little thought to the consequences.

The other ten themes are specifically related to the decision situations presented in the instrument and were developed from empirical data at the pretest stage in Phase I of the project. These themes are: _focus of_

functional order, concerning the focus around which the
household and its activities ought to be centered; scope
of wife's time activities, i.e., what her activities ought
to include; social organization, the roles of the family
members and their place in the organization of the family
including their power structure; kinship, the ties with
the nuclear and the extended family; division of work, how
work should be divided; material possessions, specifically
the house, car or furnishings: what should be the belief
about possessions, their purpose, use, and care; mobility,
should a move be made or not and why; control of child's
behavior, what should be expected in kinds and results of
control; mode of child's control, how should they be con-
trolled; and last, control of adult son, what is desirable
as to method and amount of control. Each of the themes
above was developed for each of the four types. The typol-
ogy appears on pages 50-53 in its entirety.

The constructed types discussed by Becker[1] and by
Diesing[2] concerned large social issues. The types used
here are limited to values in family situations and are
related to a limited number of themes; nevertheless, they
are sufficiently general to be developed for other themes
for other family choice situations or for other groups.
The same types would be described further to be exemplified

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[1]Becker, op. cit.

[2]Diesing, op. cit.

in each added theme. Two themes, _form of response_ and _emphasis_, are general enough to remain usable regardless of the group being studied. The specific themes and values are developed to be compatible with these two general themes.

Coding the Responses

A coding manual was written for use in both phases of the project. A sample page is included in the Appendix, page 137. Three coders, two Ph.D. candidates in home management and a research technician, were trained. They were each provided with explanations of terms including three types of 'ought' or 'should' statements and modes, means and ends (pages 54-55); a copy of the typology; and examples of actual responses fitting most of the forty-eight value positions of the typology. After trial sessions which continued until agreement between coders was consistently high, the three coders working in teams of two began the final coding. The same coding procedures and coders were used in Phases I and II.

The two general themes, _form of response_ and _emphasis_, were coded by type from each of the ten stories. The 10 specific themes were coded by type from any story completion in which they were found. Analyses by theme, type, and story were made possible by including the coded story source with the type in each theme.

Analytical Procedure

The respondents' coded values were tabulated by

theme, by story, and by family role. Also, composite value profiles were developed for individuals. In addition, common values in the family were explored.

Since the values coded from the families did not, nor were expected to fall into pure types when analyzed by means of the constructed typology, a composite value profile was devised to indicate value types coded for each individual and the relative amounts of each type.

First, the percentage of each type of value was calculated from the tabulated values for each individual. Then an individual's composite value profile was constructed from the percentages using these rules for symbolization:

1. Each type is represented by the letter with which it begins (e.g., traditional, 'T' or 't').

2. A capital letter underlined represents 100 percent of a type or 100 percent minus a trace (less than 5 percent) of some other type (e.g., '_A_').

3. A capital letter or letters represent the predominant type or equally large types (e.g., 'T' or 'TA').

4. A lower case letter underlined indicates that this type is half or more of the predominant type (e.g., 'A_t_,' 'T_a_').

5. Lower case letters represent all remaining types (e.g., 't').

6. Letters are arranged in order of strength of

type (e.g., 'Ts,' 'A̱tsc').

Using these rules, an individual with 50 percent traditional values, 35 percent autonomous values, and 15 percent social values would have the value profile: 'Ta̱s.'

The composite value profiles were arranged on a continuum of seven categories from most traditional to most autonomous:

T̲   Ta,Tas   Ta̱,Ta̱s   TA   Aṯ,Aṯs   At,Ats   A̲

Although few, the social values were included in the groupings, but the very few change-prone values were omitted.

The composite value profiles of each member of a family were placed on the continuum with those of his own family showing graphically the positions of the individual in his family and the proportionate amount of each type for each person.

Comparisons between husbands' and wives' composite value profiles were made by cross tabulations so that the data concerning the members of the same family were always related. This was also done for husband and sons, wives and sons, husbands and daughters, and wives and daughters.

The composite value profiles were used also to compare value positions with variables of education, occupation, income, and age.

A value was considered to be held in common if coded identically for two or more respondents. Since some themes were consistently coded from more than one story and the values coded were sometimes different for the two or more

sources, possibility exists that more themes or variations of the present themes were being discovered. For example, values concerning scope of wife's time alternatives may be different when there is a baby in the family than when the children are older. For this reason, coding was considered identical if two or more members of a family had the same value position on the same theme and story. First, the values common to entire families were analyzed by theme and story. Then, values common to husband and wife, husband and son, husband and daughter, wife and son, wife and daughter, and to the entire family were recorded. These were counted and percentages computed on the total values of individuals in each role and on the total values of all the individuals in each role.

And last, the value patterns of the ten families with one son and one daughter were analyzed. Because of the identical composition of these families, working with this group seemed especially worthwhile. To accomplish this, percentages of the values held in common by combinations of two, three and all four of the family members were compared.

VALUE TYPOLOGY

Themes	Value Positions or Types	
General	Traditional	Social
	Values	
1. Form of response	categorical ends (means and modes elevated to ends), many universals with few alternatives	one categorical end with the range of alternatives limited to means of attaining it
2. Emphasis	production, duty, rights and responsibilities, security, other-directed	affection, love, solidarity, loyalty, inner-other directed
Specific		
1. Focus of functional order	work—household tasks and physical care of family members	affectional relationships, unexpressed meanings and feelings
2. Scope of wife's time alternatives	work of the home	activities which foster family togetherness, family members come before household tasks
3. Social organization	hierarchical roles; e.g., father is head of the family, mother is next in authority, children subordinate	each member considered equal, individuality taken into account
4. Kinship	duty and responsibility ties within nuclear and extended family	warm, close relationships within nuclear family and near relatives

Value Positions or Types	
Autonomous	Change-prone
Values	
logical, prudential or categorical means to logical, prudential or categorical ends (loose structure tied to multiple ends), many alternatives restricted by some universals	fusion of means and ends (impulse to change), alternatives restricted by few universals; e.g., action statements
growth and development, fairness, impartiality, responsible inner direction	the new and the novel, little thought to consequences, inner direction
control, discussion, equal opportunity, responsible self-guidance	individual expression
work or other activity outside the home allowed if home responsibilities are cared for	any combination of time use possible--particularly something new and different
parents as partners, family council with maturer children taking part	no set structure, that structure prevails which suits the mood or situation
continuity and harmony taken for granted in nuclear family; parents may, at times, do things together apart from the children	limited involvement with kin, individuals often go their separate ways

Specific	Traditional	Social
5. Division of work	husband is economic provider, wife is responsible for work of the home, family and work roles learned by apprentice-like experience	informal division of responsibilities, co-operation and reciprocation important, 'help each other out' attitude fostered
6. Material possessions: house, car or furnishings	attached to possessions (possessions give security), people take care of 'things,' quality and appearance to others considered	possessions secondary to people, children permitted to use the furniture, possessions are for the enjoyment and satisfaction of the family members
7. Mobility	move from known locality and family feared	move is all right if it fosters family solidarity or if family decides together to move
8. Control of child's behavior	parents exact obedience from their children, embarrassing consequences often considered	child taught those rules which enable him to get along with others
9. Mode of child's control	shaming, stern reprimands, or physical punishment; e.g., spanking	discipline the child by removing him from the company of others; e.g., ignore him or put him in a room alone
10. Control of adult son	either exact obedience or no control; e.g., either make son finish school before marrying or uninvolved in it	emotionally supportive; e.g., encourage or assist to marry if he is in love

Autonomous	Change-prone
planned division of labor to make fair distribution according to the needs of family members, some techniques advocated; e.g., schedules	little integration of responsibilities, specialties may be emphasized, extreme division of labor may on occasion be used
possessions are regarded as tools to help family attain growth and development purposes in addition to enjoyment and satisfaction; many plans and alternatives seen for use, acquisition and replacement	new and different possessions are prized but little attachment to 'things' as such; e.g., a house is thought of as something that can be easily acquired, sold or exchanged
pros and cons considered, move considered favorable for growth experience of family members particularly if husband is promoted	move considered highly desirable for the newness and variety it involves-- in people as well as situations
appropriate correction made for specific misdeeds, child taught to be self-regulating and responsible, parents try to understand child	child allowed to express himself; consequently, he has little correction
discipline according to the act, reason with; e.g., discuss the 'why' or remove a privilege	no punishment or maybe according to the mood; e.g., a parental emotional outburst
counsel with him to be sure he has considered consequences and responsibilities	support him in and encourage him to enter new situations, family welcomes new members

Definitions: Mode, Means, and Ends

Mode - Values referring to ways of acting, manner of
carrying out an action itself whether it be conceived
as a means or as an end; style in which an instrument
is used; an approved or preferred style or manner in
which an act is to be carried out or an object made.

Means - Values referring to instrumental character of
what is desirable; that which is done for the sake of
something else and not for itself alone; an instrument
for the shaping of something else.

Ends - Values referring to what is done for itself and
not for the sake of something else; aims and virtues
which societies and individuals make for themselves;
intrinsicness.

Moral, prudential and logical 'ought' or 'should' statements

Wheelwright divided 'ought' or 'should' state-
ments into three categories--moral, prudential, and
logical.[1] Since the respondents will be asked "what
should be done," analyzing the responses according to
these distinctions will be possible. Such an analysis
would help place the responses according to type. Ex-
planations of the distinctions follow:

Moral - Moral statements refer to human conduct and
express a categorical imperative which is unconditional.
"A homemaker should stay home and take care of the baby"
is an unconditional categorical imperative. Numerous
categorical statements about the modes, means and ends
of action would indicate the traditional type because
this type emphasizes stability and adherence to pre-
scription. A few categorical statements interspersed
with others would indicate the autonomous type which
emphasizes a loose structure tied to some unchanging
ends. The recurrence of the one imperative about the
mode of solving a family problem, "Do what the family
together decides they want to do," would indicate the
social type which emphasizes the persons of the family.
Or the occurrence of the imperative, "Do what is dif-
ferent" would indicate the change-prone type which
emphasizes the novel.

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[1]Wheelwright, op. cit., pp. 9-10.

Prudential — Prudential statements also refer to human conduct but are not unconditional--they are conditional upon a wish. A generalized example is "If you want to . . . Then you ought to do . . . " The end is not prescribed. But given an end, then the steps to reach it follow in order. Since these statements are not imperatives and allow openness in the solution of problems and the selection of ends, they would indicate the autonomous type.

Logical — Logical 'ought' statements do not refer to human conduct and are not imperative. Since the decision stories were constructed around what the family should do, the responses will likely include few of this category. If they do occur, however, they would further indicate the autonomous type.

CHAPTER IV

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLE

In this chapter the families are described as to family composition, age of the family members, occupation of the husbands and of the wives before and after marriage, and education of the husbands, wives, sons and daughters. In addition, a summary of the reasons for the non-participation of contacted families is included.

Size and Composition of the Families

Fifty-one families comprised of the two parents and the children between the ages of 12 and 18 participated in this study. In all, 193 individuals responded.

In these families the 45 sons and 46 daughters were nearly equally distributed in each of the ages from 12 to 18, but irregularly as to number and sex per family (Table 4.1). This meant that some families had no daughters and some no sons. Only the 10 families with one son and one daughter had the sexes equally represented. Three-fourths of the child respondents came from families with totals of two, three, and four children.

The parents' ages ranged from the early 30's to the late 50's (Table 4.2). The largest number of both husbands and wives were in the 40-50 age class. As a group,

Table 4.1. Composition of families by size and role

Size of family[a]	Sons per family	Daughters per family	Number of families	Total sons	Total daughters
3	1		7	7	
3		1	15		15
4	1	1	10	10	10
4	2		5	10	
4		2	5		10
5	3		2	6	
5		3	1		3
5	2	1	2	4	2
5	1	2	2	2	4
6	3	1	2	6	2
Total			51	45	46

[a]By criteria of participation, both parents are included.

Table 4.2. Ages of husbands and wives

Age classes	Husbands		Wives	
	N	%	N	%
30-34	1	2	2	4
35-39	7	14	11	22
40-44	16	31	16	31
45-49	13	25	16	31
50-54	11	22	6	12
55-59	3	6	..	..
Total	51	100	51	100

the husbands were older than the wives.

Occupation of Husbands and Family Income

This sample drew heavily from upper middle class
levels of occupation, income and education. No attempt
was made to secure a sample representative of a given pop-
ulation. Rather, a homogeneous sample of similar socio-
economic levels, well able to express their thoughts in
writing, was deliberately chosen.

The majority of the husbands were occupied profes-
sionally or in managerial capacities (Table 4.3). The re-
mainder were skilled workers or in clerical and sales oc-
cupations. Almost all of the professionally employed,
three-fourths of the skilled workers and a few of those
in clerical and sales occupations had family incomes over
$10,000, together comprising 76 percent of the families.
Only four family incomes were under $7,000.

Occupation of Wives Before and After Marriage

At the time of the study, 69 percent of the wives
had no gainful occupation (Table 4.4). Of the remainder,
over one-third worked in professional occupations, mostly
as teachers. The wives with clerical and sales occupations
were stenographers and secretaries and those in service
occupations, beauticians and practical nurses.

Before marriage 80 percent of the wives were em-
ployed, one-third professionally in occupations such as med-
ical technician, social worker, editor, registered nurse,

Table 4.3. Gainful occupations of husbands

Occupational classes	Number	Percentage
Professional and managerial	39	76
Clerical and sales	4	8
Skilled	8	16
Totals	51	100

Table 4.4. Gainful occupations of wives before and after marriage

Occupational classes	Before		After	
	N	%	N	%
Professional and managerial	16	31	6	11
Clerical and sales	20	39	7	14
Service	4	8	3	6
Skilled	1	2	..	..
No gainful occupation	8	16	35	69
No response	2	4	..	..
Total	51	100	51	100

and teacher and more than one-third in clerical and sales occupations. The remainder were in service or skilled occupations. Almost two-thirds of the wives who were employed before marriage stopped work afterward, whereas only two wives, previously not employed, began working after marriage.

Formal Education of Husbands, Wives, Sons, and Daughters

In this sample, the husbands and wives were more highly educated than would be true of the population in general. As a group, the husbands had more education than their wives, but ranging from completion of eighth grade to attainment of a doctor's degree (Table 4.5). Sixty-three percent of the husbands were college graduates. Of these, 18 percent held master's degrees and 14 percent doctor's degrees.

Of the wives, only one had less than a high school education, 39 percent were college graduates and 8 percent held master's degrees. For the sons and daughters the education ranged from eighth to twelfth grade, with the exception of a son and a daughter who were high school graduates.

Non-Respondents

Thirty-nine of the families contacted did not participate in the study (Table 4.6). In the interests of facilitating future studies, the reasons for refusal are given.

Although the wife often reported that other members of the family were too busy, she never said she herself

Table 4.5. Education of husbands and wives

Educational class	Husbands		Wives	
	N	%	N	%
8th-11th grade	4	8	1	2
H.S. graduate	8	15	16	31
1-3 years' college	7	14	14	28
Bachelor's degree	16	31	16	31
Master's degree	9	18	4	8
Ph.D. degree	7	14	..	..
Total	51	100	51	100

Table 4.6. Reasons given by non-respondents for refusal to cooperate in the study

Reason		No. of families
Too busy		12
Children	3	
Father	5	
Mother	-	
Whole family	4	
Can't get family together		10
Don't want to be bothered or involved		8
Have just helped with another research project		1
Parents separated		2
Illness		4
Illiterate in English		2
Total non-respondents		39

was too busy. The reason "can't get the family together"
may have been closely related to "too busy," but often meant
that the wife thought family members would have time but
not simultaneously. The reason "don't want to be involved"
may have included suspicion of the unknown, in addition to
a statement that the husband "didn't take kindly to these
things."

The marital status of two of the families had changed
since information was supplied for the school records; hence
they were ineligible for the study. Illiteracy was limited
to two cases, but in a study with less educated respondents,
more individuals would fall into this category. Therefore,
another method of gathering data, or another form of the
same method, would have to be devised.

CHAPTER V

FINDINGS

In analysis of data, counts were made of coded
values by type, story, theme, role, age, education and
occupation. Percentages were calculated and used to for-
mulate composite value profiles according to the procedure
shown on pages 47-48 and in accordance with the definition
on page 34. These profiles were used to compare respond-
ents by age, income, education and occupation of husband
and wife, and by role in the family. Also, values shared
by family members were tabulated and analyzed by story and
theme, by paired roles and by patterns of common values
in selected families.

Discussion of the findings is arranged by frequen-
cies of the coded values by family role and type; composite
value profile analysis; story analysis; theme analysis;
and common value analysis.

Frequency of Coded Values by Role and Type

The number of values coded for each individual
ranged from 23 to 34 with a mean of 29 (Table 5.1). Sons
had the fewest values coded for them and wives the most.
The means of the sons' coded values were 27 for the three
youngest ages, 12 to 14, and 29 for the three oldest ages,

Table 5.1. Number of coded values per respondent by role

Number of coded values per respondent	Frequency by role									
	Husbands		Wives		Sons		Daughters		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
23-26	4	8	1	2	13	28	3	6	21	11
27-30	39	76	37	72	27	60	35	76	138	71
31-34	8	16	13	26	5	12	8	18	34	18
Totals	51	100	51	100	45	100	46	100	193	100

16 to 18. Frequency counts of values per person for husbands and wives by age, education, income and occupation showed little variation.

Further, the counts of values by type were tabulated by role. The counts of type by story and by theme including three categories of theme by role are discussed in the story and theme analyses.

Of the total coded values from the responses, 54 percent were autonomous and 42 percent traditional (Table 5.2). Only 4 percent were social and still fewer, less than 1 percent, were change-prone. Classifying the values by role and type showed the wives with twice as many autonomous as traditional, whereas the husbands', daughters', and sons' values were more equally divided between autonomous and traditional. Daughters and husbands had a few more autonomous than traditional values coded for them.

Table 5.2. Coded values by type and by role

Type	Husbands N	Husbands %	Wives N	Wives %	Sons N	Sons %	Daughters N	Daughters %	Total N	Total %
Traditional	646	44	485	32	647	51	575	43	2353	42
Social	73	5	48	3	49	4	35	3	205	4
Autonomous	749	51	958	64	557	44	715	54	2979	54
Change-prone	4	..	6	1	5	1	2	..	17	..
Total	1472	100	1497	100	1258	100	1327	100	5554	100

Sons were the only ones with more traditional than autonomous responses.

Composite Value Profiles

The composite value profiles show proportionate relationships among value types calculated as described on pages 47-48. Change-prone values, a fraction of 1 percent of the total, were omitted in reporting composite value profiles. Although as few as 4 percent of the values were coded as social, 86 of the 193 profiles included some social values; therefore, they were included in the composite value profile designations. Since the traditional and autonomous values predominated, the profiles were arranged on a continuum ranging from traditional to autonomous:

$\underline{T}$ Ta,Tas   T$\underline{a}$,T$\underline{a}$s   TA   A$\underline{t}$,A$\underline{t}$s   At,Ats $\underline{A}$

By Mean Coded Values

Means of coded values for the respondents in each of the seven composite value profile groups were calculated (Table 5.3). The respondents with the most traditional profiles had the lowest mean number of coded values and those with the most autonomous profiles the highest; however, the difference was slight.

Further analysis explored composite value profiles by role, age, family income, educational level, occupation of husband and wife, and paired roles.

Table 5.3. Mean coded values by composite value profiles

Composite value profiles	Number of respondents	Number of coded values	Mean coded values
T	..	..	..
Ta, Tas	25	672	27
Ta, Tas	35	993	28
TA	34	987	29
At, Ats	46	1321	29
At, Ats	50	1492	30
A	3	89	30
Totals	193	5554	29

By Role

In order to preserve the comparative relationship within families, the composite value profiles of all members of each family are shown in Table 5.4. This table

Table 5.4. Families by composite value profiles

Family	T	Ta,Tas	Ta,Tas	TA	At,Ats	At,Ats	A
1			S	HW			
2				HS		WD	
3					SD	HW	
4			HD	D		W	
5			HS		WS		
6		H		D		W	
7		S	W			H	
8			HD		S	W	
9			S		HD	W	
10				H	WD		
11						HWD	
12			D		HWD		
13		H	WS	S			
14					HD	W	
15					W	HD	
16				S	W	H	
17		H	S		W	S	
18		H		SSD	WS		
19			H		D	WD	
20			W	S	H		
21				S	H	W	
22			WD		H		
23		S		D	H	W	
24				H	WDD		
25						HWS	
26					D	HWD	

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Table 5.4. (continued)

Family	T	Ta,Tas	Ta,Tas	TA	At,Ats	At,Ats	A
27			H	D		W	
28		HS		W			
29			HS	D			W
30			H	WD	S		
31		HS	S	S	W		
32		HSD	SS			W	
33			HS	SD		W	
34		S		HDW	D		
35			S	D	HWS		
36					D	HW	
37		H	D		W		
38		H	S		S	W	
39		S		S		HW	
40			WD	H	S		
41			D		S	W	H
42						WD	H
43			W	S	H	D	
44					D	HW	
45			S	H		W	
46		H			W	D	
47		HD	D	W		D	
48				S	WS	HS	
49		HSDD				W	
50					W	HD	
51			H		W	D	

indicates the number in each family and the roles of family members, as well as the composite value profile of each. Husbands are designated 'H,' wives 'W,' sons 'S,' and daughters 'D.' Similarities and differences within the family as well as between families are evident.

For about half of the families, all the profiles were within three positions on the continuum of seven profile groups. More husband-daughter profiles were the same or adjacent than were wife-daughter or husband-son profiles. Husband-wife and wife-son pairs have the least proximity.

Table 5.5 indicates that approximately half of the individuals in this sample had predominantly autonomous composite value profiles. Husbands' profiles fell about equally in each direction from the center point of the

Table 5.5. Role by composite value profiles

Composite value profiles	Roles									
	Husband		Wife		Son		Daughter		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
T	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Ta, Tas	12	23	..	..	9	20	4	9	25	13
Ta, Tas	9	18	6	12	12	27	8	17	35	18
TA	7	14	5	10	11	24	11	24	34	18
At, Ats	9	18	15	29	10	22	12	26	46	24
At, Ats	12	23	24	47	3	7	11	24	50	26
A	2	4	1	2	..	..	..	..	3	1
Totals	51	100	51	100	45	100	46	100	193	100

continuum, whereas the wives were largely toward the auton-
omous end. Although sons and daughters had more profiles
at the center point of the continuum than their parents,
on the whole, sons' fell toward the traditional end and
daughters' toward the autonomous.

A composite value profile was computed for each
entire family according to the rules for an individual's
composite value profile. However, when extremes within
each family were averaged together, the resulting profiles
fell toward the center of the continuum. With variations
thus reduced, they were of no use in making comparisons
among families.

By Age

Comparison of the composite value profiles of hus-
bands and wives by age revealed that the most autonomous
profiles were from the older age classes (Table 5.6). The
youngest age class of husbands had a larger proportion of
traditional than autonomous profiles.

Younger sons had the most traditional composite
value profiles and older sons the least (Table 5.7). Younger
sons appear to be more traditional in their values than
any other age class or role. Younger daughters had no pro-
files in the most traditional group in contrast to sons of
the same age. Both 17-18 year old sons and 17-18 year old
daughters had a much larger proportion of their profiles
equally traditional and autonomous than did any other age
class of children or parents.

Table 5.6. Ages of husbands and wives by their composite value profiles

	Composite value profiles							
Age classes	T	Ta,Tas	Ta,Tas	TA	At,Ats	At,Ats	A	Total
	N %	N %	N %	N %	N %	N %	N %	N %
Husbands								
30-39	.. ..	2 17	2 22	2 29	.. ..	2 17	.. ..	8 16
40-49	.. ..	7 58	5 56	4 57	7 78	4 33	2 100	29 57
50-59	.. ..	3 25	2 22	1 14	2 22	6 50	.. ..	14 27
Totals	.. ..	12 100 (23)[a]	9 100 (18)	7 100 (14)	9 100 (18)	12 100 (23)	2 100 (4)	51 100
Wives								
30-39	.. ..	.. ..	1 17	1 20	4 27	7 29	.. ..	13 25
40-49	.. ..	.. ..	5 83	4 80	6 40	16 67	1 100	32 63
50-59	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	5 33	1 4	.. ..	6 12
Totals	.. ..	.. ..	6 100 (12)	5 100 (10)	15 100 (29)	24 100 (47)	1 100 (2)	51 100

[a]Percentages in parentheses refer to percentages of the total number of husbands or the total number of wives.

Table 5.7. Ages of sons and daughters by their composite value profiles

Age classes	T		Ta,Tas		Ta,Tas		TA		At,Ats		At,Ats		A		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Sons																
12-13	..	..	5	56	4	33	1	9	..	..	2	67	..	..	12	27
14-16	..	..	4	44	4	34	6	55	6	60	1	33	..	..	21	46
17-18	..	..	..	..	4	33	4	36	4	40	..	..	..	..	12	27
Totals	..	..	9	100 (20)[a]	12	100 (27)	11	100 (24)	10	100 (22)	3	100 (7)	..	..	45	100 (100)
Daughters																
12-13	..	..	..	..	4	50	2	9	5	42	1	9	..	..	12	26
14-16	..	..	3	75	3	38	4	36	6	50	5	46	..	∴	21	46
17-18	..	..	1	25	1	12	5	45	1	8	5	45	..	..	13	28
Totals	..	..	4	100 (9)	8	100 (17)	11	100 (24)	12	100 (26)	11	100 (24)	..	..	46	100 (100)

Composite value profiles

[a] Percentages in parentheses refer to percentages of the total number of sons or the total number of daughters.

By Income

Since the majority of families in this sample had incomes over $10,000, incomes were classed into those over and those under $10,000 (Table 5.8). Higher incomes and predominantly autonomous profiles appear to be related, at least for the husbands. For the two husbands and one wife with the most autonomous profiles, family incomes were over $10,000.

By Education

Table 5.9 indicates a probable relationship between composite value profiles and education for both husbands and wives. The proportion of autonomous values appears to increase with the amount of education. One-fourth of the husbands with less than a college degree had predominantly autonomous profiles as compared to more than half of the husbands with master's or doctor's degrees. However, both the one husband with the least education and one of those with the most had largely traditional profiles.

Wives, high in autonomous values as a group, nevertheless exhibited an appreciable difference between those with less than a bachelor's degree and those with a bachelor's or master's degree. All the wives with predominantly traditional profiles had less than a college degree. All of the wives with master's degrees had 'At' profiles.

By Occupation

Composite value profiles of husbands do not seem

Table 5.8. Family incomes of husbands and wives by their composite value profiles

Family income classes	Composite value profiles													
	T		Ta,Tas		Ta̲,Ta̲s		TA		At̲,At̲s		At,Ats		A		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Husbands																
Below $10,000	..	..	4	33	3	33	1	14	2	22	2	17	..	..	12	24
Over $10,000	..	..	8	67	6	67	6	86	7	78	10	83	2	100	39	76
Totals	..	..	12	100 (23)[a]	9	100 (18)	7	100 (14)	9	100 (18)	12	100 (23)	2	100 (4)	51	100 (100)
Wives																
Below $10,000	..	..	..	..	1	17	1	20	6	40	4	17	..	..	12	24
Over $10,000	..	..	..	..	5	83	4	80	9	60	20	83	1	100	39	76
Totals	..	..	..	..	6	100 (12)	5	100 (10)	15	100 (29)	24	100 (47)	1	100 (2)	51	100 (100)

[a]Percentages in parentheses refer to percentages of the total number of husbands or wives.

Table 5.9. Education of husbands and wives by their composite value profiles

Educational classes	Composite value profiles															
	T		Ta,Tas		Ta,Tas		TA		At,Ats		At,Ats		A		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Husbands																
8th-11th grade	..	..	2	17	2	22	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	4	8
H.S. graduate	..	..	4	33	..	..	2	29	1	11	1	8	..	..	8	15
1-3 years' college	..	..	2	17	1	11	1	14	2	22	1	8	..	..	7	14
Bachelor's degree	..	..	2	17	3	34	3	43	5	56	2	17	1	50	16	32
Master's degree	..	..	1	8	2	22	..	..	1	11	5	42	..	..	9	17
Ph.D. degree	..	..	1	8	1	11	1	14	..	..	3	25	1	50	7	14
Totals	..	..	12	100(23)	9	100(18)	7	100(14)	9	100(18)	12	100(23)	2	100(4)	51	100
Wives																
8th-11th grade	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	4	..	..	1	2
H.S. graduate	..	..	..	..	2	33	2	40	8	53	4	17	..	..	16	31
1-3 years' college	..	..	..	..	4	67	1	20	3	20	6	25	..	..	14	28
Bachelor's degree	..	..	..	..	..	..	2	40	4	27	9	37	1	100	16	31
Master's degree	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	4	17	..	..	4	8
Ph.D. degree	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Totals	..	..	..	..	6	100(12)	5	100(10)	15	100(29)	24	100(47)	1	100(2)	51	100

to be closely related to occupation. However, since 76 percent of the sample were in professional and managerial occupations, too few cases fell in clerical and sales and skilled occupations to merit generalization (Table 5.10).

Table 5.10. Gainful occupations of husbands by composite value profiles

Occupational classes	Composite value profiles													
	T		Ta,Tas		Ta,Tas		TA		At,Ats		At,Ats		A		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Professional & managerial	..	..	8	67	8	89	6	86	6	67	9	75	2	100	39	76
Clerical & sales	..	..	1	8	..	..	..	..	1	11	2	17	..	..	4	8
Skilled	..	..	3	25	1	11	1	14	2	22	1	8	..	..	8	16
Totals	..	..	12	100	9	100	7	100	9	100	12	100	2	100	51	100

For wives working before marriage (Table 5.11), more than half of those professionally employed but less than half of those in clerical and sales occupations had profiles in the two most autonomous profile groups. Proportions were about the same for the fewer wives in the same categories who were employed after marriage. However, the numbers were too small to give more than an indication of possible trend toward autonomous profiles for the professionally employed.

By Paired Roles

In order to discover more about values within the

Table 5.11. Gainful occupations of wives before and after marriage by composite value profiles

Occupational classes		T		Ta,Tas		Ta,Tas		AT,TA		At,Ats		At,Ats		A		Total	
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Professional and managerial	before	..	..	..	..	1	17	2	40	3	20	9	38	1	100	16	31
	after	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	20	1	7	4	17	..	..	6	12
Clerical and sales	before	..	..	..	..	3	50	1	20	7	46	9	38	..	..	20	39
	after	..	..	..	..	1	17	1	20	3	20	2	8	..	..	7	14
Service	before	..	..	..	..	2	33	1	20	1	7	..	..	..	..	4	8
	after	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2	13	1	4	..	..	3	6
Skilled	before	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	4	..	..	1	2
	after	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
No gainful occupation	before	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	3	20	5	20	..	..	8	16
	after	..	..	..	..	5	83	3	60	9	60	17	71	1	100	35	68
No response	before	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	20	1	7	..	..	..	..	2	4
	after	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Totals	before	..	..	..	..	6 100 (12)[a]		5 100 (10)		15 100 (29)		24 100 (47)		1 100 (2)		51 100 (100)	
	after	..	..	..	..	6 100 (12)		5 100 (10)		15 100 (29)		24 100 (47)		1 100 (2)		51 100 (100)	

[a]Figures in parentheses refer to percentages of the total number of wives.

family, husbands' composite value profiles were compared
with those of their own wives, and husbands' and wives'
composite value profiles with those of their own sons and
daughters (Tables 5.12 through 5.16).

In this set of tables the number and percentage
of profiles between the diagonal lines are those which were
alike for the role pair being compared. In the lower right
rectangle are those predominantly autonomous for both, and
in the upper left rectangle, those predominantly traditional
for both. Above the diagonal lines are the profiles in
which one of the pair was more autonomous, and below, those
in which the other was more autonomous.

About one-fifth of the husband-wife value profiles
were alike, but the largest number fell in the section where
the wives' profiles were more autonomous than the husbands'
and the fewest where both have predominantly traditional
profiles.

Of the husband-son pairs, over one-fourth had value
profiles alike. More of their profiles were in the tradi-
tional rectangle than for any other pair, and fewer in the
autonomous rectangle. Both husband-daughter and wife-
daughter pairs had 30 percent of their profiles alike, a
larger percentage than for the other three paired combina-
tions. Husband-daughter pairs had next to the greatest
number of traditional profiles but far fewer than husband-
son pairs.

Fewest profiles were alike for wives and sons.

Table 5.12. Comparison of husbands' composite value profiles with their wives' composite value profiles

Husbands' value profiles	Wives' composite value profiles														Total husbands	
	T		Ta,Tas		Ta,Tas		TA		At,Ats		At,Ats		A			
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
T																
Ta,Tas					1	2	2	4	5	9	4	8			12	23
Ta,Tas							1	2	2	4	5	10	1	2	9	18
TA					1	2	2	4	2	4	2	4			7	14
At,Ats					3	6			2	4	4	8			9	18
At,Ats					1	2			4	8	7	13			12	23
A											2	4			2	4
Total wives					6	12	5	10	15	29	24	47	1	2	51	100

Table 5.13. Comparison of husbands' composite value profiles with their sons' composite value profiles

Husbands' value profiles	Sons' value profiles															
	T		Ta,Tas		Ta,Tas		TA		At,Ats		At,Ats		A		Total husbands	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
T																
Ta,Tas			5	11	5	11	4	9	2	5	1	2			17	38
Ta,Tas					3	7	1	2	3	7					7	16
TA			1	2	2	5	1	2	1	2					5	11
At,Ats			1	2	2	4	2	5	1	2					6	13
At,Ats			2	5			3	6	2	4	2	5			9	20
A									1	2					1	2
Total sons			9	20	12	27	11	24	10	22	3	7			45	100

Table 5.14. Comparison of husbands' composite value profiles with
their daughters' composite value profiles

Husbands' value profiles	Daughters' value profiles															
	T		Ta,Tas		Ta,Tas		TA		At,Ats		At,Ats		A		Total husbands	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
T																
Ta,Tas			4	9	2	4	2	4			2	5			10	22
Ta,Tas					2	4	5	11	1	2	2	4			10	21
TA					1	2	1	2	4	9	1	2			7	15
At,Ats					2	5	3	7	3	6	1	2			9	20
At,Ats									4	9	4	9			8	18
A					1	2					1	2			2	4
Total daughters			4	9	8	17	11	24	12	26	11	24			46	100

Table 5.15. Comparison of wives' composite value profiles with their sons' composite value profiles

Wives' value profiles	Sons' value profiles															Total wives	
	T		Ta,Tas		Ta,Tas		TA		At,Ats		At,Ats		A				
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%		N	%
T																	
Ta,Tas																	
Ta,Tas			2	4			3	7	1	2						6	13
TA			2	5	1	2			1	2						4	9
At,Ats			1	2	4	9	5	11	4	9	2	5				16	36
At,Ats			4	9	6	14	3	6	4	9	1	2				18	40
A					1	2										1	2
Total sons			9	20	12	27	11	24	10	22	3	7				45	100

Table 5.16. Comparison of wives' composite value profiles with their daughters' composite value profiles

| Wives' value profiles | Daughters' value profiles | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | T | | Ta,Tas | | Ta,Tas | | TA | | At,Ats | | At,Ats | | A | | Total wives | |
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
T																
Ta,Tas																
Ta,Tas					2	5					1	2			3	6
TA	1	2	1	2			2	5	1	2	1	2			6	13
At,Ats					2	4	2	4	4	9	4	9			12	26
At,Ats	3	7			3	6	6	13	7	15	5	11			24	52
A							1	2							1	2
Total daughters	4	9			8	17	11	24	12	26	11	24			46	100

Nearly three-fourths of the wives' profiles were more autonomous than their sons', so most of the wife-son profiles were clustered in the rectangle that had traditional sons' profiles and autonomous wives' profiles.

Two-thirds of the wife-daughter profiles which were alike were in the more autonomous groups. Also, more of all their profiles than for any other pair were in the autonomous rectangle. Wives had more autonomous profiles than had daughters.

Story Analysis

The incomplete stories varied in their productivity in eliciting values from the family members. From most to least the stories were ranked as follows by number of coded values for all respondents:

1. Story 3 — children's behavior
2. Story 1 — first baby
3. Story 4 — move
4. Story 10 — son's marriage
5. Story 6 — children in school
6. Story 8 — dishwashing
7. Story 7 — furniture
8. Story 9 — transportation
9. Story 5 — vacation
10. Story 2 — new home characteristics (Table 5.17).

The coded values for each role produced much the same rank order. Stories 3 and 1 were always in first and second place and Stories 4 and 10 in the next two places. Stories 6, 7, 8, and 9 ranked in the fifth to eighth places for all roles but in varying order and Stories 5 and 2 in the last two places (Table 5.18).

The set of incomplete stories may be found in the Appendix, pp. 132-136.

Table 5.17. Coded values by type and by story

Types	Stories																				Total	
	1		2		3		4		5		6		7		8		9		10			
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Traditional	411	63	125	29	423	60	235	41	102	22	232	43	253	47	247	46	144	27	181	31	2353	42
Social	18	3	15	3	25	4	2	..	80	18	13	2	23	4	7	1	1	..	21	4	205	4
Autonomous	223	34	295	68	253	41	344	59	270	60	299	55	250	46	288	53	385	73	372	65	2979	54
Change-prone	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	14	3	1	..	..	..	..	..	17	..
Total	652	100	435	100	702	100	581	100	453	100	544	100	540	100	543	100	530	100	574	100	5554	100
	(12)[a]		(8)		(12)		(10)		(8)		(10)		(10)		(10)		(9)		(10)			

[a]Figures in parentheses refer to percentages of the total coded values.

Table 5.18. Coded values by type, by story and by role

	Stories																				Total	
Type	1		2		3		4		5		6		7		8		9		10			
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Husbands (N = 51)																						
Traditional	123	73	32	28	102	57	44	29	20	16	85	59	65	46	75	50	44	31	56	37	646	44
Social	4	2	7	6	7	4	..	..	41	33	3	2	5	3	3	2	..	..	3	2	73	5
Autonomous	43	25	74	66	71	39	110	71	63	51	57	39	68	48	72	48	97	69	94	61	749	51
Change-prone	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	4	3	..	..	..	..	..	..	4	..
Totals	170	100	113	100	180	100	154	100	124	100	145	100	142	100	150	100	141	100	153	100	1472	100
Wives (N = 51)																						
Traditional	93	55	31	27	86	46	46	29	26	21	46	31	51	34	60	42	28	20	18	12	485	32
Social	7	4	1	1	3	2	2	1	9	7	8	5	12	8	2	2	..	..	4	2	48	3
Autonomous	69	41	84	72	97	52	114	70	89	72	97	64	81	55	80	56	114	80	133	86	958	64
Change-prone	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	5	3	..	..	..	..	..	..	6	1
Totals	169	100	116	100	187	100	162	100	124	100	151	100	149	100	142	100	142	100	155	100	1497	100

Sons (N = 45)

											Totals
Traditional	95 62	30 30	126 77	73 56	32 30	61 50	70 58	56 46	38 33	66 52	647 51
Social	5 3	7 7	6 4	.. ..	22 21	2 2	3 3	.. ..	1 1	3 2	49 4
Autonomous	53 35	64 63	31 19	58 44	51 48	58 48	43 36	64 53	76 66	59 46	557 44
Change-prone	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	1 1	.. ..	3 3	1 1	.. ..	.. ..	5 1
Totals	153 100	101 100	163 100	131 100	106 100	121 100	119 100	121 100	115 100	128 100	1258 100

Daughters (N = 46)

											Totals
Traditional	100 63	32 30	109 63	72 54	24 24	40 31	67 52	56 43	34 26	41 30	575 43
Social	2 1	.. ..	9 5	.. ..	8 8	.. ..	3 2	2 2	.. ..	11 8	35 3
Autonomous	58 36	73 70	54 32	62 46	67 68	87 69	58 44	72 55	98 74	86 62	715 54
Change-prone	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	2 2	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	2 ..
Totals	160 100	105 100	172 100	134 100	99 100	127 100	130 100	130 100	132 100	138 100	1327 100

Coded Values by Type and by Story

Only Stories 1 (first baby) and 3 (children's be-
havior) elicited more traditional values than autonomous
(Table 5.17). Story 5 (vacation) had by far the largest
percentage of social values, although other stories yielded
some. Stories eliciting the greatest proportions of auton-
omous values were Story 9 (transportation), Story 2 (new
home), Story 10 (son's marriage), and Story 5 (vacation).
Most of the change-prone values were coded from responses
to Story 7 (furniture).

Coded Values by Type, by Story, and by Role

Despite the fact that more autonomous than tradi-
tional values were coded for husbands, over half of their
values for Story 1 (first baby), Story 3 (children's behav-
ior), Story 6 (children in school), and Story 8 (dishwash-
ing) were traditional (Table 5.18). Wives, with almost
two-thirds autonomous values, had over 50 percent tradi-
tional values on Story 1 only.

Sons, the one role with more than half of all values
coded traditional, had more traditional than autonomous
values for six of the ten stories. Interesting to note
is that the sons had more autonomous values than their
fathers on Story 8 (dishwashing).

Sons and daughters were slightly more traditional
on Story 4 (move) whereas their parents were predominantly
autonomous on the same story. All roles had predominantly
autonomous values for Story 10 (son's marriage) except sons.

Story 5 (vacation) elicited the most social values from husbands and sons. The wives had more social values on Story 7 (furniture) and daughters on Story 10 (son's marriage) than on Story 5.

Value profiles showing proportionate amounts of each type coded from an individual's total response to a story were computed. Since these value profiles by story and role reveal too few additional results to warrant discussion, they were not included in this report.

Theme Analysis

Since every story was coded for two general themes, form of response and emphasis, equally large numbers of values fell into each (Table 5.19). Because the remaining, more specific themes were not elicited by every story, the number coded for them varied from 371 to 54. However, some of these themes had coding from more than one story source. Themes having multiple source coding were scope of wife's time alternatives, material possessions, and less frequently, division of work. For scope of wife's time alternatives, Stories 1 (first baby) and 6 (children in school) were sources. In addition, while working with the responses and coding them, it appeared that this theme actually had two parts: (1) the wife's time alternatives while the children are small, and (2) her time alternatives after the children are in school. Since respondents apparently had different conceptions of the desirable with respect to each of these situations, they were coded separately.

Table 5.19. Coded values by type and by theme

Types	Form of response N	Form of response %	Emphasis N	Emphasis %	Focus of functional order N	Focus of functional order %	Scope of wife's time alternatives N	Scope of wife's time alternatives %	Social organization N	Social organization %	Kinship N	Kinship %	Division of work N	Division of work %	Material possessions N	Material possessions %	Mobility N	Mobility %	Control of child's behavior N	Control of child's behavior %	Mode of child's control N	Mode of child's control %	Control of adult son N	Control of adult son %	Total N	Total %
Traditional	955	50	701	37	3	6	185	50	39	48	13	22	57	32	95	34	75	42	128	67	52	43	50	28	2353	42
Social	42	2	82	4	12	22	5	1	6	7	19	32	4	2	13	5	1	1	7	4	6	5	8	4	205	4
Autonomous	930	48	1142	59	39	72	181	49	36	45	28	46	114	65	164	58	104	57	55	29	61	51	125	68	2979	54
Change-Prone	2	..	4	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1	9	3	..	..	..	..	1	1	..	..	17	..
Total	1929	100	1929	100	54	100	371	100	81	100	60	100	176	100	281	100	180	100	190	100	120	100	183	100	5554	100
	(35)a		(35)		(1)		(7)		(2)		(1)		(3)		(5)		(3)		(3)		(2)		(3)			

[a]Figures in parentheses refer to percentages of the total values.

Material possessions drew values from three stories, Story 3 (new home), Story 7 (furniture), and Story 9 (transportation); hence it is surprising that the number of values coded in this theme was not greater.

The fewest values were coded for focus of functional order and for social organization. Although evidence of values in these two themes was scant, more values in both were coded for the parents than for their children, suggesting a possible relationship to role.

Three Theme Categories

Since three theme categories, form of response, emphasis, and all other themes, each contained about one-third of the coded values, they were analyzed to discover whether the results were similar. If so, they might be used independently of each other to classify data, otherwise all three might be needed in the analysis. Also, similarity would indicate some degree of validity of type and reliability of coding. Table 5.20 presents the coded values in the three theme categories, tabulated by type and role.

In Table 5.20 all the roles for one type in one theme equal 100 percent. The relative percentages of the four roles in a type were consistent for all three theme categories, both in traditional and in autonomous, where the bulk of the data lie. Likewise, social showed similarity in percentages by role for emphasis and all other themes, but not for form of response. Change-prone had no discernible pattern.

Table 5.20. Coded values for form of response, emphasis and all other themes by type and by role

Type and role	Form of response N	Form of response %	Emphasis N	Emphasis %	All other themes N	All other themes %	Total N	Total %
Traditional								
Husbands (N=51)	249	26	195	28	202	29	646	27
Wives (N=51)	209	22	132	19	144	20	485	21
Sons (N=45)	258	27	203	29	186	27	647	28
Daughters (N=46)	239	25[a]	171	24	165	24	575	24
Total	955 (17)	100	701 (13)	100	697 (12)	100	2353 (42)	100
Social								
Husbands	19	45	28	34	26	32	73	36
Wives	3	7	21	26	24	30	48	23
Sons	12	29	19	23	18	22	49	24
Daughters	8	19	14	17	13	16	35	17
Total	42 (1)	100	82 (1)	100	81 (2)	100	205 (4)	100
Autonomous								
Husbands	241	26	285	25	223	25	749	25
Wives	297	32	356	31	305	33	958	32
Sons	179	19	226	20	152	17	557	19
Daughters	213	23	275	24	227	25	715	24
Total	930 (17)	100	1142 (21)	100	907 (16)	100	2979 (54)	100
Change-prone								
Husbands	..	..	1	25	3	27	4	24
Wives	1	50	1	25	4	37	6	35
Sons	1	50	2	50	2	18	5	29
Daughters	..	..	..	..	2	18	2	12
Total	2 (0)	100	4 (0)	100	11 (0)	100	17 (0)	100
Totals	1929 (35)		1929 (35)		1696 (30)		5554 (100)	

[a]Figures in parentheses refer to percentages of total coded values.

In addition, figures in parenthesis show that the percentages of the total coded values in a type were similar across the three theme categories with the traditional values having a slightly higher percentage in form of response and the autonomous values slightly more in emphasis.

Coded Values by Type and by Theme

Since results of this study show a prevalence of autonomous values, any deviations are of particular interest. Table 5.19 (page 90) indicates the percentage of the four types in each theme. Traditional values were most predominant in control of child's behavior, and next in form of response, scope of wife's time alternatives, and social organization.

Themes with the most autonomous values were focus of functional order, control of adult son, and division of work. Next came emphasis, material possessions, and mobility. Most of the social values were coded for kinship and focus of functional order, and the change-prone for material possessions.

Coded Values by Type, by Theme, and by Role

Further analysis of values by theme and role indicate that all roles were predominantly traditional for control of child's behavior, sons and daughters having the largest percentages (Table 5.21). The husbands' most traditional theme was scope of wife's time alternatives. Other predominantly traditional themes were social organization

Table 5.21. Coded values by type, by theme and by role

Husbands

Types	Form of response N	Form of response %	Emphasis N	Emphasis %	Focus of functional order N	Focus of functional order %	Scope of wife's time alternatives N	Scope of wife's time alternatives %	Social organization N	Social organization %	Kinship N	Kinship %	Division of work N	Division of work %	Material possessions N	Material possessions %	Mobility N	Mobility %	Control of child's behavior N	Control of child's behavior %	Mode of child's control N	Mode of child's control %	Control of adult son N	Control of adult son %	Total N	Total %
Traditional	249	49	195	38	1	4	62	67	12	46	6	38	23	42	26	40	15	31	32	64	9	34	16	32	646	44
Social	19	4	28	6	7	26	1	1	3	12	6	37	1	2	3	5	..	..	2	4	2	8	1	2	73	5
Autonomous	241	47	285	56	19	70	29	32	11	42	4	25	31	56	32	50	33	69	16	32	15	58	33	66	749	51
Change-prone	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	3	5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	4	..
Total	509	100	509	100	27	100	92	100	26	100	16	100	55	100	64	100	48	100	50	100	26	100	50	100	1472	100

Wives

													Total
Traditional	209 41	132 26	1 5	46 46	15 54	1 5	13 28	20 24	11 23	27 54	7 23	3 6	485 32
Social	3 1	21 4	3 16	3 3	.. ..	6 27	2 5	7 9	1 2	.. ..	.. ..	2 4	48 3
Autonomous	297 58	356 70	15 79	52 51	13 46	15 68	31 67	51 63	36 75	23 46	23 74	46 90	958 64
Change-prone	1 ..	1 ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	3 4	.. ..	.. ..	1 3	.. ..	6 1
Total	510 100	510 100	19 100	101 100	28 100	22 100	46 100	81 100	48 100	50 100	31 100	51 100	1497 100

Sons

													Total
Traditional	258 57	203 45	.. ..	39 49	5 36	5 31	11 33	26 46	28 65	35 80	19 65	18 47	647 51
Social	12 3	19 4	1 25	1 1	3 21	6 38	.. ..	2 4	.. ..	2 4	2 7	1 3	49 4
Autonomous	179 40	226 50	3 75	40 50	6 43	5 31	22 65	27 48	15 35	7 16	8 28	19 50	557 44
Change-prone	1 ..	2 1	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	1 2	1 2	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	5 1
Total	450 100	450 100	4 100	80 100	14 100	16 100	34 100	56 100	43 100	44 100	29 100	38 100	1258 100

Daughters

													Total
Traditional	239 52	171 37	1 25	38 39	7 54	1 17	10 24	23 29	21 51	34 74	17 50	13 30	575 43
Social	8 2	14 3	1 25	.. ..	.. ..	1 17	1 3	1 1	.. ..	3 6	2 6	4 9	35 3
Autonomous	213 46	275 60	2 50	60 61	6 46	4 66	30 73	54 68	20 49	9 20	15 44	27 61	715 54
Change-prone	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	2 2	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	2 ..
Total	460 100	460 100	4 100	98 100	13 100	6 100	41 100	80 100	41 100	46 100	34 100	44 100	1327 100

for wives and daughters and mobility, mode of child's control, and form of response for sons and daughters.

Predominantly autonomous for all roles was division of work, but more so for wives, sons and daughters. Themes predominantly autonomous for husbands and wives were mobility, and mode of child's control; and for all except sons, control of the adult son and emphasis. The largely autonomous themes for wives and daughters were kinship and material possessions. Daughters were the only role predominantly autonomous in scope of wife's time alternatives. Over one-third of the husbands' and sons' kinship values were social.

Analysis of Common Family Values

Family values were further analyzed to determine the extent to which the coded values were held in common in the family and by which members of the family. Since each value was coded from a story into a type and theme, a value was considered to be held in common when two or more family members had identical coding.

In Table 5.22 the number and percentage of values held in common by the entire family are grouped by story and themes coded from each story and further classified by type.

In the 51 families there were 399 instances in which the entire family held a value in common. These common values were two-thirds autonomous and one-third traditional. Stories 9 (transportation) and 8 (dishwashing) produced the

Table 5.22. Coded values common to entire family by type and by story
with related themes (N = 51 families)

Story and related themes	Traditional			Autonomous			Total		
	N	N	%	N	N	%	N	N	%
Story 1		37	27		8	3		45	11
Form of response	13			1			14		
Emphasis	12			3			15		
Scope of wife's time alternatives	12			4			16		
Story 2		4	3		28	11		32	8
Form of response	4			8			12		
Emphasis	..			20			20		
Story 3		36	26		10	4		46	11
Form of response	6			2			8		
Emphasis	13			3			16		
Control of child's behavior	15			2			17		
Mode of child's control	2			3			5		
Story 4		3	2		25	10		28	7
Form of response	2			8			10		
Emphasis	1			10			11		
Mobility	..			7			7		
Story 5		4	3		27	10		31	8
Form of response	4			8			12		
Emphasis	..			19			19		
Story 6		7	5		22	8		29	7
Form of response	4			8			12		
Emphasis	3			9			12		
Scope of wife's time alternatives	..			5			5		
Story 7		17	12		19	7		36	9
Form of response	2			13			15		
Emphasis	9			6			15		
Material possessions	6			..			6		
Story 8		23	17		27	10		50	13
Form of response	21			2			23		
Emphasis	2			14			16		
Division of work	..			11			11		
Story 9		2	2		53	20		55	14
Form of response	1			4			5		
Emphasis	..			37			37		
Material possessions	..			12			12		
Social organization	1			..			1		
Story 10		4	3		43	17		47	12
Form of response	3			12			15		
Emphasis	1			17			18		
Control of adult son	..			14			14		
Totals		137	100 (34)		262	100 (66)		399	100

greatest number of values common to a family, whereas the fewest were for Stories 4 (move) and 6 (children in school). Stories 1 (first baby) and 3 (children's behavior) provided over half of the traditional shared values. Although the autonomous values held in common were more widely scattered among the stories, Story 9 (transportation) and 10 (control of older son) had the most, together contributing over one-third. No social or change-prone values common to a family occurred but the data were sparse for these types.

As in analysis of composite value profiles by paired roles (page 76), role pairs in common value analysis included husband-wife, husband-son, husband-daughter, wife-son, and wife-daughter. Values common to each role pair were tabulated and percentages of an individual's coded values that he held in common with each other role were computed.

Tables 5.23 through 5.26 show distribution of individuals by role over the wide range of percentages of each individual's values he held in common with each other role. Although a few had over 80 percent and a few under 30 percent of their values in common with another role, the majority of all roles had between 40 and 61 percent in common with each other role.

One-fourth of the husbands held over 60 percent of their coded values in common with their wives but almost one-third had over 60 percent in common with their daughters. The role with the most individuals having less than 50 percent

Table 5.23. Husbands by percentages of their coded values held in common with other roles

Percentage ranges of husband's values in common	Husbands holding values in common											
	with W		with S		with D		with WS		with WD		with Family	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Over 80	2	4			1	2						
71-80	2	4	2	4	3	6						
61-70	8	16	7	16	10	22			1	2	1	2
51-60	17	33	14	31	13	28	1	2	4	9	4	8
41-50	16	31	16	36	10	22	4	9	6	13	5	10
31-40	5	10	3	7	6	13	17	38	18	39	10	19
21-30	1	2	2	4	3	7	17	38	12	26	10	20
Under 21			1	2			6	13	5	11	21	41
Total	51	100	45	100	46	100	45	100	46	100	51	100
Percentage means of common values	53		50		53		30		33		27	

Table 5.24. Wives by percentages of their coded values held in common with other roles

Percentage ranges of wife's values in common	Wives holding values in common											
	with H		with S		with D		with HS		with HD		with Family	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Over 80	1	2										
71-80	1	2			2	4						
61-70	11	22	8	18	6	13			1	2	1	2
51-60	17	33	11	24	17	37	2	4	4	9	4	8
41-50	14	27	14	31	15	33	4	9	6	13	5	10
31-40	5	10	11	25	4	9	12	27	16	35	10	19
21-30	2	4	1	2	2	4	22	49	12	26	8	16
Under 21							5	11	7	15	23	45
Total	51	100	45	100	46	100	45	100	46	100	51	100
Percentage means of common values	53		49		52		29		33		26	

Table 5.25. Sons by percentages of their coded values held in common
with other roles

Percentage ranges of son's values in common	Sons holding values in common							
	with H		with W		with HW		with Family	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Over 80								
71-80								
61-70	14	31	8	18				
51-60	13	29	18	40	1	2	1	2
41-50	11	25	11	24	8	18	2	4
31-40	6	13	7	16	14	31	4	9
21-30	1	2	1	2	14	31	9	20
Under 21					8	18	29	65
Total	45	100	45	100	45	100	45	100
Percentage means of common values	53		51		31		19	

Table 5.26. Daughters by percentages of their coded values held in common with other roles

Percentage ranges of daughter's values in common	Daughters holding values in common							
	with H		with W		with HW		with Family	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Over 80	1	2						
71-80	3	7	3	7				
61-70	7	15	7	15				
51-60	13	28	16	35	3	7	2	4
41-50	15	33	14	30	8	17	5	11
31-40	5	11	4	9	18	39	9	20
21-30	2	4	2	4	10	22	10	22
Under 21					7	15	20	43
Total	46	100	46	100	46	100	46	100
Percentage means of common values	52		52		33		25	

of their values in common with another role was wives in relationship with sons.

In combinations of three roles, more husbands had more of their values in common with wife and daughter than with wife and son. Also, a larger number of wives had more of their values in common with husband and daughter than with husband and son. About one-fifth of both husbands and wives held over 40 percent of their values in common with the entire family. Very few sons shared this many, two-thirds of them having less than 21 percent of their values in common with the whole family. The larger the family or group within the family, the smaller the percentage of an individual's values common to the family or group.

Next, the number of values common to each role pair was totaled for all the families and the percentages of an entire role's values by type that were held in common with another role were computed for those roles that could be paired equally (Table 5.27).

The traditional values shared by husband and wife were 42 percent of the husbands' traditional values and 56 percent of the wives' traditional values. Husbands shared a larger percentage of their autonomous values than of their traditional values with their wives. The wives shared nearly the same percentage of each with their husbands.

Sons had more traditional values in common with their fathers and more autonomous values with their mothers. The daughters had nearly an equal number of traditional

Table 5.27. Total coded values for each role by type held in common with other roles equally represented in the sample

Family member	Value type	Total coded values	Values in common with husband		Values in common with wife	
			N	%	N	%
Husbands	T[a]	646			273	42
(N = 51)	S	73			6	8
	A	749			510	68
	C	4				
	Total	1472			789	54
Wives	T	485	273	56		
(N = 51)	S	48	6	13		
	A	958	510	53		
	C	6				
	Total	1497	789	53		
Sons	T	647	369	57	277	43
(N = 45)	S	49	9	18	1	2
	A	557	281	50	371	67
	C	5				
	Total	1258	659	52	649	52
Daughters	T	575	309	54	223	39
(N = 46)	S	35	4	11	4	11
	A	715	384	54	469	66
	C	2				
	Total	1327	697	53	696	52

[a]T = Traditional   S = Social   A = Autonomous   C = Change-prone

and autonomous values in common with their fathers, but a much larger percentage of autonomous with their mothers. Sons and fathers held the highest percentage of social values in common of any role pair.

Sharing of husbands' and wives' values with sons and daughters is not included because some of the husbands and wives did not have sons and some did not have daughters, whereas all wives were paired equally with husbands and all sons and daughters had both parents represented in the sample.

Table 5.28 shows values held in common in 10 families of identical composition, having one son and one daughter. Although these families varied greatly in the number of common values and in the combinations of roles who held the common values, the 10 families had a mean of 55 percent of the total family values common to three-fourths or more of the family with a range from 35 percent to 75 percent. The number in common for all four roles (the entire family) ranged from 10 percent to 35 percent of the family total. Values coded solely for one member ranged from 13 percent to 22 percent. The common value patterns of these 10 families are shown in Table 5.29.

Table 5.28. Total coded values for ten families by those held in common with four, three, two, and no roles

Family number	No. of values held in common											Total family values	
	By 4 roles			By 3 roles			By 2 roles			By no roles			
	N	X 4	%	N	X 3	%	N	X 2	%	N	%	N	%
2	10	40	33	14	42	34	11	22	18	18	15	122	100
3	7	28	23	12	36	30	15	30	25	27	22	121	100
8	3	12	10	10	30	25	27	54	44	26	21	122	100
9	4	16	14	11	33	29	23	46	41	18	16	113	100
23	5	20	17	14	42	37	14	28	25	24	21	114	100
29	3	12	11	15	45	40	16	32	29	23	20	112	100
30	10	40	35	15	45	39	6	12	10	19	16	116	100
40	7	28	24	16	48	41	11	22	19	18	16	116	100
41	6	24	21	12	36	31	16	32	27	24	21	116	100
43	6	24	21	12	36	31	20	40	35	15	13	115	100
Total	61	244	21	131	393	34	159	318	27	212	18	1167	100

Table 5.29. Common value patterns for ten families composed of husband, wife, son and daughter

Family members holding same values	Family 2 Values by role				Family 3 Values by role				Family 8 Values by role				Family 9 Values by role				Family 23 Values by role			
	H[a]	W	S	D	H[a]	W	S	D	H[a]	W	S	D	H[a]	W	S	D	H[a]	W	S	D
HWSD[a]	10	10	10	10	7	7	7	7	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	5	5	5	5
HWS	2	2	2		3	3	3		6	6	6						4	4	4	
HWD	4	4		4	3	3		3					2	2		2	4	4		4
HSD	4		4	4	2		2	2	4		4	4	6		6	6	1		1	1
WSD		4	4	4		4	4	4						3	3	3		5	5	5
HW	2	2			4	4			2	2			1	1			5	5		
HS	3		3		3		3		8		8		4		4		2		2	
HD	1			1	2			2	6			6	6			6				
WS		1	1			2	2			5	5			6	6					
WD		4		4		1		1		4		4		4		4		3		3
SD							3	3			2	2			2	2			4	4
H	6				6				2				5				7			
W		5				8				12				7				6		
S			4				5				2				4				6	
D				3				8				10				2				5
Total	32	32	28	30	30	32	29	30	31	32	30	29	28	27	29	29	28	32	27	27

[a] H = Husband   W = Wife   S = Son   D = Daughter

Table 5.29. (continued)

Family members holding same values	Family 29				Family 30				Family 40				Family 41				Family 43			
	Values by role				Values by role				Values by role				Values by role				Values by role			
	H	W	S	D	H	W	S	D	H	W	S	D	H	W	S	D	H	W	S	D
HWSD	3	3	3	3	10	10	10	10	7	7	7	7	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
HWS	4	4	4						8	8	8		3	3	3		2	2	2	
HWD	1	1		1	6	6		6	2	2		2	2	2		2	4	4		4
HSD	6		6	6	5		5	5	3		3	3	7		7	7	5		5	5
WSD		4	4	4		4	4	4		1	1	1		4	4	4		1	1	1
HW	3	3															2	2		
HS	4		4		2		2		4		4						1		2	
HD	1			1									1			1	6			6
WS										3	3			5	5			8	8	
WD		5		5		3		3		5		5		5		2		1		2
SD			3	3			1	1			1	1			1	1			1	1
H	7				7				6				9				3			
W		11				7				3				5				5		
S			1				4				5				3				5	
D				4				1				6				6				2
Total	29	31	25	27	30	30	26	30	30	29	32	25	28	30	29	29	29	29	30	27

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS

This final chapter presents a summary of the study and the findings. Limitations of the study, implications for further research and implications for home management are included.

Summary

This study was performed as Phase II of a Michigan Experiment Station project of the Department of Home Management and Child Development of Michigan State University. The master project is entitled "Values Underlying Managerial Decisions in the Family." The general purposes of this project were to carefully select a definition of values that would distinguish them from a host of related concepts and to attempt to identify family values. In Phase I Engebretson[1] developed a projective story completion instrument to gather data and constructed a typology as a conceptual system to identify and classify values. She explored values of groups of wives using these instruments. The present study, Phase II, using the same projective device and conceptual system, explored the values of the entire family.

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[1]Engebretson, op. cit.

The basic objectives of the present research were: (1) to elicit values of individuals in the family and of the entire family using an incomplete story device and (2) to identify and compare the values of the family members by means of a constructed typology. In this second phase of the master project another objective was simultaneously to explore further the fruitfulness of the story completion instrument as a device to elicit values and the typology as a conceptual system to identify, structure and analyze responses.

The projective stories, built around a set of family decision situations, were administered by the researcher to families, comprised of husband, wife and children between the ages of 12 and 18. Simultaneously, in their own homes, the respondents wrote completions to the stories. Questions at the end of each story, "What should be done?" and "Why?" guided respondents to express their "conceptions of the desirable which affect choices among possible courses of action"—the definition of values chosen for the master project. Family decision situations were selected as subject matter for the stories since values can be revealed through decision-making.

Values were identified and organized by means of the constructed typology which consisted of four value types: traditional, social, autonomous, and change-prone, developed for twelve themes. The same coders worked on both Phase I and Phase II. Analysis included construction

of a composite value profile for each respondent, analysis
by type and role in stories and in themes, and exploration
of common values in the family.

Fifty-one families composed of husband, wife and
children between the ages of 12 and 18 constituted the
sample. Wives' ages ranged from 30 to 54 and husbands'
ages from 30 to 59. The majority of family incomes were
over $10,000 and occupations were chiefly professional
and managerial for the husbands. Eighty percent of the
wives were employed before marriage, whereas only 31 per-
cent were employed afterwards. Education ranged from eighth
grade to the master's degree for wives and to the Ph.D.
degree for husbands. Almost two-thirds of the husbands
had college degrees.

Number of values coded for individuals ranged from
23 to 34, with a mean of 29. Of the total values coded,
42 percent were traditional and 54 percent autonomous; only
4 percent were social and less than 1 percent change-prone.

On the continuum of composite value profiles rang-
ing from traditional to autonomous, husbands' profiles were
about equally distributed in each direction from the center
point. The wives were largely at the autonomous end. Al-
though the sons and daughters had more profiles at the cen-
ter point than their parents, the sons tended toward tradi-
tional and the daughters toward autonomous. A larger pro-
portion of younger sons had predominantly traditional pro-
files than any other age group of any role.

The group of respondents with the most traditional profiles had the lowest mean coded values. The mean increased as the proportion of autonomous values increased.

Comparison of composite value profiles of husbands and wives with age, income, education, and occupation showed predominantly autonomous profiles increasing somewhat with increase in age, amount of income, and especially amount of education. For wives, the data indicate a possible trend toward more autonomous profiles for the professionally employed. Type of employment is no doubt related to education.

The most values were coded for Stories 1 (first baby) and 3 (children's behavior), and the least for 5 (vacation) and 2 (new home) for all respondents and for all roles. Story 5 yielded the most social values and Story 7 (furniture) the most change-prone. Only Story 1 elicited more traditional than autonomous values for the total group and for all roles.

The proportion of values of each type varied with role for some stories. Wives alone did not have more traditional values on Story 3 (children's behavior). Husbands and sons had more traditional values but wives and daughters more autonomous on Story 6 (children in school). Sons and daughters had more traditional values and parents more autonomous on Stories 4 (move) and 7 (furniture), showing differences by sex in the first comparison and by age (or maturity) in the second. For all roles, Stories 2 (new home) and 9

(transportation) elicited mostly autonomous values. Story
10 (son's marriage) also yielded more autonomous values
for all except sons.

Since the two general themes, form of response and
emphasis, were coded from every story, equally large num-
bers of values fell into each. The next largest numbers
were coded for scope of wife's time alternatives and mate-
rial possessions, each having two or more story sources.

Themes predominantly traditional were control of
child's behavior (for all roles); social organization (for
wives and daughters); mobility, mode of child's control,
and form of response (for sons and daughters); and scope
of wife's time alternatives (for husbands only).

Themes predominantly autonomous were division of
work (for all roles); control of adult son and emphasis
(for all roles but sons); mobility and mode of child's con-
trol (for husbands and wives); kinship and material posses-
sions (for wives and daughters); and scope of wife's time
alternatives (for daughters only).

Comparison of three theme categories, form of re-
sponse, emphasis and all other themes, showed some consis-
tencies as well as some unexplained inconsistencies. The
relative proportions of each role in a type were stable
and similar for all three theme categories for traditional
and autonomous types, seeming to support the validity of
these two types. For each role, relative proportions of
type appeared to vary somewhat from one theme category to
another.

Composite value profiles of role pairs were compared with those of identical pairs in other families. Husband-daughter and wife-daughter pairs had the most profiles alike and wife-son pairs the fewest. In combination with any other role, wives had more autonomous profiles than did the other role, with nearly three-fourths of their profiles more autonomous than their sons' profiles. The majority of paired wife-daughter profiles were predominantly autonomous. Husbands in combination with wives had the fewest profiles in which both were predominantly traditional, yet husbands in combination with sons had the most.

Of the 399 instances in which a value was common to the entire family, two-thirds were autonomous values and one-third traditional. The greatest number of common values were for Story 9 (transportation) and Story 8 (dishwashing) and the fewest for Story 4 (move) and Story 6 (children in school).

The percentage of an individual's values that he held in common with another family member ranged from 20 percent to over 80 percent with means for the four roles ranging from 49 percent to 53 percent. In combinations of three roles, the husband, wife and daughter had more values in common than did the husband, wife and son. The larger the family, the smaller the percentage of each role's values common to the family.

Percentages of an entire role's coded values by type that were held in common with another role were compared.

All roles held about an equal percentage of traditional
and autonomous values in common with husbands but all roles
held more autonomous values in common with wives.

Analysis of common values for the 10 four-member
families with one son and one daughter indicate a range
of 10 percent to 35 percent of the family's total values
common to the entire family. A mean of 55 percent of the
total values were common to three or more of the family.
Patterns of commonality varied from family to family in
quantity and in roles holding the common values.

The objectives of the study were met. The incom-
plete stories appeared to be meaningful to the respondents
and elicited a quantity of value-laden material from which
values could be identified by means of the constructed typ-
ology. Further, the typology did serve as a valuable frame-
work by which the values could be organized and compared.

Comparison of Findings
Between Phase I and Phase II

Respondents in Phase I were wives ranging in age
from the early 20's to over 60, in comparison to the range
from the early 30's to the early 50's for wives in Phase
II. Incomes and educational levels were similar for wives
in both phases. Wives' gainful occupations before and after
marriage were also similar but for Phase II a few more wives
were employed after marriage, and a few more were in pro-
fessional and managerial occupations.

The mean number of coded values per individual was

29 for both phases. In Phase I, coded values were 59 percent autonomous, 37 percent traditional, 3 percent social and 1 percent change-prone for the wives. Wives in Phase II had 64 percent autonomous, 32 percent traditional, 3 percent social and 1 percent change-prone values. When all family members were included, the proportions of types were 54 percent autonomous, 42 percent traditional, 4 percent social and less than 1 percent change-prone. The prevalence of traditional and autonomous types in data of both studies provides support for validity of these two types.

In Phase I, 39 percent of wives' composite value profiles were mainly autonomous, whereas 27 percent of respondents in Phase II had mainly autonomous profiles. Only 3 percent in Phase I had mainly traditional profiles, lower than the 13 percent in Phase II. For both phases, the group of individuals with most traditional profiles had the lowest mean coded values. Both phases showed a slight trend toward more autonomous profiles for those with higher incomes and more education, the latter being slightly more pronounced in Phase II.

Analysis of three theme categories, _form of response_, _emphasis_, and _all other themes_, showed relative proportions of respondent classes in each type to be fairly consistent across the three categories for the traditional and autonomous types for both phases.

Predominantly traditional were Story 1 (first baby) for both phases and Story 3 (children's behavior) for Phase

I and all except the wives in Phase II. Stories 2 (new home) and 9 (transportation) were among the most autonomous for Phase II as well as for Phase I. Story 10 (son's marriage) was also largely autonomous for all except the sons. Wives in both phases were predominantly autonomous for Stories 4 (move), 6 (children in school), and 5 (vacation). Phase I wives' social values were evident in Story 5 (vacation) and Story 7 (furniture). Phase II wives' social values were coded primarily from Story 5. Wives from both phases had some social values coded from Story 6 (children in school). Change-prone values for both phases came from Story 7 in the main.

Theme analysis indicated control of child's behavior as the only theme with predominantly traditional values for Phase I and as the most traditional theme for Phase II except for husbands who had more in scope of wife's time alternatives. As for themes predominantly autonomous, division of work was the only one for both phases and all roles. However, mode of child's control, mobility, and focus of functional order ranked high for wives of Phase I and for wives and husbands in Phase II. Control of adult son was high in autonomous values for all categories of respondents except sons. In both phases most of the social values were coded in kinship and focus of functional order. Phase II had more social values spread over other themes than did Phase I. Change-prone values were coded in material possessions in both phases. Wives in Phase I had some change-

prone values in <u>mobility</u>, whereas wives in Phase II had some in <u>mode of child's control</u>.

Limitations of the Study

Limitations of this study include those imposed intentionally to obtain manageable scope, and those inherent in an exploratory study which future research might be expected to overcome.

1. The selected situations in the incomplete story device did not presume to elicit the entire value system of a respondent or a family, nor was the typology expected to encompass all the values explicit and implicit in the responses but to serve as a significant basis for comparison, hence discussion concerns <u>coded</u> values.

2. Generalizations are limited to this non-probability sample which was selected to assure: (a) ability to express ideas in writing, (b) accessibility by telephone and car, (c) unbroken families, (d) children old enough to find the story situations meaningful and to write completions, and (e) willingness to meet as a family to complete the stories.

3. The differences observed were not submitted to statistical check within the confines of this study so it is not known to what extent the differences might be due to chance.

4. The stories were intended to be completed by individuals capable of written expression and would not be appropriate for use in this form for illiterate or low

literate groups.

5. Validity and reliability tests performed in Phase I,
   although not rigorous, were thought to be satisfactory
   for analysis of the unstructured data in this type of
   study.

Implications for Further Study

New data concerning family values are contributed
by this study. Although conclusions are not of high gen-
erality, they generate hypotheses and suggestions for fur-
ther study.

Roles appear to have characteristic differences in
values which should be explored further with other popula-
tion samples. Do the values of family members have the
same variations in other socio-economic classes? Will dif-
ferences by education be more apparent in wider educational
ranges than were present in this study? Are there geograph-
ical variations in family values? What are the cross-cul-
tural or sub-cultural differences in values of the family
and its members?

The finding that the younger sons, well-known to
mature less rapidly than daughters, had the most traditional
values of the family leads to questions concerning the re-
lationship of maturity, as well as sex, to values. Do val-
ues change with maturity? If an individual has had less
experience with a situation, is he likely to have more tra-
ditional values about it?

The present study begins to explore the common value patterns of the family. There does appear to be a network of common values. Some families, especially the larger ones, had few values common to the entire family, but had many common to pairs or groups of three or more. Each member seems to have some individually held values, but each has some in common with each other member of his family. Also, certain values seem to be more frequently common to specific role pairs. What are the consequences of these varying patterns of commonality?

Similarly, results show some families held widely different and others very similar values within the same family. What are the implications for decision-making and for family relationships closely associated with home management of holding similar or disparate values.

A next step in family value research could be to develop an instrument suitable for use in assessing values of a wider sample. The responses in the two phases of this study and material in the typology could be used as a basis for an inventory-type instrument suitable for respondents of all educational levels with varying skills in verbal expression. Precoding would be possible and would add to ease in analysis so a larger sample with the possibility of more respondent and response variation could be utilized. An instrument of this type would be useful in conjunction with the projective stories and with depth interviews to give basis for further evaluation of validity and reliability.

Investigation of the development or change of values in the family was not a part of the present study. It appears pertinent for further research to explore whether values do change in a predictable way as, for example, with maturity. Bell and Vogel comment:

> . . . values are constantly being re-evaluated in the light of appropriateness, in solving the problems which arise in the family. While a solution which is wholly out of tune with family values may not be permitted, there may be a gradual process of weakening of some family values, and other values may develop which are more appropriate to contemporary conditions and which do not interfere greatly with other family values.
>
> Any change, however, may potentially upset the system of values so that there is usually careful explanation and rationalization of the changes in the light of other values.[1]

Numerous hypotheses are suggested as a result of this exploratory investigation. Some of these are presented with the hope that they will help direct the search for further knowledge about family values.

1. Husbands, wives, sons and daughters tend to have characteristically different value profiles: wives have the most autonomous profiles, daughters next most autonomous, husbands about equal in autonomous and traditional values and sons slightly more traditional than autonomous values.

2. Quantity of value expression is a function of role: wives express the largest number of values, daughters

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[1]Norman W. Bell and Ezra F. Vogel (eds.), A Modern Introduction to the Family (Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press, 1960), p. 28.

the next largest, then husbands, and sons the few-
est.

3. Quantity of value expression is a function of type:
persons holding predominantly traditional values
will express fewer values; persons holding predom-
inantly autonomous values will express a larger
number of values.

4. Fewer values will be expressed in relation to themes
of a higher level of abstraction, such as, <u>focus</u>
<u>of functional order</u> and <u>social organization</u>.

5. Wives have more autonomous values than do husbands,
even in themes which tend to be tradition-bound,
as <u>scope of wife's time alternatives</u>.

6. The higher the level of education, the more auton-
omous values an individual will hold.

7. Sons 12 and 13 years of age have more traditional
values than do sons 17 and 18 years of age.

8. Husbands' value profiles are more like their
daughters' profiles than like their wives' or
their sons'.

9. Wives' value profiles are most similar to their
husbands' and their daughters' and least similar
to their sons' profiles.

10. All family roles have more traditional values re-
lated to family members and more autonomous values
related to possessions.

11. Families hold more autonomous than traditional

values in common.

12. Each family member holds about half of his values
in common with each other family member.

Implications for Home Management

Because values are involved in every phase and process of management they are firmly in the realm of home management. The field of home management has a need as well as a responsibility to conduct further value research.

Even though more research is needed to predict the consequences of holding a value type or combination of types, of holding values in common with other family members, or of having values different from other family members, some deductions and conjectures can be made which have bearing on further study of values as related to home management.

For instance, since family roles seem to have characteristically different value profiles, assumption cannot be made, in assessing values, that the wife will be representative of the whole family, but data from other family members as well must be included.

The types of values held may influence the amount and kind of information the individual or family is willing to seek or accept. Persons with autonomous values often have multiple ends with multiple alternatives among means and modes. No doubt these people will be more open to new information than those with traditional values who state ends categorically and often elevate means and modes to ends.

The trend of the findings indicates that it may be possible for the researcher or the professional in home management to make some predictions about the values influencing a family's decisions by knowing the family composition including the number, age, role, and also amount of education of members of the family.

Since decision-making within the family may involve several or all of the members of the family in goal formation, in provision and use of resources, and in consequences of decisions made, the finding that the families studied varied widely in the number and type of values they held in common is of utmost importance. Deacon and Bratton[1] state that recognition of underlying individual or family values has considerable significance and that families who have developed or recognized a system of values will experience more satisfaction in their management than those who have not. Although this research identified and compared the values of the families, the extent to which the families themselves were aware of their own values is not known.

Indications that values vary with age and level of education suggest the need for home management professionals to have more knowledge about predictable influences on values.

Values and other related concepts such as interests, preferences and desires are conceptually distinct entities. Operationally maintaining this distinction is important in value research.

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[1]Deacon and Bratton, op. cit., p. 763.

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APPENDIX

Directions for Administering the
Incomplete Stories, the Incomplete
Story Instrument, and Samples from
Coding Manual

Michigan State University
Agricultural Experiment Station
Project 700, Phase II

DIRECTIONS FOR ADMINISTERING THE INCOMPLETE STORIES

Here are 10 stories about situations in which a family might find itself. Read each one carefully and then write what in your opinion should be done in each situation; that is, what in your opinion ought to be done. You may have had the same decisions to make yourself in your own home, but please answer, not what you did but what you think this family ought to do--what would be desirable for them to do and the reasons why. There are no right or wrong answers.

We do not want you to put your name on the paper. Write what you really think. Without your name on the paper, you can write honestly what you think.

When you read the first story you will see that there are two questions at the end. Please think about these questions. They will help you to finish the story. Use your imagination. Write clearly and as quickly as you can. When you finish the first story continue to the next story without delay.

Remember--answer what you think they ought to do, not what you did, unless they happen to be the same. Try to finish all ten stories. It shouldn't take more than an hour to complete them. Do you have any questions?

Michigan State University
Agricultural Experiment Station
Project 700, Phase II

Record No. ____

Personal Data:

1. **Wife:**
   Age_____
   Education_____
   Occupation_____
   Occupation before mar-
   riage_____

2. **Husband:**
   Age_____
   Education_____
   Occupation_____

3. **Ages of all children**
   boys _____

   girls _____

   _____

4. **Family income before**
   subtracting taxes:
   Below $2,999_____
   $3,000 - $4,999_____
   $5,000 - $6,999_____
   $7,000 - $9,999_____
   $10,000 and over_____

Record No. ____

1. Mr. and Mrs. Smith were married recently and are living in an apartment. Mrs. Smith worked for a few years before marriage and has continued on since. She likes her work and they need the money, but now she is pregnant.

   What should the Smiths do after the baby comes?

   <u>Why</u>? Give all the reasons for your choice.

2. Because Mr. Smith's job has been transferred to another state, Mr. and Mrs. Smith have to find a place to live in the new location. They have two young children, a boy three and a girl one year old. As they think about their move they realize that their new home must have certain characteristics if it is to be what they want.

   What should the place they want to find be like?

   <u>Why</u>? Give all the reasons for choosing the features or characteristics.

3. On a vacation visiting relatives and friends, the Smiths had difficulty with their children's behavior. The children's ages then were two and four.

What should the Smiths do about the way their children behave?

Why? Give all the reasons for your answer.

4. Next year the plant in the eastern part of the country where Mr. Smith works is moving to another part of the country. He has been offered a job in its new location. The plant in the east is closing so if he stays he will have to find a new job. The Smiths have four children, a boy eight, a girl six, and another girl and boy who are not yet in school.

What should the Smiths do?

Why? Give all the reasons for your choice.

5. Mr. Smith this year will have a two-week vacation in
   the summer. His family is composed of himself, his wife
   and their four children--three of whom are in elementary
   school and one who is four years old.

   What should the Smiths do on their vacation?

   Why? Give all the reasons for your choice.

6. At this point the oldest of the Smith children, Bob, is
   a freshman in high school, the two girls are in elemen-
   tary school, and the youngest, Jack, is five years old.
   Next year Jack will be in school, too, and the family
   is thinking about this new situation when all the child-
   ren are in school.

   What changes should they make in this new situation?

   Why? Give all the reasons for your answer.

7. The Smith children are now in high school and elementary school and they have had their living room furniture since the family was established. It is still usable but scratched and worn looking.

What should the family do about the furniture?

Why? Give all the reasons for your answer.

8. In the Smith family, even though they have a dishwasher, each member thinks his most disliked task is doing the dishes. Bob and Nancy are in high school and Mary and Jack are in elementary school. The children are busy with school work and activities outside of school hours.

What should the Smiths do about the dishes?

Why? What are all the reasons for your choice?

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9. Mr. and Mrs. Smith have a 1961 automobile in the low-priced range. Mr. Smith needs the car to drive to work. Mrs. Smith needs the car for her activities and the oldest of their four school age children has just purchased his first driver's license.

What should the Smiths do about the situation?

<u>Why?</u> Give all the reasons for your answer.

10. When Bob was a sophomore in college he fell in love with and wanted to marry a classmate at the same college.

What should the Smiths do?

<u>Why?</u> Give all the reasons for your answer.

Samples from the coding manual:

Material possessions

from typology:	examples from actual responses:
1 <u>traditional</u> attached to possessions (possessions to give security), people take care of 'things,' quality and appearance	In the first place I do not believe in allowing the children to ruin the furniture, I still use some I started with over 30 years ago and there are <u>no</u> scratches, I believe that it is a terrible waste of money to allow this condition. The Husband works to hard for his money to allow it.
2 <u>social</u> possessions secondary to people, children permitted to use the furniture, possessions are for the enjoyment and satisfaction of the family members	It could be a family project to paint redo the furniture., It just gives you a better feeling to have things look better if you all help.
3 <u>autonomous</u> possessions are regarded as tools to help the family attain growth and development purposes in addition to enjoyment and satisfaction; many plans and alternatives seen for use, acquisition and replacement	It depends on 1) family income; std of living to which they are accustomed 2) desirable to spruce up the house now that friends of children will be coming over, etc. 3) must decide what's more important - - present or future expenditures, say for college.
4 <u>change-prone</u> new and different possessions are prized but there is little attachment to 'things' as such, i.e., a house is thought of as something that can be easily acquired, sold or exchanged	Sell it--or use it in the cottage, or give it to a worthy person. Buy new! The change would be good for all the family as well as giving a decided lift to the mother who has to clean every day. Some of it can be used in a rec room, some in the bedrooms as they, too, have probably had much wear, tear.