DECISION-MAKING STYLES OF SELECTED
MEXICAN HOMEMAKERS

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ABSTRACT

DECISION-MAKING STYLES OF SELECTED MEXICAN HOMEMAKERS

by Nena Rola Bustrillos

This research explored decision-making styles of
selected homemakers. A decision-making style was recog-
nized as the behavioral profile resulting from the comb-
ination of the dimensions of the three elements; mode,
time reference, and decision-making rule.

The dimensions of mode; hypothetical, factual, and
action-suggestive; of time reference: future, past and
present; and of decision-making rule: preference ranking,
objective elimination, and immediate closure were expected
to combine into twenty-seven styles and concentrate on
three general decision-making styles. These predicted
styles were:

(1) hypothetical oriented style consisting of
hypothetical mode, future-time reference, and pre-
ference ranking;

(2) factual oriented style consisting of factual
mode, past-time reference and objective elimina-
tion;

(3) action oriented style consisting of action-
suggestive mode, present-time reference, and
immediate closure.

Data were gathered from sixteen Mexican homemakers
chosen from a total of twenty-five families who were liv-
ing in an unincorporated area between Lansing and East

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Lansing, Michigan. At the time of the study, each was living with her husband and at least one dependent child. These homemakers were comparatively young, with little or no schooling. They were generally full-time homemakers who went out for summer field work or took jobs when the family needed more money. They viewed their role as a worker and a family servicer.

Three hypothetical problems developed and tested for the study elicited information about decision-making style. Open-ended questions, incomplete sentences, and a financial hypothetical problem were used to gather data about the homemakers. The instruments were administered in English and/or Spanish. Responses to the decision problem and open-ended questions were tape recorded. Data were translated into English by an interpreter, when necessary. These data were transcribed, subjected to content analysis using pre-established categories, and then analyzed for decision-making styles.

The findings were as follows:

(1) The mode tended to be factual. This dimension of mode appeared about twice as often as action-suggestive. The hypothetical mode appeared least often.

(2) The present time reference was most frequently mentioned. The situational characteristics as perceived by the homemaker at the moment of deciding were the present time referents most frequently used. Seven out of forty-eight decisions utilized a past time reference. The future time reference was dominant only in three out of

forty-eight decisions.

(3) Preference ranking was the decision-making rule primarily utilized and immediate closure, the rule least utilized.

(4) The styles emerging from the combination of the dimensions of three elements resulted in two distinct styles: the unidimensional and the multidimensional. Mode primarily caused multidimensionality of the styles.

(5) Of the three predicted styles, only the factual emerged. Sixteen other styles resulted, none of which was the predicted hypothetical or action style. Of these sixteen styles, factual-present-preference ranking was most frequently evinced.

(6) With the exception of one homemaker, the homemakers used two or more styles in arriving at a decision. However, they tended to use one dimension of an element at least twice in their decision processes suggesting that for a wider range of decision problems, they might tend to predominantly employ a certain style. About a third of the homemakers tended towards a factual-present-preference ranking style.

(7) The nature of the problem was found to affect the number of dimensions of the elements used and, subsequently, the number of styles employed.

DECISION-MAKING STYLES OF SELECTED MEXICAN HOMEMAKERS

By

Nena Rola Bustrillos

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# ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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# CHAPTER I

## THE PROBLEM AND ITS CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

### Introduction

Home management is the judicious integration or organization of the processes involved in the formulation and execution of decisions related to the home and the family. Decision-making is, then, the focal point of management.

A multitude of models in decision-making have been advanced. Some of these models have been expressed in mathematical symbols. In researches in home management, a model for decision-making which prescribes more or less the same sequential steps has become standard. These sequential steps are recognition of a problem, seeking alternatives, thinking through the consequences of alternatives, and choosing one alternative.

Research on the flexibility of the decision process has not been done in home management. Although a fixed sequential model is used, it is probable that the process is a fluid one, the phases created by the person making the choice and depending upon certain considerations. In essence, this way of looking at decision-making endows it with an individual rather than a universal touch. An individual makes his decision in his own specific way, in his particular manner, in his style.

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If decision style is inherently variable, then those who are responsible for helping families about a variety of problems in homemaking will be made aware of the nature and range of such flexibility so that appropriate approaches can be devised.

## The Problem

Literature indicates that the normative model for decision-making which has been used in home management is a step-like process. This normative model has largely guided teaching and research. While the normative model of decision-making is considered ideal, little is known of how man's decision-making actually relates to this ideal. In the use of the normative model in research, the difficulty in identifying postulated steps and their exact sequence is recognized. This difficulty suggests that decision-making is a more fluid process than the step-like model implies. If this is true, then further studies of actual decision-making must be conducted. It is for the purpose of further understanding the decision-making process prior to any prediction or recommendation of how decision-making should take place in the home that the present study was pursued. Its main concern was to determine how decisions in the realm of the home and the family are made by homemakers.

## Conceptual framework

### Process

Decision-making is a process of resolving. It begins with a desire for cognitive structure.* Its terminal is a resolution, a conclusion, a commitment to one alternative. As a process, decision-making is dynamic. It is a creation of events. There is a continuity of time and interest. This continuity is evinced by a flow of thoughts, reinforced by emotions, and feelings. There is fluidity rather than one definite lineal flow since the thinking may go back and forth, retracing its steps and moving forward again. In its movement, however, there is direction. Something is desired, whether this is defined or not. This is the universal desire for an equilibrium only achieved when a resolution, a commitment, or a choice is made.

The decisioning process involves relationships. These give order to thinking and feeling. It is in relating one feeling with another, one new idea with a past one, one action with a fact or a condition that a particular structure is given to the process. This helps place events, ideas, feelings, facts, values, and observations into an integrated whole. But integration alone or organic uniting of all relationships does not result in a

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* This desire is characterized by feelings of either unpleasantness, uncertainty, doubt, wavering, discomfort, or dissonance or by a desire for change.

resolution. After ordering, discrimination must be made. Unless some degree of discrimination occurs the state of indecision still remains. One might see how each event is important, how with one act these events might occur or not occur, but one must be able to discriminate between what is important from what is not, between what is relevant and what is irrelevant, between that which will achieve one's objective and that which will not. In the decision-making process this discrimination is value-laden. There is no one correct answer for everybody. Only the person himself through his own volition must make that act of discrimination that leads to closure. He alone determines what is best, depending upon his values, his goals, and his purposes.

Viewed thus, three components of the decision process become evident: movement, relationship, and discrimination. They occur side by side, intermingled, and are always there. They might occur in varying degrees but that does not seem to matter since all are one in the process.

The components of the decision-making process can not be directly observed. However, as a working unity, the elements are manifested by the individual in his verbalized behavior. Through a person's verbalized behavior, therefore, it becomes possible for a person's decision-making to be identified. In this study, behavior in

decision-making is identified as decision-making style.

## Style

By style is meant a pattern of behaving which an individual manifests. In decision-making this manner of behaving becomes the individual's since he himself evolves it. The pattern, in other words, becomes his creative product as he attempts to recognize demands from the environment and blends this with his own needs.and desires. This is not a pattern imposed on him nor one he imitates. His style may not be consistently the same but in his day to day deciding, he develops patterns which are distinctly his own.

Three behavioral or style elements which are independently identified are considered as indicants of the decision-making process of an individual. These elements are mode, time reference, and decision-making rule. Not one of these behavioral elements, however, represents one component of the process independent of other components. Each style element manifests all three components in varying degrees. For example, mode as an element of style expresses all three components of process: relationship, movement, and discrimination but emphasizes relationship. Time reference as an element of style also expresses the three process components with a focus on relationship and movement. Likewise, decision-making rule expresses all three process components with an emphasis on discrimination.

To insure the sufficient inclusion of all the components
of decision-making process all three elements are used in
determining style. Thus in this research, the decision-
making style is therefore, a result of the relationships
of three elements; mode, time reference, and decision-
making rule.

## Elements of decision-making style

Three elements are considered significant for
determining decision-making style; namely, mode, time
reference, and decision-making rule, all of which are in-
dicative of process as previously conceptualized.

### Mode

Mode is a way of developing ideas. In the process
of deciding, inputs or raw materials are needed. These
inputs, interpreted broadly, are information related to
the decision-making problem. How these ideas are introduc-
ed and then structurally related to one another is a part
of a decision-making style. Mode is the expressive com-
ponent of decision-making style which is unpremeditated.
It shows how ideas are developed, analyzed, classified,
and then related to the decision-making problem. Since
these go on in ways that may not be observed, in this
research, the mode is represented by how the ideas are ver-
bally stated. The ideas themselves are not of importance
in determining mode; rather it is how the ideas are

stated that is important. Three modes will be identified:
hypothetical, factual, and action-suggestive.

Hypothetical mode.- When ideas are stated con-
ditionally, conjecturally, or doubtfully, the mode is con-
sidered hypothetical. This relationship to certain condi-
tions makes the action hypothetical. The mode includes
both statements of conditionality and contingency.

Factual mode.- When ideas about things observed,
sensed, or apprehended are stated conclusively, unqualified
by anything, then the mode is factual. These ideas need
not necessarily be about "facts" for that is the content
of choice, rather it is the manner of being definitive and
conclusive that is pertinent to determining mode. For
factual mode, no explicit or verbal relations between
ideas or action and consequences is given.

Action-suggestive mode.- When action is directly
suggested in a statement,the mode is action-suggestive.
These suggestions may either assert or negate something or
may take the seemingly safe road to inaction. The actions
may be either manipulative or adaptive. Action verbs dis-
tinguish this type of mode.

Time reference

Another element of decision style is time refer-
ence. Any decision has an historical perspective. No
decision is independent of time. One, therefore, must be
able to perceive events and phenomena in a time

relationship since it is this perception which gives meaning and continuity to events. Reference to a time base becomes evident as a person decides. This time base may be the future, the past, or the present.

Future reference.- Reference to what might come or might happen in the immediate future or in some later time are future-based.

Past reference.- References to tradition, habitual behavior and experience by one's self or as recounted by others are considered past reference.

Present reference.- When present behavior is based on what is on-going but not habitual, on what is felt and thought at the moment, on present needs, and on situations obtaining at the moment of decisions, it is classified as present reference.

## Decision-making rule

The third element of decision-making style is decision-making rule. Decision-making rule consists of the method by which alternative courses of action are evaluated with the corresponding determinant or base for selecting one particular alternative. It, therefore, is supposed to come after a set of alternatives has been perceived.

Whatever the decision-maker stated as best is accepted. The description of the overall procedure verbalized by the homemaker as she arrived at the "best" is the

decision-making rule. This procedure, of course, could have been preceded by a series of decisions and backed by certain bases, the determination of which is beyond the scope of this research.

Through a decision-making rule, the homemaker is able to differentiate alternatives and then arrive at a discriminatory point or decision. Again, only verbalized ideas can give us leads into processes used. In the traditional language of decision-making, this phase concerns the evaluation of alternatives and final choice. Three decision-making rules have been identified: preference ranking, objective elimination, and immediate closure.

Preference ranking.- One decision-making rule is that of ordinally ranking of alternatives. Alternatives perceived are evaluated and placed in order from best to worst according to a subjectively defined criterion. The placement in such an order when consistent with what the homemakers would do and would not do if confronted with the same situation is defined as preference ranking. No change at all would occur between what is considered best and what one intends to do if faced with the same problem. The best alternative is subjectively determined, and the base used is considered constant. There is persistency in what is considered the best choice.

Objective elimination.- Choices are immediately recognized as based on the limits imposed by the environment. No one best alternative is consistently chosen;
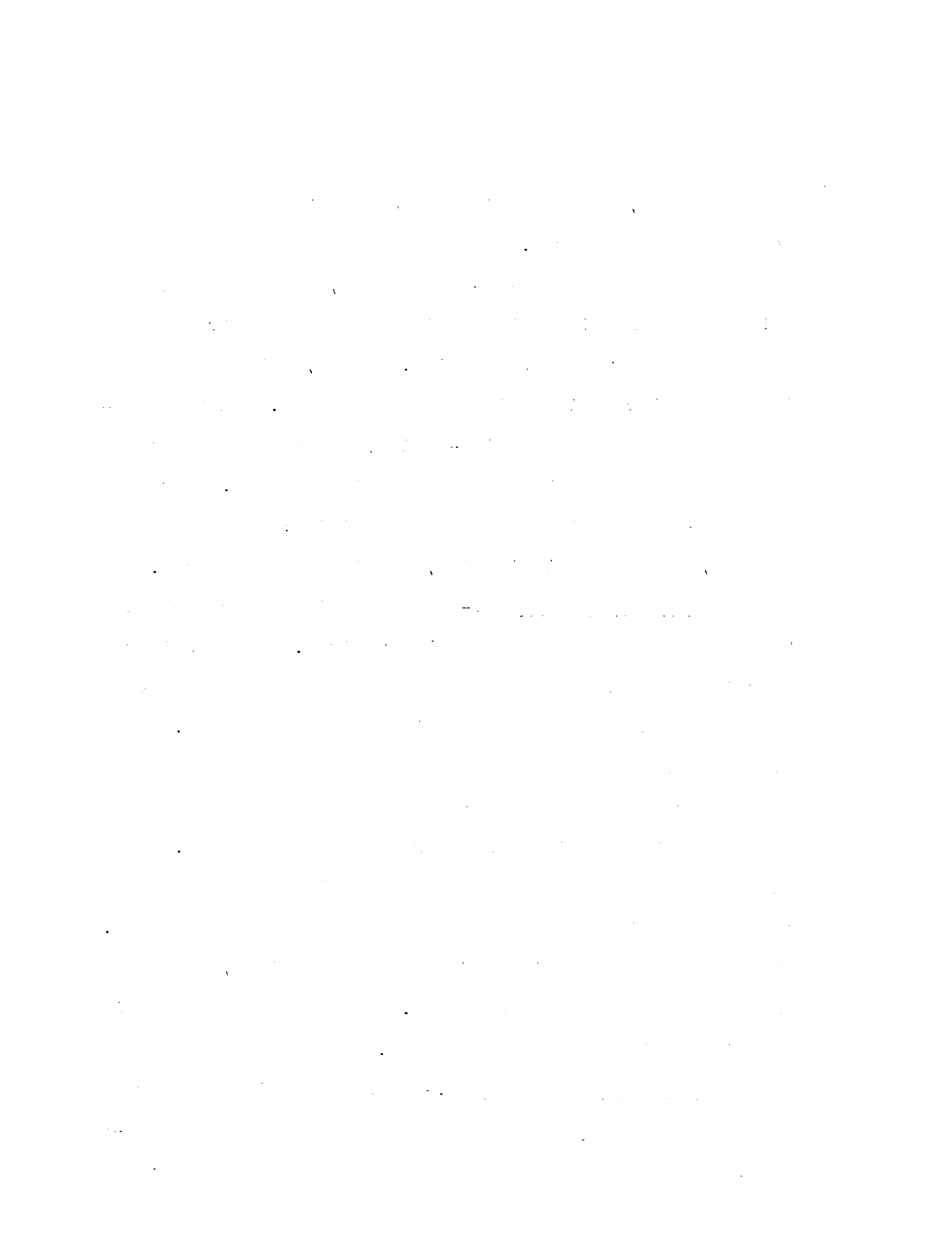
the "best" depends on the conditions obtaining. Since choice is determined by the condition, then adapting to the condition becomes the base of choice. No personal identification is evident, only a detachedness. The manner of verbalizing, therefore, becomes very objective. Phrases such as "under these conditions .... is best;" "but if ... then ..." are used. Objective analysis of alternatives and the choice is made by recognizing the demands of the situation. Unless forced by the situation, closure is not readily made.

Immediate closure.- Only one action becomes the focus. The alternative is immediately grasped without explicitly going through ranking or any elimination. The process is quick and analysis and reasoning come after making the choice. No other alternative is mentioned although one could have been unconsciously eliminated.

## Predicted decision-making styles

The behavioral profile resulting from the combination of dimensions of the three elements: mode, time reference and decision-making rule, results in a decision-making style. It is postulated that the decision-making styles of homemakers will more or less approach three patterns, deduced from the following schematic presentation.

## <u>Decision-making style</u>[(s)]

| Mode (M) | Time reference (T) | Decision-making rule (R) |
|---|---|---|
| Hypothetical ($m_1$) | Future ($t_1$) | Preference ranking ($r_1$) |
| Factual ($m_2$) | Past ($t_2$) | Objective elimination ($r_2$) |
| Action-suggestive ($m_3$) | Present ($t_3$) | Immediate closure ($r_3$) |

The postulated decision-making styles and their equivalent element relationships are:

(1) Hypothetical-oriented style ($m_1$ $t_1$ $r_1$)

(2) Factual-oriented style ($m_2$ $t_2$ $r_2$)

(3) Action-oriented style ($m_3$ $t_3$ $r_3$)

A hypothetical oriented style ($m_1 t_1 r_1$) will use a hypothetical mode, be future-oriented, and use preference ranking. A factual-oriented style ($m_2 t_2 r_2$) will use factual mode, be past-oriented, and use objective elimination. And an action-oriented style will utilize an action-suggestive mode, be present-oriented, and have immediate closure ($m_3 t_3 r_3$). Each of these styles is distinctly different.

The primary objective of this research is to determine the elements of style and how the elements combine when the homemaker makes decisions or, in other words, the decision-making styles of homemakers.

The study is based on certain assumptions, namely:

(1) Man is endowed with free will. To some degree, he sees the need for the control of his environment.

(2) The homemaker makes managerial decisions about her homemaking.

(3) The homemaker has a decision-making style which can be identified.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This research views the decision-making process;
hence, the review of literature was limited to studies
focused on decision process. Distinction is, therefore,
made between decision process and decision.

A decision is the "act of settling or terminating...
by giving judgment."[1] It is coming to a conclusion, the
cutting-off point. It is in this sense that decision is
used as a part of problem-solving. In literature, however,
it has been used also to refer to the end product, the
choice. It is distinguished from decision-making although
both decision and decision-making have been confused and
sometimes equated in literature. In this study distinc-
tion is made between decision and decision-making.

Decision-making, however, is more than that final
momentary act. It is a dynamic event, which involves
many considerations of values, conditions, and other situ-
ational factors. It consists of processes which seem to
start from a feeling of uncertainty or doubt, or wavering
or controversy or discomfort leading to a resolution point.

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[1]Webster's Third New International dictionary,
Springfield, Mass., G & C Merriam Company, 1961, p. 585.

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Decision-making is a process of resolving. As a process it is dynamic, on-going, ever-changing. It is experiencing and as such it flows or has movement, has relationship, and differentiation. In Carl Rogers terms, a process involves

> "....a loosening of feelings .... a change in the manner of experiencing. From experiencing which is remote in time from the organic event, which is bound by the structure of experience in the past .... toward a manner of experiencing which is immediate, which interprets meaning in terms of what is, not what was."[1]

### Normative Models of Decision-making

Decision-making is normatively viewed as a sequence of steps. The three-step model includes "seeking alternatives, thinking through the consequences of alternatives, and choosing one alternative."[2]

Although quite alike in number of phases but not in substance, another model includes predicting outcomes for each action, evaluating these outcomes in terms of some scale of desirability, and using a criterion based on

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[1]C. R. Rogers, "A process conception of psychotherapy." in W. G. Bennis, K. D. Benne and R. Chin. The planning of change (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1961) p. 372.

[2]I. H. Gross and E. Crandall, Op. cit., p. 20.

the purposes of the decision to make the actual selection.[1]

Another formulation is a four phase decision model envisioned by Gartner, Kolmer, and Jones, who pinpoint searching for total available alternatives, determining relevant alternatives, appraising relevant alternatives, and making the final choice.[2] They emphasize the importance of resources and objectives in family decision-making.

Katona, who distinguishes two types of decision-making, routine and genuine, describes the latter in five steps; namely, (1) arousal of a problem or question, (2) deliberation or thinking through which involves reorganization in a specific direction, (3) understanding the requirements of the situation, (4) weighing alternatives, and finally, (5) choosing among alternative courses of action.[3] According to Katona, this type of decision-making is relatively rare and may result in action which is new rather than repetitive. It occurs under the influence of strong motivational factors and events.

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[1] I. D. Bross. Decision for decision (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1953) p. 22.

[2] J. Gartner, L. Kolmer, E. B. Jones, "Consumer decision-making." Consumer Marketing Bulletin I. Cooperative Extension Service, Ames, Iowa, Iowa State University, 1960, pp. 6-10.

[3] G. Katona, The powerful consumer: psychological studies of the American economy (New York: McGraw Hill Book Co., Inc., 1960) p. 139.

The steps of decision-making seem to parallel Dewey's evolution of abstract thinking which consists of felt difficulty, its location and definition; suggestion of a possible solution; development by reasoning of the bearings of the suggestion; and further observation that leads to acceptance or rejection.[1]

The process, outlined by Heady and Jensen after the problem has been identified, consists of observing and acquiring information relevant to the solution of the problem, of analyzing this information, and of making the decision.[2] Johnson adds two steps to the process: putting the decision into action, and accepting responsibility for the consequences of actions taken.[3] Heady and Jensen classify putting the plan into effect as supervision rather than decision-making.

Most of the suggested steps of the decision-making could be grouped into Simon's three principal phases of

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[1] J. Dewey, How we think (New York: Heath, 1910) p. 72-73.

[2] C. O. Heady, and H. Jensen R. Farm management economics (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1954).

[3] G. L. Johnson. "The interstate cooperative research project on decision-making in farm management." in Proceedings of Conference on Values & Decision-making in Home Management. East Lansing, Michigan: Dept. of Home Management, and Child Development, Michigan State University, 1955, Mimeo, p. 45.

decisions (1) finding occasions for making a decision, (2) finding possible courses of action, and (3) choosing among courses of action. Simon labels these intelligence activity, design activity, and choice activity, respectively.[1]

While there are some variations in the normative models, they are really more alike than different. The divergence, it seems, lies in whether or not implementation of the decision and the consequent satisfaction or dissatisfaction are phases of the decision process or whether instead these two latter steps are means of evaluating the decision made. If however, the testing of an alternative were in Dewey's "imaginative rehearsal realm" then prediction of outcomes and setting one's self to accepting the consequences do not really require the implementation of the decision and can thus be considered part of a decision-making process.

The normative model of decision-making shows that there is a structure. The original formulations seems to connote a fixity in this structure, true for all decision-making, which leads to the choice of the "best" solution.

The normative model which specifies a high degree of rationality on the part of the decision maker so that

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[1] Herbert A. Simon. The new science of management decision (New York: Harper & Brothers Publishers, 1960) p. 1-2.

he can choose the "best" solution makes severe demands on the decision maker. The decision-maker must be able to attach definite value to each possible outcome and specify the nature of outcomes allowing no room for unanticipated consequences. Although there are various rules which are theorized for the choice of alternatives, these still conceive of man as objectively calculating the outcomes of his decision.

Variations for such calculating have been theorized. Simon proposes a "satisficing" model. This model purportedly reduces computational requirements by taking only alternatives which are perceived. Instead of looking for the best strategy or alternative, the search is made for a "good enough" alternative.[1] Feasibility rather than optimality is the aim: one that satisfies and not maximizes the outcomes. This model, according to Simon, "parallels as nearly as possible the decision procedures that appear to be used by humans in complex decision-making settings."[2] He proposes that alternatives are chosen by either of two mechanisms: that of the aspiration level principle or a persistence mechanism. Simon explains that

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[1] H. A. Simon, "A behavioral model of rational choice," in Models of man: social and rational (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1957) pp. 241-260.

[2] Ibid., p. 252.

the aspiration level which defines a satisfactory alter-
native may change from point to point in the sequence of
trials. These changes would bring about satisfactory
plans which approach uniqueness and guarantee the exist-
ence of satisfactory solutions. Not all alternatives
are then examined; the first satisfactory alternative,
is chosen.

Instead of the adjustments of the aspiration
level, his second mechanism states that the adjustments
are made in the set of alternatives considered -- so that
when satisfactory alternatives are discovered easily, the
set narrows, and if it is difficult to find satisfactory
alternatives, then the set broadens. This would imply
persistence of the choosing organism.

Both procedures are approximations, and the deci-
sion-maker does not know the costs of discovering alter-
natives or the pay-offs. His knowledge and capacities
are actually limited.

Another variation to the normative model is
Diesing's non-economic decisioning. He sees non-economic
decisions as reached by 1) defining a relatively independ-
ent problematic situation and uncovering the conflicts
that exist in it, as well as the factors maintaining the
conflicts; 2) estimating the changes that are possible in
each problematic factor, together with the degree of
strain the change would bring; 3) discovering what
strain-reducing support is available, for each change;

4) predicting future conflicts, strains, and stresses

likely to accompany each direction of change, or likely

to occur in any case; and 5) looking for a change at a

manageable level of strain that will reduce conflicts, or

increase flexibility, or prepare for future stresses.[1]

These decisions are integrative decisions or decisions

which attempt to change personalities and social rela-

tions in the direction of greater fundamental harmony and

stability. Integrative decision-making does not start with

given ends, which are accepted unquestioningly and then

become the culminating point. Rather the ends are treat-

ed as clues and symptoms of hidden beliefs, values, fears,

strains, which may even be frequently frustrated in the

course of being changed. Hence, integrative decisions do

not have any predictable outcomes or ends, because the de-

sires and the interests that could serve as ends are sub-

ject to unpredictable changes in the course of decision-

making or in subsequent action. The aims are more general

than particular as tension-reduction, conflict resolution,

and integration for a given time. The process is a

gradual piece-meal approach, involving a long series of

decisions which change as conditions change. Socio-

psychological resources, unlike economic resources, cannot

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[1] P. Diesing, "Socioeconomic decisions." Ethics.
69(1958) p. 2.

be shifted around among goals.

Diesing identified three types of socioeconomic decisions. These types are (1) those which deal primarily with the integrative method supplemented with the maximizing method, (2) those which are primarily maximizing supplemented with the integrative process, and (3) those which are equally integrative and maximizing.

Another theoretical formulation regarding variations in decision-making is Back's rational, irrational, and non-rational models.[1] The rational model is rooted in a mathematical foundation which specifies the objective analysis of the situation so that the best possible action could be chosen. Choices are, therefore, reducible to probabilities which requires a clear definition of outcomes. The irrational model considers that the source of the decision lies within the person, and that the decisions seem to run counter to the long-run utility of the outcome. The non-rational decisions rest more on the analysis of experience and are most applicable when little is known of relevant facts or when the results are vital or when the decisions are unique or those which are not likely to reoccur. The decision-maker is not aware of the basis for making the decision.

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[1] K. Back, "Decisions under uncertainty: rational, irrational, non-rational models." The American Behavioral Scientist, 4, No. 6 (Feb. 1961) 14-19.

In spite of the many theoretical formulations, however, little is actually known of decision-making as a process. Knight's remark of four decade's ago somehow rings a great truth, not only for what he termed "ordinary decisions of life" but even for extraordinary decisions. He says:

> "The ordinary decisions of life are made on the basis of 'estimates' of a crude and superficial character. In general the future situation in relation to which we act depends upon the behavior of an indefinitely large number of objects, and is influenced by so many factors that no real effort is made to take account of them all, much less estimate and summate their separate significances...
>
> "The mental operations by which ordinary practical decisions are made are very obscure, and it is a matter for surprise that neither logicians nor psychologists have shown much interest in them. Perhaps it is because there is really very little to say about the subject .... So when we try to decide what to expect in a certain situation, and how to behave ourselves accordingly, we are likely to do a lot of irrelevant mental rambling, and the first thing we know we find that we have made up our minds, that our course of action is settled."[1]

In fact, as if to support this, Rogers remarks that ".... little objective research deals with process in any field."[2]

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[1] F. Knight, Risk, uncertainty, and profits (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1921) pp. 200-1.

[2] C. Rogers, Op. cit., p. 362.

## Studies on the Process of Decision-making

With very few exceptions, research on decision-making emphasizes other aspects than the process. In the field of home management, Schomaker investigated how financial decisions were made in 100 farm families using a rational sequential model. She found the steps in decision-making not necessarily sequential. She reported that one ".... may acquire information and deliberate at the same time .... may also deliberate and see some alternatives, then acquire information, and, deliberate again as he becomes aware of more alternatives."[1]

Although not necessarily classified as home management research, Gibbs studied decision-making in purchasing in a holistic approach.[2] She concentrated on 15, 16, and 17 year old school boys and girls of a low socioeconomic group in one school. From a three-step model of seeking alternatives, thinking through alternatives, and selecting one alternative, she developed her five elements of deliberate decision-making; namely, shopping, securing

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[1] Peggy K. Schomaker, "Financial decision-making as reported by 100 farm families in Michigan." (Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Michigan State University 1961) p. 100.

[2] M. Gibbs, "A descriptive study of the decision-making procedures followed by boys and girls when they buy certain consumer goods," (Unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1961).

information, anticipating factors which give personal satisfaction, judging alternatives as to importance and making selections independently. Using the five elements, she scored for deliberateness three types of purchasing decisions: impulsive, planned, and repetitive. Data indicated that elements of deliberation did not distinguish the type of decision-making used. Gibbs commented, "The fact that elements of deliberation found in decisions classified as impulsive by girls and indications of its presence in the few impulsive decisions by boys raises questions about the commonly held notion that impulsive decisions are 'unwise and poor choices'."[1]

## Related research

Other areas of investigation yield some studies of process which could be helpful in studying the process of decision-making. These are problem-solving, concept-formation and adoption of practices.

Bloom and Broder followed twelve students who thought aloud while they were solving a limited number and variety of problems.[2] They had difficulty in classifying

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[1] Ibid., p. 285.

[2] B. S. Bloom and L. J. Broder, "Problem solving processes of college students: an exploratory investigation." Supplementary Educational Monographs. No. 73, July 1950. Chicago 37, Illinois, The University of Chicago Press.

their data. They found that the normative scheme was inapplicable so they used four categories; namely, understanding of the nature of the problem, understanding of the ideas contained in the problem, general approach to the solution of the problem, and attitude toward the solution of the problem. Since the sample consisted of students who came from two sharply defined academic-achievement groups, this enabled them to compare the performance of "successful" and "unsuccessful" problem solvers. The results indicated that these groups differed in arriving at a solution to a problem.

In a study of how farmers decide to adopt new farm practices, Wilkening used a four-step process.[1] This includes obtaining initial knowledge about the practice, obtaining ideas and information leading to the acceptance of the practice as a good idea for most farms, deciding that the idea is worthwhile for one's own farm, by a trial adoption, and adopting the practice completely on one's own farm.

In another study, Bruner, Goodnow and Austin dealt with the nature of psychological categories and with the strategies by which people discover what cues they can

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[1] E. A. Wilkening, "Adoption of improved farm practices, as related to family factors." Res. Bull. 183, Univ. of Wisconsin, Madison, December 1953, p. 9.

appropriately use for categorizing.[1] Using four ideal types of strategies; namely successive scanning, simultaneous scanning, conservative focussing, and focus gambling, they found that the sequence of decisions made by persons in attaining a concept differed. In general, their experiments revealed a notable flexibility on the part of their subjects in adapting their strategies to the information, capacity, and risk requirements imposed on them. They altered their strategies as the difficulty of the problems changed; they employed methods of information gathering which were less than ideal but which lessened pressures imposed on them by the tasks. Within the limits allowed them,they changed from safe but slow to risky but fast strategies. They were also able to adapt to cues which fell short of perfection and they combined partially valid cues and resolved conflicting ones.

## Phases of Decision-making

It is evident that not only is there little research in decision-making as a process but that these researches deal with individual rather than family decisions. Because there is so little research using the holistic approach, some evidence in phases of decision — making is included.

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[1] J. Bruner, E. Goodnow, G. Austin. A study of thinking (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1956), pp. 83-90.

## Recognition of a problem

In managerial adjustments, Lee and Chastian defined in detail what is involved in the recognition of a problem.[1] This analysis consisted of six phases: felt difficulty, gathering of information relative to felt difficulty, alternative definitions of the problem are recognized, alternative definitions are analyzed, problem is defined, and responsibility is accepted.

Nalven found a certain length of cue search before an alternative emerged.[2] Cue search was based on the number of cumulative horizontal segments of a picture to which the subject was exposed before he arrived at a final decision regarding the nature of the stimulus. Nalven also found that stress was inversely associated with number of alternative hypotheses formulated.

In a study of pre-school children by Smith and Roth,the first phase of problem solving was identified as preliminary random response, exploration of the problem, trial and approximation. The first phase consisted of activities that carry an impression of future activity

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[1] J. Lee and E. P. Chastian, "The role of problem recognition in managerial adjustments," *Jour. of Farm Econ.*, 42 (Aug., 1960) p. 650.

[2] Nalven, F., Defense preference and perceptive decision-making (Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Boston, University Graduate School, 1961) in Dissertation Abstracts, 1962.

toward the solution of the problem such as name-calling, sulking, screaming; and the second included such action as questioning adults to gain information, repeating the same action, or manipulating materials.[1]

## Obtaining information

Katz and Lazarsfeld working on horizontal and vertical flow of information found opinion leaders operating within specialized areas.[2] Their study was concerned more with source of information than with how the information was obtained.

The possibility of the retention of amassed or cumulated information, however, has been studied.[3] Under a steady state in an experimental set up, it was found that the decay or forgetting varied with the kind of stimuli, but that the amount of information retained was possibly affected by the use of a more sensitive recognition method and/or the segmentation of the sequence of digits into groups of three. There was, however, a lower limit to the amount of information that the subject could carry along at any one time.

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[1] D. Smith, and R. M. Roth, "Problems solving behavior of pre-school children in a spontaneous situation." Jour. of Gen. Psychol., 97 (1960), 139-143.

[2] E. Katz and P. Lazarsfeld, Personal influence (Glencoe, Illinois; The Free Press, 1955).

[3] R. N. Shephard, & M. Teghtosoonian, "Retention of information under conditions approaching a steady state." Jour. of Exp. Psychol. 62 (No. 3, 1961), 302-309.

## Formulation or production of solutions

The emergence of responses, whether verbalized or not, to a certain problematic situation has always been dealt with in the classification of thought processes. In normative decision-making, this phase has been identified as seeking of alternatives or suggestions of possible solution or illumination. This phase has been the core of the studies on creativity among adults, adolescents, and children.[1 & 2] Perhaps even before the alternatives are brought out, the very process of seeming chaos or disorder in one's mind, or that confused excitement with its preverbal intimation of a potential solution or solutions is part of the phase of formulation of solutions. The processes involved are described by Ghiselin,[3] and by Whiting.[4]

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[1] Getzels, Jacob W. & Philip W. Jackson. "Family environment and cognitive style: A study of the sources of highly intelligent and highly creative adolescents." Am. Soc. Review. 26 (No. 3, June 1961): 351-359.

[2] _____ "The study of giftedness: A multidimensional approach," in Cooperative Research Monograph No. 2 of the U. S. Office of Education, The gifted student. Washington, D.C.: Office of Education, 1960, 1-18.

[3] B. Ghiselin, The creative process, a symposium, (Berkely, California: Univ. of California Press, 1952).

[4] C. Whiting, Creative thinking (London: Chapman & Hall, Ltd., 1958), p. 1-10.

Johnson described problem-solving activities in functional units that are larger than single responses and smaller than the whole problem-solving episode.[1] To keep things manageable, he did a two-part analysis: the "preparation" and the "solution." The experimental method divides the presentation of the problem into two parts that are presented in a serial exposure box. The first part, preparation, provides some information but solution becomes possible only upon presentation of the second part. He found that when the amount of preparatory material is considerable, or when the formulation derived from the preparation does not fit available solutions, the thinker will switch back to preparation and be more successful in the next try. This corroborated previous findings that when preparation favors one dimension, a set is produced so that solution is slanted in the same direction.

In diffusion or practice adoption studies, seeking of alternatives was not included as a phase since the alternatives had been given. Rather, the decision was on whether to accept or reject a recommended practice.[2]

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[1] D. M. Johnson, "Serial analysis of thinking." Annals of the New York Acad. of Science, 91 (Art 1, December 23, 1960), pp. 66-75.

[2] E. A. Wilkening, Op. cit., pp. 9-11.

Weighing of alternatives and choice of one alternative

Weighing of alternatives and making a choice of one alternative are usually viewed together. Foote and Cottrell merged the two phases under the concept of judgment.[1]

Brim and his associates studied the two phases of decision-making, They identified nine characteristics of the two phases: namely, number of outcomes, probability, desirability, time orientation, expected utility, ranking the actions, number of actions selected, relation of expected utility to the ranking, sequential and contingency aspects of the choice of actions.[2] They used these in analyzing data obtained by paper and pencil tests of 200 male and female subjects. Applying these tests on four situations of child rearing: masturbation, homework, obedience, and stealing, they interrelated decision processes with personality characteristics, sex, social class, and type of situation. No other researchers have probed as intensively into variables pertinent to decision-making as Brim and his associates.

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[1] N. Foote and L. S. Cottrell, Identity and interpersonal competence (Chicago, Illinois: Univ. of Chicago Press, 1955), p. 86.

[2] O. G. Brim, Jr., D. C. Glass, D. E. Lavin, and N. Goodman, Personality and decision processes: studies in the social psychology of thinking (Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1962).

# CHAPTER III

## METHOD OF STUDY

This exploratory investigation is essentially a field study. In this chapter, the procedures utilized in determining decision-making styles of homemakers are described. Also included are the selection of the sample, the construction of the instruments, the field work, and the analysis of the data.

## The Selection of the Sample

The homemaker was assumed to be the decision-maker in the family with regard to the decision problems under investigation.

## Rationale for choice of the sample

Studies conducted in the United States on family decision-making have concentrated on groups who are presumably literate. Ethnic or illiterate groups have so far not been studied for this purpose. Existing instruments which have been used successfully on literate groups may not necessarily be workable across ethnic nor among illiterate groups. Consequently, studying an ethnic group with little or no formal education might furnish insight into research techniques for investigating decision-making in less developed cultures.

## Criteria for the choice of the sample

Having decided on an ethnic group for study, certain criteria for the choice of the sample homemakers within that group were set up. Three main criteria were used; namely, (1) that the homemaker be living with her husband and children at the time of study; (2) that the homemaker have children under eighteen years of age, and living at home; (3) that the homemaker and her family be living within one geographic area.

## Locating the sample

The third criterion specified that all the homemakers who constituted the sample must be residing within one particular area in Lansing or East Lansing and not scattered over the two towns. Convenience was of secondary importance in setting this criterion of interviewing. Rather, the criterion of residence contiguity was thought to control socio-economic class, as indeed it did. Information furnished by the Family Welfare Agency led to the location of such a group.

## Choosing the sample

The Family Welfare Agency furnished a list of thirteen families of Mexican descent who presumably spoke English and were living within one area. The investigator paid a visit to the families from whom information about other Mexican families living in the vicinity were obtained. A total of 25 Mexican families were living in

the area spanned by ten streets (Table 1).

Table 1--Distribution of the Total Population and the
Sample by Streets in the Sample Area.

| Street | Total population | Study sample |
|--------|------------------|--------------|
| A | 2 | 0 |
| B | 2 | 2 |
| C | 1 | 1 |
| D | 4 | 3 |
| E | 4 | 2 |
| F | 1 | 0 |
| G | 3 | 3 |
| H | 4 | 2 |
| I | 4 | 3 |
| Total | 25 | 16 |

Of these twenty-five households, twenty-three

households were visited since one family's whereabouts

were not known until the close of the field work and an-

other was immediately known not to meet the second cri-

terion. Of the remaining twenty-three households, one was

dropped since the husband did not express his desire to

allow his wife to cooperate. Two others did not meet

the "completeness" criterion, a third homemaker was a

widow living alone but who had her grandchildren occasionally
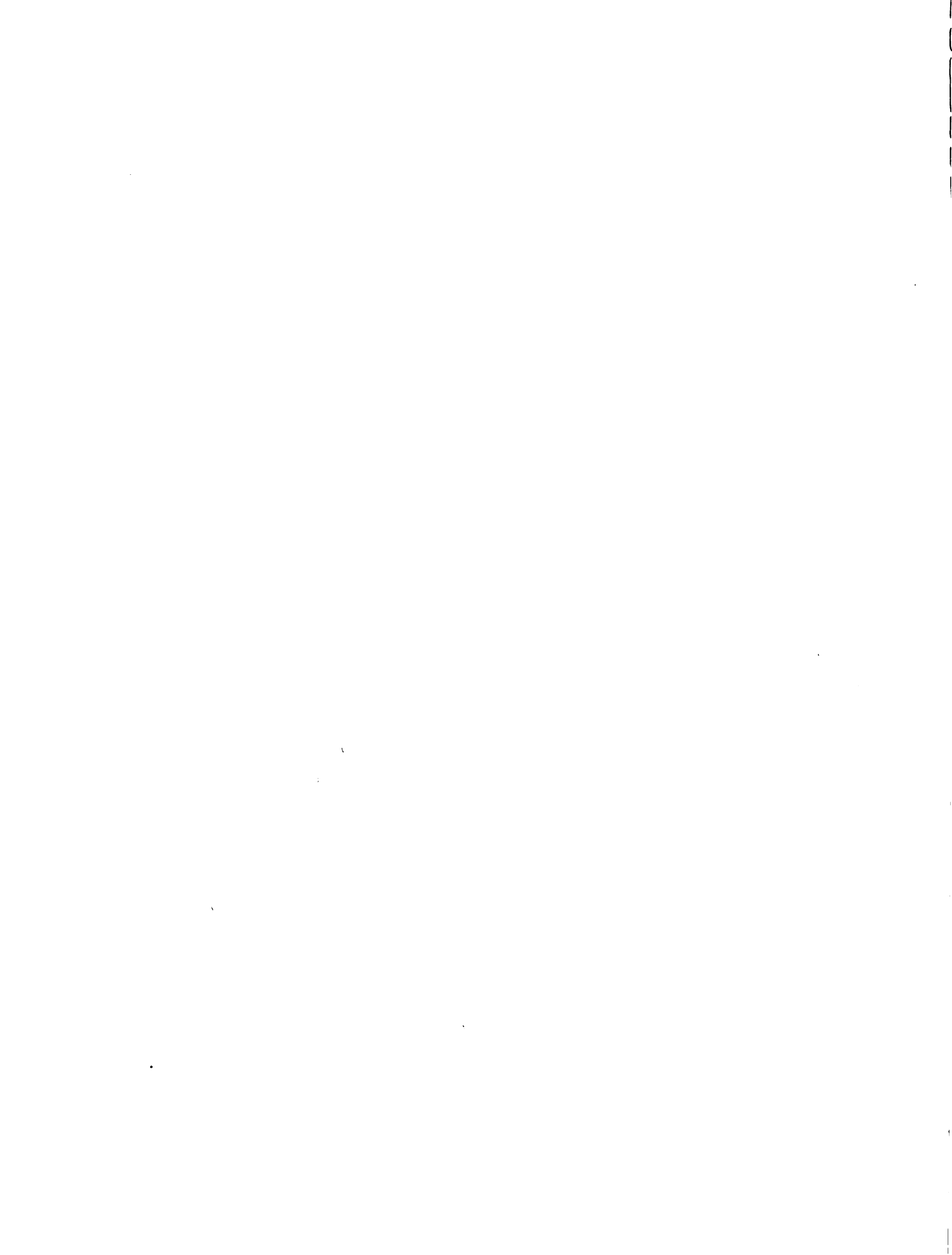
with her.[1]  Another family moved out of the sample area
before the research was completed leaving no address.
One homemaker was taken ill during the latter part of the
study.  Of the remaining seventeen families who qualified,
one was the trial family used consistently throughout the
study for developing and testing the research instruments.
Consequently, sixteen respondents constituted the sample.

## Development of the Instruments

In this section, the instruments used and how they
were constructed are discussed.  Since the focus of the
study was decision-making style, the main instrument for
researching this is described in great detail.  Other
instruments which described the decision-maker and her
world are also included.

### The hypothetical problems

One way of generating an on-going process for
study is to present a hypothetical situation for resolution.
In field research, this technique is employed in studying
values, personality, and attitudes.  For purposes of this
research, it was planned to use a hypothetical situation
as the instrument for generating spontaneous responses of
the homemaker.  It was thought that this type of instrument

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[1] The group lived in an unincorporated area between
Lansing and East Lansing.  Their houses were situated
south of Kalamazoo - spanning ten streets, from Clippert
to South Hayford.

could elicit responses which reflect decision-making style within an observable span of time. To insure that this function be accomplished, the hypothetical problems had to be carefully constructed.

This required establishing certain criteria for culling decision problems. The criteria established were:

(1) that the problems be meaningful to the sample families being interviewed;

(2) that the problems be managerial rather than personal in nature;

(3) that the problems be non-repetitive and non-routine.

Since the purpose of the hypothetical problem was to elicit response on how a choice was made, it was necessary to construct problems which were realistic and, at the same time, met the criteria formulated. Typical managerial problems were collected from homemakers and their husbands in a university housing neighborhood. These persons consisted of both native-born Americans and foreigners. The researcher supplemented this information with her own knowledge of different income groups in her native country, the Philippines, and constructed six problems. The problems were spread over areas of family life and over levels of concern, from the trite to the complex, from the technical to the human. They included tasks regarding an emergency, school, assigning housework, choice of a trivial good, a financial problem, and a vague

situation (see appendix I). These problems were tested in a university housing neighborhood and revised for con- ciseness and simplicity. They were all written in English. They were then tested with the selected trial family.

In general, the problems did not prove meaningful to the trial homemaker. On the basis of criterion number one, all, except the financial problem, were then rejected. This financial problem, although meaningful, elicited a response of personal nature. Hence, it was also rejected. The meaningfulness and the apparent concern of the trial homemaker with finances led to the adoption of a financial decision problem with a managerial undergirding.[1] This was again tried with the trial homemaker. The presenta- tion of the problem was modified somewhat from the original. The revised hypothetical problem was:

"Suppose your family's yearly income is $4,000. how would you use the money?"

"If you had to divide this money for your living expenses, how would you do it?"

"Now if your income were increased by $1,000. what would you do?"

The responses elicited choices rather than how choice was made. Consequently, the instrument was rejected for it

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[1] A decision was considered managerial when it necessitated an integration of many aspects and its effects reached out to the other members of the organiza- tion.

did not meet the purposes of the research. However, be-cause the problem gave insights into financial behavior of the families it was decided to continue administering it to everybody for another purpose. The construction of an instrument needs more than a cursory knowledge of the people with whom it is to be used. Hence, as more was learned about the people, it was possible to construct a workable and acceptable set of problems.

Keeping the original criteria in mind and with an increased knowledge of the group acquired through making a series of home visits to the sample families, three problems were constructed. These were translated into Spanish, tested, and used. The hypothetical problems used were:

Problem A. For quite sometime now, the family has felt a need for a washing machine. The mother can not finish washing all the clothes for her four children, her husband and herself without getting a back ache. They have an old, broken machine. School has just started and they naturally have too many expenses.

Problem B. The mother has been working out for quite a while now. She likes her work and the money she gets. The husband, however, likes her to stay home so he can sleep well before going back to work at night. He cannot do this now because he has to attend to the children.

Problem C. Ironing in the family has piled up for about three weeks because the mother has been working in

the fields for two weeks. The twelve year old daughter does not seem to like doing the ironing.

The three hypothetical problems, which shall henceforth be referred to as decision problems, were used as stated.

The following questions were asked after each decision problem was stated:

(1) What could be done in this situation?

(2) Which would you consider the best and second best thing to do? Which the worst? Why?

(3) If you were faced with the same problem, what would you do? Why?

(4) Have you ever experienced this problem? What did you do then? (If a discrepancy was observed in 4 and 3, then more probing followed.)

Before giving the decision problems a hypothetical family was described to the homemaker. The hypothetical family consisted of a couple and their four children, a girl aged twelve, and three other younger ones, aged four, two, and one. The head of the family was the husband who held a steady night job in town.

The hypothetical family approximated in large measure a typical family in the sample. The choice of the characteristics, however, was tempered by other considerations: for example, the number of children was far from the mean for the group. It was thought, however, that it was best to use this size since most of the families, at

one point or another, had had this number of children.

The age range of children was an important aspect of the problem. The twelve-year old girl was deliberately introduced so that the problems could be more meaningful since children were found to participate a great deal in family work.

All these aspects contributed toward the usefulness of the hypothetical problem. Well-constructed problems made possible the attainment of the primary objective of the study: that of probing how a choice was made, the decision-making process.

### Incomplete sentences, open-ended questions, questions on basic information.

The other instruments used were aimed at a secondary objective, that of understanding the decision-maker and her world. These instruments included a forty-five sentence completion test, a set of open-ended questions, and questions to elicit basic personal and family character-istics. (Appendix II) Attitudes, role conception, a picture of the day, and demographic characteristics were some of the factors which were needed in understanding these homemakers so that meaningful hypothetical problems could be formulated.

The sentence completion test attempted to get at attitudes towards children, parents, siblings, homemaking tasks, money, time, and their concept of decisions. As a

supplement to the demographic data, these responses reveal-
ed the homemakers' attitudes.

Role perceptions were derived from responses to
open-ended questions such as:

In your opinion, what should a homemaker be? What
are her most important duties? What do you expect of a
husband? These questions were expected to elicit the
homemaker's view of her role in the family and her percep-
tion of the husband role.

Provisions were made for gathering demographic data
on education, literacy and ages of husband and wife, stage
of family cycle, mobility, religious affiliation, occupa-
tion, sources of income, and organizational membership.

All instruments were translated into Spanish be-
cause not everybody in the sample spoke English.[1]

## Collection of Data

The field work was conducted by the researcher,
either alone or in the company of an interpreter who had
had some interview experience in Guatemala with a nutri-
tion survey group. A tape recorder was used for collect-
ing data on family life histories, role conception, des-
cription of the day, and responses to the decision prob-
lems. The field work started on July 5, 1962 and terminated

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on September 25, 1962. This time range included making

preliminary contacts and interviewing, as well as the con-

structing and testing of the instruments.

Entree and establishing rapport

Since the researcher did not know everybody's name,

she rapped at the door without previous notice. She was

readily accepted, especially after she introduced herself

to the families by saying:

> "I am a student at the University here at --------.
> I would like to ask your help with my study of
> families."

When pressed by the respondents why the researcher chose

them, the reply was:

> "I am interested in how families live in the
> United States who are more or less like
> Filipinos. I think that of all the groups here,
> you are similar to us."

The respondents were further assured that the data were

confidential in nature. The tape recorder's use was ex-

plained and demonstrated to them, including the erasure

of taped data. Children in the family were allowed to

talk and this was played back to the family immediately.

The way for the interview proper was thus paved.

No homemaker, child or husband refused the research-

er's entry into their home. In one home, the husband was

insistent that the researcher come around only when he was

present. He promised to call the researcher to let her

know when he was home. He never called, hence, the family

was dropped. Eighteen homemakers were interviewed at the start but two were not able to participate in the latter part of the study for reasons already given.

## Interviewing

After the preliminary visit, the homemaker was visited at least three and at most five times. Not all of the visits resulted in gathering pertinent data. Some of the visits were made to increase rapport and gain the confidence of the homemaker. Each visit lasted from thirty minutes to as long as three and a half hours.

The order of data collection was:

Interview 1. Basic personal and family characteristics and some open-ended questions.

Interview 2. Sentence completion and typical day and some open-ended questions.

Interview 3. Life history and financial hypothetical situation.

Interview 4. The three decision problems used for collecting data about decision-making style.

All interviews were conducted in a conversational manner, in English and/or Spanish. All responses to open-ended questions, life history, and response to hypothetical problems were recorded, using a portable Panasonic tape recorder with a remote control microphone.

Each tape ran for one hour or sometimes longer. All
taped data were transcribed before more data were collected.
All non taped data were written while interviewing.

## Difficulties encountered in data collection

Minor difficulties were encountered in the course
of the field work. There was relatively little inter-
ference except for the television which was on in some
houses during the interview. The researcher, however, re-
quested turning the television off during the administer-
ing of the hypothetical problems.

Interruptions from children were few during the
latter part of the study since the older children were in
school. This was quite important particularly because it
was the older rather than younger children who tried to
participate in the interview.

Interview time was not as easily scheduled as
planned. The hours of the day in which women were willing
to be interviewed varied. Some homemakers preferred to
be interviewed when the husband was at work, which would
be after five o'clock in the afternoon if the husband
worked nights; others preferred the husband to be around.
In most cases, the wives, except those who were working,
were available between nine o'clock in the morning and
three o'clock in the afternoon. Several homemakers were
out in the fields during August and only became available
for interview in September.

Another difficulty in the interview was the weak
battery of the tape recorder, especially in the afternoon
sessions. Several tapes of open-ended questions were
lost in this way. Fortunately because the interpreter-
was present, the translated data were written down. This
situation was immediately remedied by the purchase of an
adaptor which was used when the batteries' power went low.

### Analysis of Data

The tape recorded protocol on the decision problems
was subjected to content analysis based on the categories
identified in the conceptual framework. This is a research
technique whereby the manifest content of communication is
objectively and systematically classified on the basis of
explicitly formulated rules.

### Coding rules

After developing a set of rules for coding into
pre-established categories under mode, time reference, and
rules of decision, the protocols were examined. For mode
(M) the unit of analysis was the sentence. Hence, all
answers which the respondent gave to the question "What
could be done?" and followed by "Anything else?", "Any
other suggestion?" and "What else would you recommend?"
were examined and classified according to three categories:
hypothetical $(m_1)$, factual $(m_2)$ and action-suggestive $(m_3)$.

Under mode were the following:

M. Mode

| Code | Categories | Criteria |
|------|-----------|----------|
| $m_1$ | Hypothetical | All qualified, or conditional, conjectural statements, hence, statements which used the following indicators were classified as hypothetical: either-or neither-nor maybe perhaps use of verbs of contingency |
| $m_2$ | Factual | All statements which were definite, unconditional. They either: verified stated a belief, an opinion, expressed an attitude made comparisons on basis of known things. |
| $m_3$ | Action-suggestive | All statements which prescribed what to do, identifiable with must, ought, should, would or their equivalent, without qualification. |
| $m_4$ | Unclassified | All statements which could not be classified. These were statements of expression, such as Uh! Uh! I don't know That's all! |

For time reference (T) a phrase, a sentence, a paragraph or a group of related sentences expressing one

idea was the unit of analysis. Three categories for time were identified, namely future ($t_1$), past ($t_2$), and present ($t_3$). The criteria for coding statements under each category were the following:

| Code | Categories | Criteria |
|------|-----------|----------|
| $t_1$ | Future | Predictive statements or explicit expectations of fulfillment of a future state of affairs, such as: in the future, tomorrow, when they _____. I expect to happen, if they _____ then, I ____ they, will most probably _____, denoted the future. |
| $t_2$ | Past | Statements about the traditional, the habitual, or a reference to what had gone before were considered as utilizing a past reference. Hence, all statements with I used to... I experienced .... Like what .... It's ...(job, duty, obligation) were considered past. |
| $t_3$ | Present | Statements, paragraphs, phrases which denoted the obtaining conditions, that which was on-going but not habitual, what was felt, or what was universal referred to the present. |

For decision-making rule, the total response was the unit of analysis. Only three categories of rules were identifiable. Preference ranking ($r_1$), objective elimination ($r_2$),

and immediate closure ($r_3$). The criteria for coding

statements into three categories were the following:

| Code | Category | Criteria |
|------|----------|----------|
| $r_1$ | Preference ranking | A consistency in ranking of alternatives in response to two questions indicated preference. |
| $r_2$ | Objective elimination | Limits to each alternative were immediately recognized. No one best alternative was stated, hence, there was willingness to change action when conditions called for it. |
| $r_3$ | Immediate closure | Only one action was verbalized. Limits were recognized as fixed. |

Criteria for coding under categories of other

types of objective data and those obtained by depth inter-

viewing were also set (Appendix III). A short scale form

for comparing housing conditions was also constructed

(Appendix IV).

## Summary

The procedures employed in the study were des-

cribed. Selection of the sample was discussed. Sixteen

Mexican homemakers comprised the sample for the study.

They were chosen from a total of twenty-five families who

were living within an unincorporated area within Lansing

and East Lansing. At the time of the study, each was living with her husband and had dependent children.

Data on the decision-making processes were collected using three hypothetical problems constructed and tested for eliciting information about style. Data about the homemakers were gathered by using open-ended questions, incomplete sentences, and a financial hypothetical problem. The instruments were administered in English and/or Spanish. The interviewing was done in three to five sessions, each lasting from thirty minutes to three and one half hours. The span of time covered for total interviewing was approximately three months. Responses on the hypothetical problems and open-ended questions were tape recorded.

Data were transcribed from the tape recorder and subjected to content analysis using pre-established categories. These were then analyzed for decision-making styles.

CHAPTER IV

A DESCRIPTION OF THE SAMPLE

All persons in the family may participate in
decision-making at some level. However, for purposes of
this study only the processes of decision-making used by
the homemaker were investigated. The description of the
sixteen homemakers who constituted the sample for the
study included their origin, their present world, and
their personal characteristics.

## The Homemaker's Origin

The sixteen homemakers all traced their paternal
ancestry to a Mexican father. Likewise, they traced their
maternal ancestry to Mexican blood, except one, who had an
Italian mother (Table 2). Some fathers came to the United
States either before or after the sample homemakers were

Table 2.-Parental Origin of Sixteen Homemakers.

| Origin | Father | Mother |
|--------|--------|--------|
| Mexico | 16 | 15 |
| Others | 0 | 1 |
| Total | 16 | 16 |

born. Some fathers were born and lived in a border town between the United States and Mexico. However, all homemakers identified themselves as Mexicans.

## Size of the family of orientation

In general, the families of orientation were large. Six of the families had had more than ten children. In only three families had there been less than six children and in the remaining families, there had been six to nine children (Table 3).

Table 3--Number of Children in Homemakers' Families of Orientation.

| Size range | Number |
|------------|--------|
| 1-2 | 0 |
| 3-4 | 3 |
| 5-6 | 2 |
| 7-8 | 3 |
| 9-10 | 2 |
| 11-12 | 4 |
| 12+ | 2 |
| Total | 16 |

## Ordinal position in the family

Most of the homemakers were middle children, three were the eldest and two youngest in the family (Table 4).

Table 4—Distribution of the Homemakers by Ordinal Position in Family of Orientation.

| Ordinal position | Number |
|---|---|
| Oldest | 3 |
| Middle | 11 |
| Youngest | 2 |
| Total | 16 |

One of the homemakers who reported being youngest in her family had nieces and nephews whom she viewed as siblings. The other youngest homemaker's mother died when she was born. Two of the middle homemakers emphasized that they were the oldest girls, which meant more responsibilities in housework and care of the family. All except two homemakers mentioned working in the fields as a childhood experience.

## Perceptions of family figures

The homemaker viewed her father as the decision-maker in the family. The father was not the sole provider for the family, however, since the mother either helped the father in the fields or did other remunerative work. Only four mothers in the families of orientation had been full-time homemakers (Table 5). It was, therefore, not the father's earning role which gave him the decision making power; rather "his word was law in the house." The father's position was accepted in the family by these

Table 5--Distribution of Parental Occupation of Sixteen
Homemakers.

| Fathers' occupation | Number | Mothers' occupation | Number |
|---|---|---|---|
| Farm labor | 9 | Full-time homemaker | 4 |
| Miner | 1 | Farm labor | 6 |
| Carpenter | 1 | Dishwasher | 1 |
| Railroad employee | 1 | Nurse helper | 1 |
| Encargado or house rent collector | 1 | Dressmaker | 1 |
| Don't remember | 2 | Died when small | 3 |
| Not reporting | 1 | | |
| Total | 16 | | 16 |

homemakers. In the majority of cases, this did not seem
to be threatening to them. This was indicated by the sad-
ness they felt when they thought of their fathers or their
desire to visit their fathers and mothers at least once
a year in spite of the distance and expense. Moreover,
the homemakers sent home small amounts of money. Further-
more, they recalled only that which was kind and good of
their fathers and likewise thought fathers ought "to be
good." Brothers and sisters were also remembered with
fondness and kindness. Children, however, were generally
regarded as "naughty."

## Their Present World

The present world in which the homemakers lived was bounded by their type of occupation and sources of income, their housing, and their daily activities.

### Mobility

The sixteen families in the sample had shifted from agricultural migrant work to fairly stationary unskilled work. As a result, they had been settled in Lansing for a number of years. Their length of residence varied, from three to twenty-three years (Table 6). Five families had lived in Lansing for fourteen years or longer, seven for about 9-13 years. Only one family had been in residence for less than four years. Generally, they had been in residence for a mean of 11.6 years.

Table 6--Length of Residence in Lansing by Sixteen Families.

| Years of residence | Number |
|---|---|
| Less than 4 years | 1 |
| 4-8 years | 3 |
| 9-13 years | 7 |
| 14-18 years | 4 |
| 19+ years | 1 |
| Total | 16 |

## Sources of Income

The families, generally, derived their income
from unskilled labor. The husbands were working as labor-
ers in the automobile or drug industry, as janitors, as
field workers, or as railroad help (Table 7). Money in-
come from this source ranged between $49 to $130 a week to
support a family consisting of two to thirteen children.

Table 7--Occupation of Husbands of Sixteen Homemakers.

| Occupation | Number |
|---|---|
| Automobile labor | 8 |
| Janitor | 2 |
| Nursery | 1 |
| Others | 4 |
| Unemployed | 1 |
| Total | 16 |

In five homes, this money income had been augmented by
the wife's earnings or the occasional earnings of the
children so that in nine homes the income was over $100 a
week at the time of the survey (Table 8). Income from
children and/or the wife ranged between $5 to $65 a week
on a regular basis or even larger during summer months
when field work was available for the older members of the
family. In addition, several families were on a welfare
bi-weekly food stipend at the time of the survey.

Table 8--Weekly Money Income From Family Members' Earnings in Sixteen Families.

| Range of weekly income | Frequency |
|---|---|
| Over 100 | 9 |
| 80-100 | 2 |
| 50-79 | 4 |
| Below 50 | 1 |
| Total | 16 |

Moreover, when incomes were low, seven families reported taking advantage of free food supplies from the Surplus Agency (Table 9). Not every one who was eligible took advantage of the dole. Of this source of income, one woman said,

> "Well, we can get supplies from the surplus. We never went .... Those who live on welfare and get these food supplies are better off than we. But when you start going, you never stop; you never get out of it."

Table 9--Number of Families Reporting Welfare and Surplus Aid by Income Groups.

| Weekly income range | Number of families receiving aid | |
|---|---|---|
| | Welfare | Surplus |
| Over 100 | 1 | 1 |
| 80-100 | 0 | 1 |
| 50-79 | 2 | 3 |
| Below 50 | 1 | 1 |
| Total | 4 | 6 |

Thus, within this group of homemakers, those who were on
welfare, although better off in some respects than the
others who were not, were regarded both with envy and
contempt. Those who worked in the automobile industry
were much better off financially than the others.

## Housing conditions

The houses in which the families lived were, in
most cases, one storied and in varied states of repair and
cleanliness. By all standards, they could be considered
poor housing. However, within the group itself, the
standard varied. To determine objectively how housing
conditions varied, the investigator developed a housing
score card consisting of seven scalable items (Appendix
III). The results of the scoring showed that housing con-
ditions varied from comparatively good to very poor (Table
10). At the time of the survey all had running water.
All except one had indoor plumbing and toilet facilities.

Table 10--Condition of Housing of Sixteen Selected Families.

| Condition of housing | Number |
|---|---|
| Fairly good | 4 |
| Fair | 6 |
| Poor | 4 |
| Very poor | 2 |
| Total | 16 |

The very poor or poor houses were generally crowded. The structures were crumbling and the occupants dreaded the coming of the cold weather because of inadequate heating and uninsulated walls. These houses had wooden unpolished, uncovered floors which were more often than not, during the four to five house visits, littered, muddy, or dusty. While the furniture was not considered in the scoring the houses, it was observed that the poor and very poor houses had the very minimum of furniture, all of it so worn out and soiled that even an attempt to cover it with frayed covers did not help. No family photographs and crocheted doilies were visible in these houses.

The fairly good houses, however, were comparatively newer structures with a basement, new or well-kept furniture, well-polished wooden floors or well-kept covered floors, adequate heating, and painted or papered walls. In these houses, the family pictures were prominently displayed in the living room. Crocheted centerpieces covered most of the tables. Calendars and religious articles lined the walls. Only two of the sixteen families were tenants; the rest were owners of their houses (Table 11).

## Sources of contact with the community and the outside world.

The homemakers and their families kept contact with the community and the outside world through telephones, television, radios, cars, newspapers and magazines (Table 12).

Table 11--House Ownership of Sixteen Selected Homemakers.

| Tenure | Number |
|--------|--------|
| Owner, fully paid | 7 |
| Owner, still paying | 7 |
| Renters | 2 |
| Total | 16 |

Each family owned a television set. In one family where a son was working regularly, the family had a second television set. All families had radios. All families except one, had second hand automobiles. Twelve families had telephones, three of which were the princess style, and were private lines. To the women, the telephone was one of their most indispensible tools.

Table 12--Sources of Contact with the Community and the World by Families of Sixteen Homemakers.

| Sources of contact | Number |
|--------------------|--------|
| Television | 16 |
| Radio | 16 |
| Automobiles | 15 |
| Telephone | 12 |
| Daily Newspapers | 9 |
| Magazines | 3 |
| Encyclopedias | 2 |

Nine families received a daily newspaper and two families had encyclopedias. Three families subscribed to one or two magazines. No special reading matter for the children was noticed.

## The homemakers' activities

The homemakers' activities for a day, as they reported them, consisted of housework, child care and husband servicing, with the emphasis on housework. Their day was divided into a morning when "they have to finish their work," and afternoons, when "they have to rest," and evenings when they "have to get the supper ready for the husband and for watching TV." One of the homemakers described her day as, "Do everything in the morning and rest in the afternoon. Then at night I watch TV some." The "everything" consisted of cooking, cleaning, and washing of clothes. Detailed reports of a day's activities were never given voluntarily. In actuality, the afternoons were used for ironing or mending or child tending in front of a television set. There was no evidence whether this constituted "rest" for them or whether it was the pace with which they did their work which defined activities which were restful.

For the working mothers the picture was quite different. Their work at home started the moment they came home from work in the afternoon, unless their working hours were arranged differently. Ironing every night was

the usual chore of the working woman of this group together with cooking or preparing the evening meal. Washing dishes, and house cleaning were apparently left for other members of the family to do. In one family where the husband was unemployed, he took over the preparation of family meals. Activities such as getting groceries, paying bills, or shopping were confined to certain days. Thus, getting groceries and paying bills were done every Friday or Saturday, since most of the husbands got paid every week.

The families paid everything in cash, not checks. No records were made of purchases. Only notations on calendars were made for paying bills. No spending plans were made. What was left after bills such as house payment, light, water, telephone, gas bills and some installments were paid was what the family spent. There was no amount set aside for all other items of expenditures. Aside from the union savings and social security which were forced on seven families, the homemaker and her husband had made no provisions for the future. In only two families was any mention made of educational financial plans for the children. Summer field work by wife and children was usually looked forward to because the earnings provided for school expenses or for certain house repair.

Most of the furnishings and the equipment that the homemakers' families owned were purchased on an

installment plan. While many expressed a dislike for credit, they used it when they wished.

## Their present families

At the time of the study these homemakers took care of a varying number of children (Table 13). Ten families had 3-6 children. In eight families, there were more girls than boys, in one family the three were all girls.

Table 13--Number of Children of Sixteen Homemakers.

| Number of children | Number |
|---|---|
| 1-2 | 1 |
| 3-4 | 5 |
| 5-6 | 5 |
| 7-8 | 3 |
| 9-10 | 0 |
| 11-12 | 1 |
| 13+ | 1 |
| Total | 16 |

In nine of the families the youngest child was under two years old; in the remaining seven families the age of the youngest ranged between two to sixteen (Table 14). Two families had married children living away. The age of the eldest child varied tremendously, from four to twenty-eight years (Table 15).

The age gap between the oldest and the youngest child varied between 3.6 years to twenty years, although those with a shorter gap have an eldest child of a very young age (Table 16). At the time of the study then, the child bearing stage of these families was as long as twenty years. Over time it would be enlightening to study the child bearing pattern and its effects upon home management.

Table 14--Ages of Youngest Child of Sixteen Homemakers.

| Age range | Number |
|-----------|--------|
| Under 2 | 9 |
| 2-5 | 2 |
| 6-10 | 4 |
| 11-16 | 1 |
| Total | 16 |

Table 15--Ages of Eldest Child of Sixteen Homemakers.

| Age range | Number |
|-----------|--------|
| Below 5 | 1 |
| 5-8 | 5 |
| 9-12 | 1 |
| 13-16 | 4 |
| 16-19 | 3 |
| 20+ | 2 |
| Total | 16 |

Because of the time span between the eldest and the youngest child, the concept of the stage of the life cycle based on the coming and going of children might be quite difficult to use for other ethnic groups. These results seem to indicate that, perhaps, the stages need to be defined differently so that categorizations could be applied cross-culturally.

Table 16--Span of Years Between the Eldest and the Youngest Child of Sixteen Homemakers.

| Year span range | Number |
| --- | --- |
| Less than 4 | 1 |
| 4-6 | 6 |
| 7-9 | 4 |
| 10-12 | 1 |
| 13-15 | 1 |
| 16-18 | 2 |
| 19+ | 1 |
| Total | 16 |

## Personal Characteristics of the Homemakers

This section will describe the characteristics of the homemaker as a person. It will, therefore, include age, length of education, occupation, religious affiliation, and view of role in the family. For picturing the kind of homemakers who were the decision-makers in this

study, both open-ended questions of the projective type, a hypothetical situation type, and several incomplete sentences were used. A descriptive analysis of the responses are included in this section.

## Age, education, and occupation

Table 17 shows the distribution in age of sixteen homemakers.

Table 17--Age Distribution of Sixteen Homemakers.

| Age range | Number |
|-----------|--------|
| 21-25 | 3 |
| 26-30 | 2 |
| 31-35 | 5 |
| 36-40 | 2 |
| 41-45 | 3 |
| 46-50 | 1 |
| Total | 16 |

The homemakers' ages varied between twenty-four to fifty years, with a mean of thirty-two. Five were below thirty-one years of age and four beyond forty, with the rest concentrated in the 31-40 age range.

These women varied in formal education. Five of the sixteen women had had no formal schooling and five had gone beyond the sixth grade, but nobody had finished high school. The mean years of schooling was 4.5 years

(Table 18). Four of those who had had no formal education
could neither read nor write.

Table 18--Length of Formal Schooling of Sixteen Homemakers.

| Years of schooling | Number |
|---|---|
| 0 | 5 |
| 1-3 | 2 |
| 4-6 | 4 |
| 7-9 | 4 |
| 10+ | 1 |
| Total | 16 |

Eleven of the sixteen homemakers were full-time
homemakers (Table 19). Within this group, however, there
were those who worked in the fields during the summer
months and those who ironed for pay in the home. Five of
the homemakers who held regular jobs were employed as
follows: in a commercial laundry establishment, in a
hotel as a dishwasher, in a restaurant as kitchenhelp,
and in well-to-do home as housekeeper. At one time or an-
other in their married life, all homemakers had done some
remunerative work, either as a field worker, cashier, a
laundry helper, or a restaurant hand.

Religious affiliation

The religious affiliation varied (Table 20). The
majority of the homemakers reported that they were

Table 19--Occupation of Sixteen Homemakers.

| Occupation of wife | Number |
|---|---|
| Full-time homemaker | 11* |
| Laundry | 2 |
| Others | 3 |
| Total | 16 |

*Includes five who did field work during summer months only and one who ironed at home for pay.

Table 20--Religious Affiliation Reported by Sixteen Home-makers.

| Religious affiliation | Number |
|---|---|
| Catholic | 11 |
| Protestant | 3 |
| Latin American Christian | 1 |
| Seventh-Day Adventist | 1 |
| Total | 16 |

Catholics but some of them said they never went to church regularly nor did they contribute regularly to the church. With the exception of one couple, the husband had the same religious affiliation as the wife.

Their view of the ideal homemakers' role

In reply to question, "In your opinion, what should a homemaker be?", six role functions were mentioned;

namely, worker, family servicer, dispenser of affection, resource regulator, family promoter and home beautifier. Generally, the homemaker viewed herself more as a worker and a family servicer than anything else (Table 21).

Table 21--Role of the Homemaker as Viewed by Sixteen Homemakers.

| Functions | Number |
|---|---|
| Family service | 12 |
| Housework | 10 |
| Affectional dispenser | 3 |
| Resource regulator | 3 |
| Promotive function | 2 |
| Aesthetic function | 4 |

Of the sixteen homemakers, three homemakers mentioned only one function, half mentioned two functions each, four mentioned three functions, and one, four functions (Table 22).

Table 22--Number of Functions Mentioned by Sixteen Homemakers.

| Functions | Homemakers |
|---|---|
| 1 | 3 |
| 2 | 8 |
| 3 | 4 |
| 4 | 1 |
| Total | 16 |

While the worker role was emphasized, nine homemakers specified the affectional role of the homemaker. As one homemaker said, "a homemaker should show love for her family, show interest in her children." And when one homemaker included "... teach children to respect you ..." or "let my children get education," the role perceived had certainly gone beyond cooking and cleaning. Furthermore, three homemakers saw their functions of control over resources of the family as illustrated in these responses:

> "... I am able to manage ... I buy things only which my children and I can use a little longer." HM 11*

or "... I never buy things cooked except cereal. They are expensive. Or when I buy meat, I buy more cheaper." HM 19

Aesthetics were rarely mentioned. Liking cleanliness or " ... beautify my house..." and not wanting... "house to be dirty and let people find it that way" were some indicators of this function.

Emphasis on children rather than husbands was noticeable. The children were mentioned by twelve homemakers, whereas the husband was mentioned only by eight.

The responses to incomplete sentence: "Homemakers are supposed to ..." supported the previous finding that

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*HM denotes homemaker in the sample.

work was considered the main function of the homemaker.
In this instance, only two homemakers deviated from the
general, mentioning "being good" and "being a good wife."
One homemaker did not respond to the incomplete sentence.

When their perception of what husbands expect of
wives was asked, the tendency to mention work persisted.
Four homemakers, however, mentioned much more personal
traits, such as "be intelligent," "be neat," and "be a
good woman," and "be nice to him."

From the responses of the homemakers, it was evi-
dent that they saw themselves as approaching their concept
of the ideal homemaker. This was substantiated by their
descriptions of a day.

The homemakers' wishes and desires

The concerns of these women were revealed in their
responses to the question, "If you could change into any-
one, what would you like most to be?"

Apparently, five of the homemakers were quite
satisfied with themselves and their life, for they wished
for nothing (Table 23). These were the homemakers who
expressed satisfaction in their lot and those who said
they could not change themselves. Except in one instance,
the women did not generally mention any need or wish to
improve on homemaking skills or knowledge. Change regard-
ing the self revealed that these women were preoccupied
with things beyond the ordinary and the common, revealing

some unfulfilled desires, some need to express themselves,

to reach out beyond the mundane. Thus, one homemaker said,

> "I would like to have learned to play the
> piano. Just enjoy the kids. You'll soon
> be alone." HM 5

Table 23--Expressed Wishes and Desires of Sixteen Home-
makers.

| Expressed wishes and desires | Number of homemakers |
|---|---|
| Wish for the self | 6 |
| Satisfaction with one's self | 5 |
| Wish for children | 3 |
| Wish for the material | 3 |

A feeling of loneliness and a desire to overcome

it was expressed. Or maybe, as in another instance, a

desire for achievement, another kind of reaching out into

a world other than one's own was exemplified in these

responses:

> "I like to be a minister. I always want to
> help others. But, of course, I cannot."
> HM 19

or this,

> "I wish, I could be a secretary in a big
> nice office." HM 9

Or a great concern with ridding one's self of trouble and

avoid facing problems such as one woman who said,

> "Sometimes, I wish I could be a bird so I
> can just fly off." HM 13

But to another group of homemakers, material
goods, in one way or another, fulfill them. Security,
comfort, and conveniences were their concerns. "To buy a
large coffee pot," "to buy a house in Texas," "to get
lovely things, to buy a farm" expressed these concerns.

## Summary

The origin, present world, and personal charac-
teristics of sixteen Mexican homemakers were described.
With one exception, the homemakers traced their ancestry
to a completely Mexican background. They were middle
children of fairly large families. As children, they had
worked at home and/or in the fields. Their fathers had
been primarily agricultural workers and their mothers had
augmented the family income by renumerative work in the
fields or elsewhere.

The homemakers' present situation had shifted
from migrant agricultural work to a fairly stationary
type of unskilled labor.

Their means of contact with the community were
their telephones, their cars, their newspapers, their
television sets and radios. Their religious activities
were confined to occasional church-going.

The homemakers' day consisted of housework, family
service, and watching television. They cared for a fair-
ly large family with more girls than boys. However, in
two families about half of the children were married and

lived separately. They had no plan for the day nor any spending plan. Nor did they keep records or use checks.

These homemakers were comparatively young, with little or no schooling. They were full time homemakers who went out for summer field work or took jobs when the family needed more money. They viewed their role primarily as a worker and a family servicer with comparatively less attention given to the role of dispenser of affection, re-source regulation, or the promotive or aesthetic functions. They seemed satisfied with their present life although a few expressed a wish to do something other than their present role, while others wished for material possessions. No mention was made of improving homemaking skills or knowledge.

CHAPTER V

ELEMENTS OF DECISION-MAKING STYLE

The conceptual framework for this study theo-
retically and operationally defined three elements of
decision-making style.  Forty-eight different responses
were elicited from three decision problems and these pro-
vided the data for determining the elements of style.
The results are reported in this chapter.

## Mode

One element of decision style is mode.  Mode is
the distinctive way of developing ideas in a decision sit-
uation.  How these ideas are brought into the process and
how they are structurally related to one another is indi-
cative of how a decision proceeds.  Since these processes
are not observable, mode is represented by the way ideas
are verbally stated.

Three problems were posed for the sixteen home-
makers to solve.  The question "What could be done?" was
asked after each problem was given.  A content analysis
was made of the forty-eight responses.  The dimensions of
mode identified were:  hypothetical, factual, and action-
suggestive.

## The hypothetical dimension

When ideas were stated conditionally, conjecturally
or doubtfully, the dimension of mode was considered

hypothetical. Three hundred and twenty-five statements expressing mode were made. Forty-eight of these statements expressed a hypothetical dimension of mode. (Table 24) These were statements of doubt, dependency, conjecture, conditionality as described in the criteria on page 46.

Table 24--Frequency of Use of Mode Dimensions in Forty-
Eight Responses.

| Dimension of mode | Frequency |
|---|---|
| Factual | 178 |
| Action-suggestive | 99 |
| Hypothetical | 48 |
| Total | 325 |

The forty-eight hypothetical statements were contained in twenty-six of the forty-eight responses to the dimension problems (Table 25). In these twenty-six responses the hypothetical mode was used at least once and as often as four times.

Table 25--Number of Responses Using Mode Dimensions.

| Dimensions of mode | Number |
|---|---|
| Action-suggestive | 46 |
| Factual | 41 |
| Hypothetical | 26 |

Four of the forty-eight responses exhibited a hypothetical mode (Table 26).

Table 26--Frequency of Distribution of Forty-eight
           Responses by Mode.

| Mode | Number |
|------|--------|
| Factual | 23 |
| Action-suggestive | 13 |
| Hypothetical | 4 |
| Equally factual as action | 3 |
| Equally hypothetical as factual | 2 |
| Equally hypothetical as action | 2 |
| Equally hypothetical-factual-action | 1 |
| Total | 43 |

Moreover, the hypothetical dimension occurred equally with other mode dimensions in five cases; two were hypothetical-factual combinations and two were hypothetical-action combinations and one was tridimensional. Of the four responses with hypothetical mode, two were tridimensional and two bidimensional. No response with a hypothetical mode manifested only one dimension (Table 27).

The four responses which were hypothetical in mode, revealed the homemakers' ability to see relationships. Hence, the decision-maker did not view these problems as isolated ones that could be resolved independent of influences, conditions, or limitations. Rather,

—

Table 27—Frequency Distribution of Responses According
to Occurrence of Mode.

| Mode | Number of dimensions occurring | | | Total |
|------|---|---|---|-------|
| | X | Y | Z | |
| Hypothetical | 2 | 2 | 0 | 4 |
| Factual | 12 | 11 | 0 | 23 |
| Action-suggestive | 4 | 4 | 5 | 13 |
| Equally - others | 4 | 4 | 0 | 8 |
| Total | 22 | 21 | 5 | 43 |

X/ 3 dimensions in each response
Y/ 2 dimensions in each response
Z/ only one dimensions in each response

exploration and alerting to component parts of the problem were a prelude to the analysis that followed. While the analysis of each possibility was not intensive, the appraisive attitude was apparent. Furthermore, the decision-maker's growing awareness of limits to decision enhanced her view of the non-absoluteness of deciding. In fact, limits or conditions under which the decisions were made did not seem to take on the aspect of recognizing consequences. This is illustrated in the responses of two homemakers to the question "What could be done?" to two problems:

> "Depends. Probably, both have to work. Or well, if he makes enough money, she don't need to work. Stay home. If they are

"paying something: furniture, house,
car ... she should work and he should
be more considerate with her. But
depends on case. I think I know it
is hard, if they have kids. I am
sorry for him."     HM 5, Pr. B

"I advise her to go to the laundry. If
I have washing machine of my own, I
could offer it to family. I do not
know what else to tell, if they don't
have the money."     HM 1, Pr. A

In both cases, the acts were shown to be condition-

al. An exploration of the various conditions in which

problems could possibly be met and the growing awareness

of the relationship thus involved were evinced by the two

homemakers. The alternatives were geared more to the

condition than to the consequence, although an implicit

consequence was derivable from the statements.

## The factual dimension

When ideas about things observed, sensed or

apprehended were stated conclusively, or unqualified by

anything, then the mode of the statement was considered

factual. No explicit nor verbal relations between action-

suggestion and conditions were given.

Twenty-three of the forty-eight responses re-

vealed the factual mode. Beside these twenty-three res-

ponses the factual mode appeared equally with other modes

in six responses (Table 26, p. 76). Of these responses,

almost as many exhibited all three dimensions of mode as

those which exhibited two dimensions. No response with

factual mode manifested only one dimension (Table 27, p. 77).

The twenty-three responses which were factual in mode, were similar in their definitiveness. Each response showed a dominant tendency toward the use of what was perceived. Thus, the decision maker more or less saw the problem in light of facts she had; her opinions, her beliefs, her attitudes, her experiences and observations. The situation did not seem to matter. What mattered was how facts were perceived; if they worked in one situation it was felt they could work in another situation. For example, the response to the question "What could be done?" indicated this:

> "Get a new one (washing machine) ... I had
> an old refrigerator. It broke. I called
> repair man. He charged $60. The motor
> burned ... For $60, it is too expensive
> to have it fixed."
>                                     HM 4, Pr. A

## Action-suggestive dimension

When action was directly suggested in a statement, the mode was considered action-suggestive. These suggestions could either assert or negate an act.

Thirteen of the forty-eight responses revealed an action-suggestive mode. In addition, the action-suggestive dimension occurred in four other responses in combinations with the factual or the hypothetical dimension. One decision was tri-dimensional (Table 26, p. 76).

Of these responses, four were tri-dimensional, four bi-
dimensional and five were purely action-suggestive
(Table 27, p. 77).

The responses with action-suggestion had very
little or no verbalized exploration of the problem.
The problem tended to remain as a whole without component
analysis or elaboration and without speculation. Typical
responses showing this mode in the three decision prob-
lems were:

> "All she could do is take the clothes to
> laundrette downtown ... Get a washer woman
> to wash ... Or take to relatives ..."
> <div align="right">HM 2, Pr. A</div>

or in this:

> "She has to find time for ironing little by
> little. Or force the girl, the 12 year
> old to do all the ironing ... what she is
> able to do. She also can send clothes to
> be ironed out by somebody."
> <div align="right">HM 7, Pr. C</div>

> "Wife shouldn't work at all. Or else she
> should have some help."
> <div align="right">HM 13, Pr. B</div>

In their totality, the statements were prescrip-
tive. A sense of action pervaded them which, then, be-
came the foundation of the decisions. The conditions
under which each act could be performed were not mention-
ed. They probably would come later as the decision
developed. The homemakers seemingly considered these
alternatives as discrete entities.

## Mode summary

In general, the dimensions of mode were identifiable but appeared more frequently in combination rather than as discrete entities. The factual mode appeared most frequently and the hypothetical mode, the least frequently. Six of the forty-eight responses manifested two modes. One response showed an equally tridimensional character. In no case did the factual and the hypothetical mode occur by themselves. The action-suggestive mode occurred in isolation in five responses. This seemed to indicate that the action-suggestive mode tended towards independence.

## Time Reference

One element of decision-making style is its time reference. It is the ability to see events and phenomena in a time relationship, reaching back to the past and progressing through and extending into the future. No decision is independent of time for a decision always occurs in and with time. It is this perception of time relationship which gives meaning to events. For purposes of this research, this ability is reflected in the time reference verbalized. The emphasis to time reference becomes evident as a person makes decisions.

## Future reference

References to consequences whether they were either immediate or long-range in nature were classified

as future reference. Examination of the data showed
that future reference dominated three of forty-eight res-
ponses to the three decision problems. This time refer-
ence appeared equally with the present reference in
five responses, with the past, in one response and with
the past and present in one response. Hence, ten res-
ponses showed some future reference (Table 28).

Table 28--Time Reference in Forty-eight Responses by
Problems Solved.

| Time reference | Problem | | | Total |
| | A | B | C | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Future | 1 | 1 | 1 | 3 |
| Past | 3 | 3 | 1 | 7 |
| Present | 10 | 8 | 13 | 31 |
| Equally Future-Past | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| Equally Future-Present | 1 | 3 | 1 | 5 |
| Equally Future-Past-Present | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| Total | 16 | 16 | 16 | 48 |

Mention of the future was made eighty-eight times,
by the sixteen homemakers (Table 29). The inclination,
however, was toward an immediate rather than a distant
consequence.

Forty-two responses contained some mention of the
future. No mention of the future was made in six responses
(Table 29). In those responses which mentioned future

Table 29--Frequency of Mention of Specific Future Refer-
ence in Forty-eight Responses.

| Specific future reference | Frequency |
|---|---|
| Immediate consequence | 61 |
| Far-reaching consequence | 27 |
| Total | 88 |

Immediate consequences were stated twice as many times as were far-reaching consequences. This result indicated that there were responses in which distant consequences were not explicitly mentioned.

Table 30--Number of Responses Mentioning Specific
Future Reference.

| Specific future reference | Number of Responses | |
|---|---|---|
| With future reference | | 42 |
| Immediate consequence | 36 | |
| Far-reaching consequence | 17 | |
| Without future reference | | 6 |
| Total | | 48 |

The three responses which had future reference (Table 23) clearly showed a prediction of consequences which were more realistic than imaginative. The question "Why?" in one instance, drew this response:

"If she waits for a few days till it is fixed, then no expense. If new washing machine, then new expense." HM 9, Fr. A

This showed a distinct bridging between an act and a predicted consequence, the "if-then" ideal type. Not all consequences were so neatly stated, however. One homemaker, for example, said:

> "The best is for her to quit. She can take care of the children and the husband gets more sleep. I don't like hiring a baby-sitter. She has to pay and what she gets, she pays."
>
> HM 14, Pr. B.

The alternatives and the predicted consequences were stated in the context of the immediate, including knowledge of the situation in which she lived.

One other decision which showed the relationship of bridging the past and the future was stated thus:

> "She has to learn to work. My mother forced us. But next time, no more. We work ... When she go marry, nobody do her job. When mother dies, nobody come to do her job."
>
> HM 19, Pr. C

Thus, present action with its roots in the past was invested with a far-reaching value that extended into the future. This transformation of the past into an expectation of tomorrow gave meaningful continuity to this decision.

In two instances, HM 5 implied the value of waiting and thinking to get what she wants. But the product rather than the experience seemed indicated as in the following response:

> "That's what I'll do first. Go to the laundry for the clothes to think it over - maybe to buy a washing machine."
>
> HM 5, Pr. A

and in quite another vein, she said,

> "If both work, they'll have a little more
> money. But if she doesn't, then they'll
> be a little tight, real tight but depends ...
> If she continues working, not happen very
> good — maybe just fight." HM 5, Pr. B

Forecasting rather than certainty is indicated.
The self became detached. The past was relegated to the
background and only the potential action and the probable
outcome of this action were mentioned.

## Past reference

Tradition, habitual behavior, and experience
either by the decision-maker or as recounted by others
constituted the past reference of present behavior.

Past reference dominated seven out of forty-eight
responses (Table 28, p. 82). It also appeared equally
with future reference in one response and with future and
present reference in another.

Of these specific past references, personal ex-
perience was the most frequently mentioned (Table 31).
Personal experience was mentioned forty-seven times, and
tradition was mentioned fifteen times. Habitual behavior
and recounted experiences of others were reported seven
and six times, respectively.

Thirty-four responses made mention of the past.
Personal experience was mentioned in half of the responses.
Habitual behavior was mentioned only in four instances.

Table 31--Frequency of Mention of Specific Past Reference in Forty-eight Responses.

| Specific past reference | Frequency |
|---|---|
| Personal experience | 47 |
| Tradition | 15 |
| Habitual behavior | 7 |
| Recounted experience by others | 6 |
| Total | 75 |

No past reference was evinced in fourteen responses (Table 32).

Table 32--Number of Responses with Specific Past Reference

| Specific past reference | | Number of responses |
|---|---|---|
| With past reference | | 34 |
| Personal experiences | 24 | |
| Tradition | 6 | |
| Recounted experience of others | 6 | |
| Habitual behavior | 4 | |
| Without past reference | | 14 |
| Total | | 48 |

The seven responses with predominantly past reference (Table 28) showed how experience, tradition, and habitual behavior were carried over and unquestionably became the reference for behavior. Homemakers 4 and 9 behaved consistently in this respect. Note the

experience carryover in this response:

> "Get a new one. You know, I had an old
> refrigerator. It broke. I called repair
> man. He charged $60. The motor burned.
> So I decided to buy a new one. For $60
> it is too expensive to have it (referring
> to washing machine) fixed."HM 4, Pr. A

This illustrates how experience was transferred from one area to another similar area and then extended to affect the present. Tradition's role appeared in this solution:

> "... That's her place and her duty - to
> take care of her children, and the
> house. If she's out, nobody will do
> things. Husband should not do it. If
> she's home, everything cared. That's
> all."
> HM 9, Pr. B

Tradition not only determined the solution but also brought moral undertones that reinforced the solution. "Duty" and "husband should not do it" strengthened the whole inference that woman's place is in the home. Thus, in many ways tradition had become internalized and directed the tone of living. Customary and time-honored norms of behavior had become the main source of authority, one characteristic of a past time orientation. The past by itself is not what is emphasized. Rather, like the Navaho, "... the Past is the source of important knowledge and by looking back in an orderly way one can maintain continuity, keeping the Present stable and the Future predictable...."[1]

---

[1] F. R. Kluckhohn, and F. L. Strodbeck, *Variations in value orientations*, Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peterson and Company, 1961, p. 326.

Present reference

Immediacy of need, feelings, opinions, evaluations, and the circumstances or situations obtaining were used as references of present behavior. Data indicated that, the majority of responses had a present reference (Table 28, p. 82). The present time reference occurred equally in five responses with the future reference and with the future and the past reference in one response.

Of the specific present references, the circumstances obtaining predominated. Opinions, feelings and evaluation of events were made thirty-six, thirty, and thirty-four times, respectively. Need was the least mentioned (Table 33).

Table 33--Frequency of Mention of Specific Present
          Reference.

| Specific present reference | Total |
|---|---|
| Circumstances obtaining | 65 |
| Evaluation of events | 36 |
| Feelings | 30 |
| Opinion | 24 |
| On-going events | 21 |
| Need | 16 |
| Total | 192 |

The present was mentioned in forty-six responses.
No present reference was explicitly mentioned in two
responses. "Circumstances" were mentioned in thirty-
three responses and "need" in eight responses (Table 34).

Table 34--Number of Responses with Specific Present
Reference.

| Specific present reference | Number of responses |
|---|---|
| With reference | 46 |
|   Circumstances obtaining | 33 |
|   Feelings and wishes | 22 |
|   Evaluation of events | 20 |
|   On-going events | 17 |
|   Opinion | 15 |
|   Need | 8 |
| Without present reference | 2 |
| Total | 48 |

The inclination towards the use of what was
felt or sensed or apprehended at the moment of deciding
indicated an awareness of the here and the now. Present
reality more than imagined tomorrow had greater effect
on the decisions. What was happening around her parti-
cularly gave life to decisions as one homemaker's reason
to her decision revealed:

> "I have a neighbor who does that (hire a
> babysitter). She's not like a mother.
> A babysitter can't take care of them well -

> sometimes feed, sometimes not. Then
> children get sick. And what she makes
> will go to doctor only."HM 15, Pr. B

The above homemaker's observation coupled no less with

an opinionated illustration showed her present refer-

ence.

Reference to need, though not as common with the

sample as was voiced in this reason to an action, thus:

> "... because I need to do it if I have no
> money to get machine." HM 6, Pr. A

Thus Homemaker 6 exemplified a decision forced by need.

Need became the ever-persistent present which asked for

an immediate action. It might have been a need brought

about by the past but not necessarily requiring an action

based on the past. The present reference need not be

occasioned by gratification alone. In decision-making

an evaluation of what were on-going events, a change

from the old to the "new" somehow had bearing on a prob-

lem. For example, a homemaker said:

> ".... Nowadays, it's different. Before I
> used to do all. Now a 15-year old does not
> know how to wash dishes."HM 13, Pr. C

The changes occasioned by time had been accepted

and used as a basis for decision. The past still crept

in but the present state became the focus of decision.

## Summary of time reference

The present tended to be referred to, in general

more often than the past or future. References to the

present were made twice as frequently as reference to the future and two and a half times as many as to the past. These 192 present references were made in forty-four responses; the eighty-eight future references, in forty-four responses; and the seventy-five past references, in thirty-four responses.

The present reference tended to emphasize the circumstances existing at the time of the decision. The future emphasized immediate consequences, and the past emphasized personal experiences.

When dominancy of time reference was determined, the present dominated in thirty-one responses and occurred equally with other time references in another six responses. The past dominated in seven, and the future, in three. Each of them occurred equally with other time references in two and seven responses. In general, therefore, the time element of decision process used was primarily the present with emphasis on circumstances existing.

## Decision-making Rule

The third element of a decision style is decision-making rule. In any decision-making, the person atrives to arrive at a closure. The overall procedure used in discriminating between alternatives in order to arrive at a choice was considered the decision-making rule. Three rules were identified from the forty-eight

responses made in this study; namely, preference ranking, objective elimination, and immediate closure.

## Preference ranking

When closure was reached by choosing one's best alternative from alternatives arrayed in their rank order, a decision rule identified in this study as preference was utilized. Twenty-three of forty-eight responses were reached in this manner (Table 35). The responses tended to be directive rather than diffused, as shown by the persistence of the choice of the best alternative. Furthermore, these manifested an uncompromising stand. For example, the following homemaker's response shows preference ranking:

"It is the mother's job to stay home.
If it is necessary, find somebody else
to take care of children. If there is
a member of the family to take care of
the children, its alright, very good.

"The best is for her to quit work. The
children and the husband must be cared
for. The worst is to get an outside
person to take care of the family because
its hard to trust your family to her.

"In my own case, I like to stay home.
It's my job. If I work, nobody will
take care of the home and the family.
Now that the children are all grown up
I work. I like work. Like my daughter
she worked. She had her baby. Her hus-
band says to quit. But they told her she
can come back anytime." HM 1, Pr. B

These decisions reached by preference ranking could mean that the homemakers were guided by a more or

Table 35--Frequency Distribution of Responses by Decision-
making Rule.

| Decision-making rule | Number of responses |
|---|---|
| Preference ranking | 23 |
| Objective elimination | 18 |
| Immediate closure | 5 |
| No closure | 2 |
| Total | 48 |

less stable set of preferences to which they consciously
or unconsciously clung. They appeared to be open to
more than one possible course of action, although they
were quite certain about what they preferred as shown by
the consistency of their rankings and reasons in the
solutions of the problems.

Their decisions imply that these women knew for
a fact that given a choice, this is what they would cer-
tainly do. There is a prediction of the future in
light of their preferences much more than in light of
possible conditions prevailing. There is clear cut
resolution relative to which of the possible alternatives
is "best" and which is "worst". Such arrival at closure
required knowledge of what they considered important in
light of the consequences to which each action might
lead. The focus is the realization of some preference of
the decision-maker rather than consideration of the sit-
uation.

Objective elimination

When the "best" alternative is seen in light of conditions existing so that no one is viewed as "best" under all circumstances, then the decision-making rule used is objective elimination. Eighteen of forty-eight responses used this rule of objective elimination (Table 35).

The decisions reached by objective elimination manifested a reliance on situations related to the problem. Decision by objective elimination manifested a tendency to be adaptive to conditions as perceived. Moreover, the use of this rule showed a willingness for further change since what was described as "best" depended upon the circumstances. Let us note, for example, the reply to the question, "What could be done in this situation?" by one homemaker.

> "Depends. Probably both have to work. Or well, if he makes enough money, she don't need to work. Stay home. If they are paying something: furniture, house, car, well she should work and he should be more considerate with her. But depends on case, I think. I know its hard if they have kids. I'm sorry for him.

> "If both work, they'll have a little more money. But if she doesn't, then they'll be a little tight, real tight but depends. If she continues working, not happen very good. Maybe just fight.

> "Most of the wives stay home. Spanish people have lots of kids ... When my husband was working at night, he gets up at 9:20-10. I keep them quiet for a little while. Tell stories. For summer, I let them out. I experienced this too, so I know.

"For me, I'll probably work for a while.
And then if I get tired of his complain-
ing, I'll stop. You'll have to take care
of the kids ... Some people can sleep with
noise, some cannot. That's my husband.
Not me, I can't sleep with any kind of
problem."

HM 5, Pr. B

Since only verbalized behavior was the basis for
this statement in regard to a hypothetical situation, the
terminal point might not necessarily have been reached
by the decision-makers. It could be probable that the
hypothetical problem necessarily drew a detached analyti-
cal response.

## Immediate closure

The third rule of decision is immediate closure.
Since no other alternative except that which was express-
ed was given, decisions by this rule may not be consider-
ed a decision at all. But what is verbally expressed
may not necessarily indicate everything that was con-
sidered. Thus, it is assumed that there had been implicit
alternatives in the decision but that the one which had
been immediately given was the result of a speedy screen-
ing in the individual's mind. Five of forty-eight deci-
sions were reached by immediate closure.

The decisions using the immediate closure rule
were characterized by one immediate suggested action,
followed by the basis for this action. This decision-
making appeared simplified. In actual situations, an
apparently immediate decision need not necessarily be

immediate. An accumulation of experience, pleasant or
unpleasant, a keen observation of what others have gone
through or a real familiarity with the problem shortens
or eliminates the period of exploration, thus fosters
the immediacy of the action. The decision, however, may
not necessarily be firmly based. The decisions made,
might require considerations of aspects of the problem
which would not necessarily be verbalized. For example,
one homemaker used immediate closure in this response:

> "Stay home. My husband does not work.
> If you have a husband who works, then
> stay home. Like my sister, she was
> working in laundrette. Her husband
> worked nights. She was working in
> laundrette. Husband does not like.
> She likes/ Well, I could if he likes
> you to quit. She doesn't like. She
> quit, anyway."

What would you do? Why?

> "Better to quit to avoid trouble. You
> know."
> HM 5, Pr. B

Summary of decision-making rule

The third element of decision-making style is
decision-making rule. This rule pertains to a way by
which a resolution is reached in a decision problem.
Preference ranking, objective elimination, and immediate
closure comprised the decision-making rules examined in
forty-eight decisions.

In approximately one half of the responses, the
decision-making rule used was preference ranking. This

indicated that the decisions were directive, that is, the decisions manifested a persistence in the choice of an alternative. The results seemed to indicate that the decision-makers had a stable set of preferences, thus the uncompromising stand.

About a third of the responses were based on objective elimination. This indicated that the situation in this instance was viewed as important in determining what was "best." Decisions were thus adaptive and seemingly detached.

Only a few decisions used immediate closure. This indicated that the problems given under the conditions of the study enabled the homemakers to see alternative choices and express them explicitly.

# CHAPTER VI

## DECISION-MAKING STYLES

This chapter discusses how the elements of decision-making style are interrelated. These elements are mode, time reference, and decision-making rule. Their interrelationships are referred to as decision-making styles.

### Predicted Decision-making Styles

In the conceptual framework presented, each element was assigned a symbol; namely, M for mode, T for time, and R for decision-making rule. The dimensions of each element were denoted by the following symbols:

| Mode (M) | Time reference (T) | Decision-making rule (R) |
|---|---|---|
| Hypothetical - $m_1$ | Future - $t_1$ | Preference ranking- $r_1$ |
| Factual - $m_2$ | Past - $t_2$ | Objective elimination - $r_2$ |
| Action-suggestive - $m_3$ | Present - $t_3$ | Immediate closure - $r_3$ |

With three dimensions for each of the three elements, a possible 3x3x3 or twenty-seven relationships could be predicted as shown on page 99. Of these twenty-seven possible relationships, however it was predicted that three distinct ones would emerge from the empirical study; namely,

1. A hypothetical-future reference-preference ranking style expressed as $m_1 t_1 r_1$ and identified as

hypothetical oriented style:

2. A factual-past reference-objective elimination style expressed as $m_2 t_2 r_2$ and identified as factual-oriented style; and

3. An action-present reference-immediate closure style expressed as $m_3 t_3 r_3$ and identified as an action-oriented style.

Schema I. Theoretical Styles for Three Trichotomous Elements.

| Interacting mode (M) and time reference (T) | Decision-making rule (R) | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | $r_1$ | $r_2$ | $r_3$ |
| $m_1 t_1$ | $m_1 t_1 r_1$ | $m_1 t_1 r_2$ | $m_1 t_1 r_3$ |
| $m_1 t_2$ | $m_1 t_2 r_1$ | $m_1 t_2 r_2$ | $m_1 t_2 r_3$ |
| $m_1 t_3$ | $m_1 t_3 r_1$ | $m_1 t_3 r_2$ | $m_1 t_3 r_3$ |
| $m_2 t_1$ | $m_2 t_1 r_1$ | $m_2 t_1 r_2$ | $m_2 t_1 r_3$ |
| $m_2 t_2$ | $m_2 t_2 r_1$ | $m_2 t_2 r_2$ | $m_2 t_2 r_3$ |
| $m_2 t_3$ | $m_2 t_3 r_1$ | $m_2 t_3 r_2$ | $m_2 t_3 r_3$ |
| $m_3 t_1$ | $m_3 t_1 r_1$ | $m_3 t_1 r_2$ | $m_3 t_1 r_3$ |
| $m_3 t_2$ | $m_3 t_2 r_1$ | $m_3 t_2 r_2$ | $m_3 t_2 r_3$ |
| $m_3 t_3$ | $m_3 t_3 r_1$ | $m_3 t_3 r_2$ | $m_3 t_3 r_3$ |

To determine whether these predicted styles were manifested in the decisions to three problems reached by sixteen homemakers, each decision was examined for the predominancy of the elemental dimensions. Then the

relationships of one element to another were noted. The forty-eight decision styles were then analyzed for similarities and differences.'

## Empirical Decision-making Styles

The resulting styles varied as noted in Schema II. In the forty-eight responses, two groups of styles were distinguished, one that showed multidimensional elements and another that consisted of unidimensional elements. The multidimensional or complex style showed equal bidimensionality or tridimensionality in one or more elements.

Thirty-four responses manifested a unidimensionality and twelve presented multidimensionality (Table 36). Two decision patterns were unclassified since the decision-making rule did not occur. The two former groups of styles were analyzed separately.

## Unidimensional styles

The thirty-four unidimensional styles were classified according to the theoretical style map (Schema I, p. 99). The following twelve distinct styles emerged,

$m_1t_2r_1$        $m_2t_1r_1$        $m_3t_2r_1$

$m_1t_3r_1$        $m_2t_2r_2$        $m_3t_2r_3$

            $m_2t_2r_3$        $m_3t_3r_1$

            $m_2t_3r_1$        $m_3t_3r_2$

            $m_2t_3r_2$

            $m_2t_3r_3$
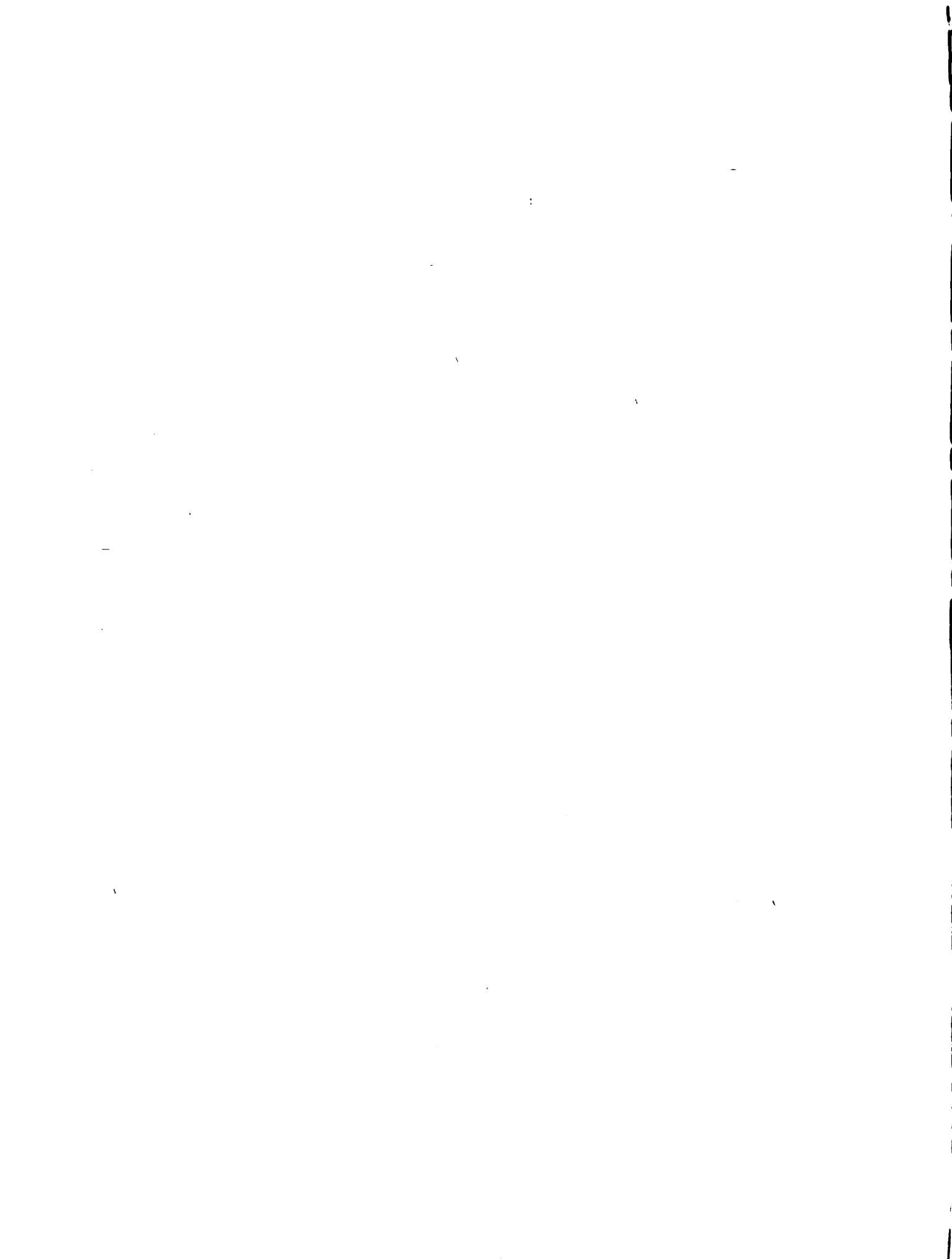
Schema II--Decision-making Styles of Sixteen Homemakers for Decision to Three Problems.

| Homemaker | Decision-making style Problems | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | A | B | C |
| 1 | $m_{1\,2}t_3r_2$ | $m_1t_2r_1$ | $m_{1\,2}t_3r_2$ |
| 2 | $m_2t_{1\,2}r_1$ | $m_3t_{1\,3}r_1$ | $m_{1\,3}t_3r_1$ |
| 3 | $m_2t_{1\,3}r_2$ | $m_2t_2r_2$ | $m_2t_2r_2$ |
| 4 | $m_2t_2r_3$ | $m_2t_{1\,2\,3}r_3$ | $m_2t_2r_2$ |
| 5 | $m_2t_3r_2$ | $m_1t_{1\,3}r_2$ | $m_3t_3r_2$ |
| 6 | $m_2t_3r_1$ | $m_1t_3r_1$ | $m_2t_3r_1$ |
| 7 | $m_3t_3r_1$ | $m_2t_3r_1$ | $m_2t_3r_1$ |
| 8 | $m_3t_2r_1$ | $m_2t_3r_2$ | $m_2t_3r_2$ |
| 9 | $m_{1\,2\,3}t_1r_2$ | $m_{2\,3}t_2r_3$ | $m_3t_3r_1$ |
| 11 | $m_2t_3r_1$ | $m_2t_3r_1$ | $m_2t_3r_1$ |
| 12 | $m_1t_3r_1$ | $m_3t_3r_1$ | $m_{2\,3}t_3r_2$ |
| 13 | $m_2t_3r_1$ | $m_3t_3r_1$ | $m_3t_3r_2$ |
| 14 | $m_{2\,3}t_3r_2$ | $m_2t_1r_1$ | $m_3t_3r_1$ |
| 15 | $m_2t_2r_-$ | $m_2t_3r_3$ | $m_3t_3r_2$ |
| 16 | $m_3t_3r_-$ | $m_3t_2r_3$ | $m_3t_3r_2$ |
| 19 | $m_2t_3r_2$ | $m_2t_3r_1$ | $m_2t_1r_1$ |

Only one of the three predicted styles emerged, the factual-oriented style identified as $m_2t_2r_2$. When empirical relationships were mapped on the theoretical set of profiles, cells for $m_1t_1r_1$ and $m_3t_3r_3$ were both empty. The distribution of the thirty-four decisions among the twelve styles is shown in Table 37.

Table 36--Distribution of Types of Decision-making Styles.

| Type of decision-making style | Frequency | Percent |
|---|---|---|
| Unidimensional | 34 | 72.90 |
| Multidimensional | 12 | 25.00 |
| Incomplete | 2 | 4.10 |
| Total | 48 | 100.00 |

Table 37 indicates that although the $m_1t_1r_1$ or a hypothetical style did not emerge, three styles approached it; namely, $m_1t_2r_1$, $m_2t_1r_1$, and $m_1t_3r_1$. These differed with the predicted $a_1t_1r_1$ in one element. These styles were evinced in five decisions.

The predicted factual-oriented style, $m_2t_2r_2$, emerged in three instances. Two other empirical styles' approached this; namely, $m_2t_2r_3$ and $m_2t_3r_2$.

Again while the predicted action-oriented, $m_3t_3r_3$, style did not emerge, four styles approached it. These were $m_3t_3r_1$, $m_2t_3r_3$, $m_3t_2r_3$, and $m_3t_3r_2$. These four styles were evinced in eleven decisions.

Table 37 also reveals empirical styles in which the elements varied. Hence, these styles did not approach the predicted three styles. These were $m_2t_3r_1$ and $m_3t_2r_1$. The factual-present-preference ranking style ($m_2t_3r_1$) emerged most frequently, 26.47 per cent.

The occurrence of each of the elemental dimensions in the twelve styles was examined to determine whether

the factual-present-preference ranking which occurred in nine decisions was an indication of an overall trend. The results revealed a striking support for a factual-present-preference ranking predominancy (Table 38).

Table 38 indicates that in the thirty-four uni-dimensional styles, the factual mode predominated to-gether with the present time reference and preference ranking. Among the dimensions of the three elements, mode, time reference, and rule, the hypothetical mode, the future, time reference, and the immediate closure rule occurred least frequently.

Table 37--Distribution of Thirty-four Unidimensional Styles Among Decision-making Styles.

| Decision-making style | Number | Percent |
|---|---|---|
| $m_1 t_2 r_1$ | 1 | 2.94 |
| $m_2 t_1 r_1$ | 2 | 5.88 |
| $m_1 t_3 r_1$ | 2 | 5.88 |
| $m_2 t_2 r_2$ | 3 | 8.82 |
| $m_2 t_3 r_1$ | 9 | 26.47 |
| $m_3 t_2 r_1$ | 1 | 2.94 |
| $m_2 t_2 r_3$ | 1 | 2.94 |
| $m_2 t_3 r_2$ | 4 | 11.76 |
| $m_3 t_3 r_1$ | 5 | 14.71 |
| $m_2 t_3 r_3$ | 1 | 2.94 |
| $m_3 t_2 r_3$ | 1 | 2.94 |
| $m_3 t_3 r_2$ | 4 | 11.76 |
| Total | 34 | 100.00 |

The occurrence of the dimensions of each element with the dimension of the other elements was also examined. This was done to determine any tendency for dimension linkage. No statistical analysis was done since only a few decisions were involved.

The interrelationships indicate that all the dimensions of mode - the factual, hypothetical, and the action-suggestive occurred most frequently with the present time reference while the factual mode occurred with all

Table 38--Distribution of Thirty-four Unidimensional Styles Among Dimensions of Three Elements.

| Element | Dimensions | | Frequency | Percent |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Mode | $m_1$ | (hypothetical) | 3 | 8.83 |
| | $m_2$ | (factual) | 20 | 58.82 |
| | $m_3$ | (action-suggestive) | 11 | 32.35 |
| | | Total | 34 | 100.00 |
| Time reference | $t_1$ | (future) | 2 | 5.88 |
| | $t_2$ | (past) | 7 | 20.58 |
| | $t_3$ | (present) | 25 | 73.53 |
| | | Total | 34 | 99.99 |
| D-M rule | $r_1$ | (preference ranking) | 20 | 58.82 |
| | $r_2$ | (objective elimination) | 11 | 32.35 |
| | $r_3$ | (immediate closure) | 3 | 8.83 |
| | | Total | 34 | 100.00 |

time references, the hypothetical mode and action-suggestive mode never occurred with the future time reference in the thirty-four unidimensional styles.

When mode and decision-making rules were interrelated, the hypothetical mode was found to occur only with preference ranking $(r_1)$, whereas the factual $(m_2)$ and

Table 39--Relationships of Elements of Thirty-four Unidimensional Responses.

| Mode and time reference | Decision-making rule | | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | $r_1$ | $r_2$ | $r_3$ | |
| $m_1 t_1$ | | | | |
| $m_1 t_2$ | 1 | | | |
| $m_1 t_3$ | 2 | | | 3 |
| $m_2 t_1$ | 2 | | | |
| $m_2 t_2$ | | 3 | 1 | 20 |
| $m_2 t_3$ | 9 | 4 | 1 | |
| $m_3 t_1$ | | | | |
| $m_3 t_2$ | 1 | | 1 | |
| $m_3 t_3$ | 5 | 4 | | 11 |
| Total | 20 | 11 | 3 | 34 |

the action-suggestive $(m_3)$ modes occurred with all rules but much more frequently with preference ranking.

The interrelationships with time reference and decision-making rules revealed that future time reference

occurred only with preference ranking whereas the past
and the future occurred with all rules. The past occurred
almost equally with all rules while the present occurred
much more frequently with preference ranking.

This trend towards factual-present-preference rank-
ing style indicated that decisions were usually made with
reliance on information stated conclusively however
limited this information might be. Such information as
was used did not show analytical putting together such as
a hypothetically-oriented individual might do. Thus the
collating, planning, and choosing of relevant information
may have been done intuitively, a level of thinking
which could not be subjected to analysis in this particu-
lar study. The present time reference revealed informa-
tion about the situation in which the homemakers lived,
their feelings and desires, and their needs. Although
experiences and consequences had not been excluded in
their decision-making, these did not seem to be of import-
ance since they were underemphasized. The responses
indicate that these women were more inclined to act in
accordance with what the present demanded. The here and
the now had precedence over tomorrow or yesterday.

The predominant style which emerged suggests
that the decision-maker had a steady set of preferences
as revealed in the consistent manner in which the choices
were made in both the detached response to the question

"How would you rank the possible solutions you gave, that is, from the best to the worst?" and "If you were faced with the same situation, how would you go about solving it?" This quite consistent selection of and reasoning for a course of action indicates a steadiness in these women's scale of preferences, whether they are fully aware of them or not. Their preferences seemed to have taken on a certain fixity, as revealed in the persistence of a pattern of solving the problem. It is possible that those who used the preference ranking role recognized immediately what was possible. They were able to limit goals thus tempering expectations. Reality rather than wishful thinking took precedence. The limits of the environment were readily recognized, and actions immediately tailored to them. The daring and adventurous spirit seemed lacking. When there is practically no gap between the level of aspiration and reality, then stability is maintained. This group of women somehow evinced this state in their decision-making style. In their day to day decisions, they probably sought that which was certain, rather than that which was not so certain. Their inclination was towards what was already known rather than what had yet to be explored.

## Multidimensional styles

Twelve responses of multidimensional or complex style were analyzed, as a separate group. The analysis was

separated to determine to what extent aside from their complexity they were different from the decision-making styles already identified.

From twelve multidimensional responses, ten distinct styles emerged. The following are the ten styles:

(2) $m_1$ $_2t_3r_2$              $m_2t_1$ $_2r_1$

     $m_1$ $_3t_3r_1$              $m_2t_1$ $_3$ $r_2$

     $m_1$ $_2$ $_3t_1r_2$           $m_3t_1$ $_3r_1$

(2) $m_2$ $_3t_3r_2$              $m_1t_1$ $_3r_2$

     $m_2$ $_3t_2r_3$            $m_2t_1$ $_2$ $_3r_3$

These ten styles were distinctly different from the twelve unidimensional styles in Table 37. Five of the styles were complex in mode and five, in time reference.

The complex patterns tended toward a factual-present-objective elimination style. The factual dimension predominated in nine responses, the action dimension in six responses, and the hypothetical, in five responses. The present time reference emerged in ten responses, the past in five responses and the future time reference in six responses. The objective elimination rule was used in seven responses, immediate action rule in two responses, and preference ranking rule in three responses.

Thus, it appeared that the complex decision style differed from the unidimensional style in that the former tended to utilize to a much greater extent the objective elimination rule whereas, the latter used preference ranking or immediate closure. The persistence

of the occurrence of the present time reference even in complex styles substantiated the findings alluded to earlier, i.e. the greatest number of emerging styles were present-oriented.

## Summary

From the interaction of the three trichotomous elements, twenty-seven styles could be expected. For the study, three styles were predicted to emerge in the decisions made by the sixteen homemakers as they solved three decision problems. These predicted styles were hypothetical, factual, and action-oriented.

The actual styles were varied. Two groups of styles became evident: the unidimensional and the multi-dimensional or the complex. Thirty-four responses were unidimensional; twelve, complex; and two responses were incomplete since no rule was verbalized.

Twelve styles were used in the thirty-four uni-dimensional responses and ten styles were used in the twelve complex responses.

Of the twelve styles only one predicted style emerged, the factually oriented style. The style on which nine responses concentrated was a factual-present-prefer-ence ranking style. The remaining responses were thinly scattered among the rest of the eleven decision-making styles.
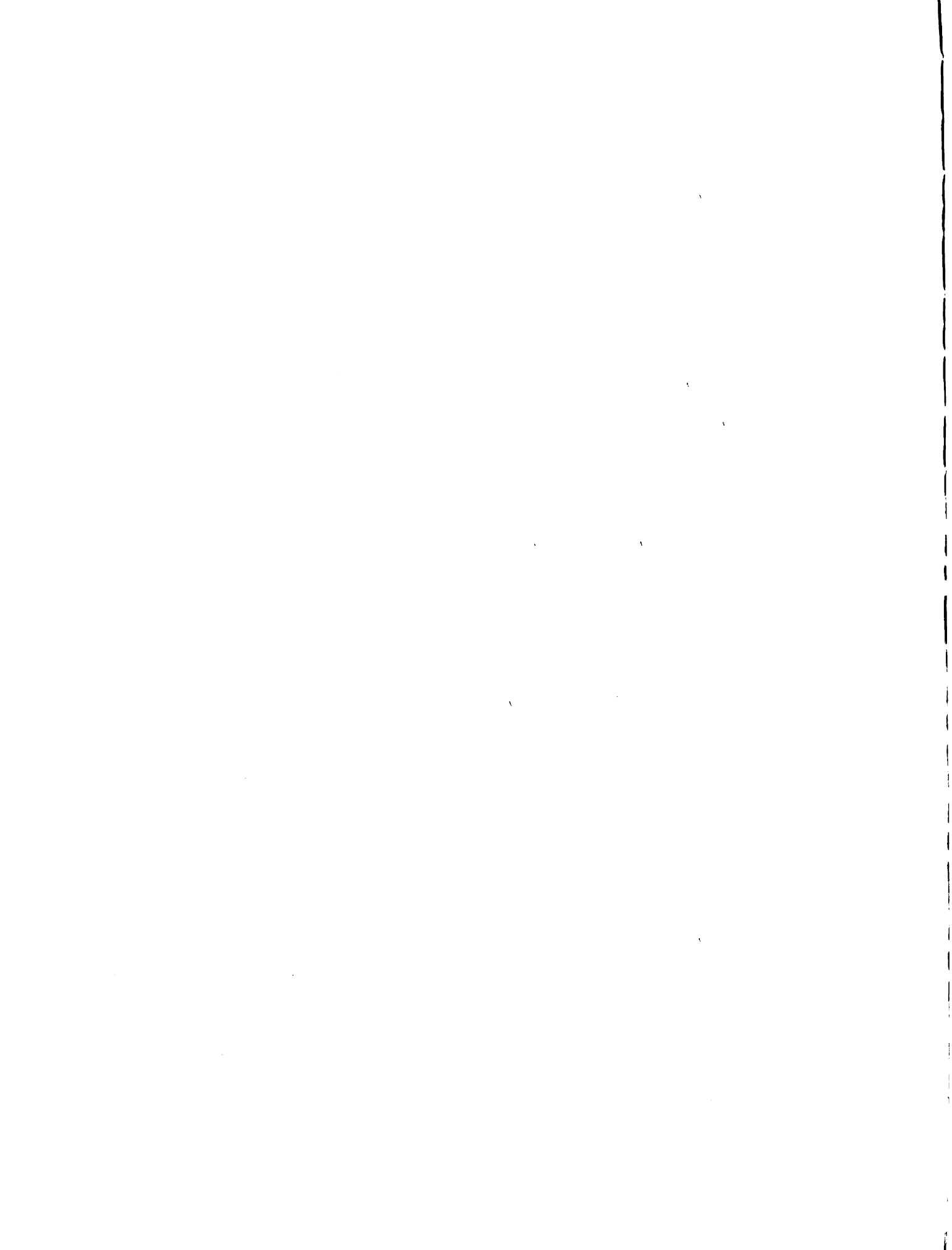
The results indicate that for predicting the emergence of styles in decision-making a larger sample, cutting across varied backgrounds and using a greater range of problems, is required.

CHAPTER VII

THE HOMEMAKERS AND THE DECISION PROBLEMS IN RELATION
TO THE DECISION-MAKING STYLES

In the previous chapter, the variations in deci-

sion-making styles were discussed. In this chapter, the

styles are examined in relation to the decision-maker (in

this case, the homemaker) and the decision problem used.

## The Homemakers and Their Decision-making Styles

Two styles of decision-making were recognized and

analyzed in the previous chapter. These types were identi-

fied as the unidimensional and the multidimensional. The

unidimensional styles were used by fifteen homemakers

(Table 40). Six of these fifteen homemakers solved all

three of the decision problems using unidimensional

styles; seven used unidimensional styles in two decision

problems; and two used unidimensional styles in solving

one decision problem. Only one homemaker did not employ

a unidimensional style.

The twelve multidimensional styles were traced to

eight homemakers, one of whom used multidimensional

styles in all three decision problems.

The specific decision styles used varied among

homemakers. Even with one homemaker, the style usually

varied from problem to problem. Ten homemakers evinced

varied styles for each problem (Table 41). Only one

Table 40--Frequency of Use of Unidimensional and Multi-
dimensional Styles in Three Decision Problems by
Sixteen Homemakers.

| Homemaker | Frequency of use | |
|---|---|---|
| | Unidimensional | Multidimensional |
| 1 | 1 | 2 |
| 2 | 0 | 3 |
| 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 4 | 2 | 1 |
| 5 | 2 | 1 |
| 6 | 3 | 0 |
| 7 | 3 | 0 |
| 8 | 3 | 0 |
| 9 | 1 | 2 |
| 11 | 3 | 0 |
| 12 | 2 | 1 |
| 13 | 3 | 0 |
| 14 | 2 | 1 |
| * 15 | 2 | 0 |
| * 16 | 2 | 0 |
| 19 | 3 | 0 |
| Total | 34 | 12 |

*In one decision problem these homemakers did not apply
decision rule.

homemaker was consistent in style for all three problems

and five homemakers had the same decision-making style

for two problems.

Table 41--Number of Homemakers who Manifested Types of
Consistency in Style for Three Decisions.

| Type of consistency | Number of homemakers |
|---|---|
| Completely consistent in three | 1 |
| Consistent in two | 5 |
| Completely varied | 10 |
| Total | 16 |

Although the decision style used by a homemaker
varied with the decision problem, the styles exhibited
similarities in the occurrence of elements. The indivi-
dual styles, therefore, of each homemaker were examined
relative to occurrence of elements. The results are
shown in Table 42.

Data indicate that nine of the homemakers had the
factual mode recurring at least two out of three times in
solving the decision-problems. Four homemakers had the
factual mode recur in all three responses. Five had the
action-suggestive mode recur in at least two responses.
One homemaker had varied modes, none of which recurred
(Table 42 and Schema III).

Thirteen homemakers had the present time refer-
ence occurring at least twice in their decision profile;
two had the past time-reference occurring twice. No re-
currence of the future was found. One homemaker had all
the time references mentioned (Table 46 and Schema III).

Table 42--Number of Homemakers with Dominancy in Elements
in Three Decision-making Problems.

| Elements dominating | Number of homemakers |
|---|---|
| Mode | |
| (hypothetical) | 1 |
| (factual) | 9 |
| (action-suggestive) | 5 |
| no dominancy | 1 |
| Total | 16 |
| Time reference | |
| (future) | 0 |
| (past) | 2 |
| (present) | 13 |
| no dominancy | 1 |
| Total | 16 |
| Decision-making rule | |
| (preference ranking) | 8 |
| (objective elimination) | 4 |
| (immediate closure) | 1 |
| no dominancy | 3 |
| Total | 16 |

All of the dominant elements for each homemaker were combined to form a style tendency for each one of the sixteen homemakers as shown in Schema III. The resulting patterns indicated twelve complete patterns and four incomplete ones. The complete patterns indicated six styles.

The complete patterns showed five homemakers with factual-present-preference ranking style. Three homemakers tended to exhibit an action-present-preference ranking $(m_3t_3r_1)$ style (Table 43).

The style tendencies seem to indicate that, given a large sample and a wider range of problems, this group of low socio-economic status homemakers would tend towards a unidimensional style. Specifically, the factual-present-preference ranking style $(m_2t_3r_1)$ seems to emerge.

## Problems and Decision-making styles

Styles were examined as they related to the three decision problems. The unidimensional and multidimensional responses were separated for this analysis. Differences for each problem and among three problems were observed.

Table 44 indicated that more unidimensional styles were used in response to problems C and B than to problem A. The kind of styles used for each problem also varied. Problem B utilized ten styles, problem C, six styles, and problem A, five styles.

Schema II--Decision-making Styles in Three Problems and Decision Style Tendency of Sixteen Homemakers.

| Homemaker | Decision-making style problem | | | Decision-style tendency |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | A | B | C | |
| 1 | $m_{1\,2}t_3r_2$ | $m_1t_2r_1$ | $m_{1\,2}t_3r_2$ | $m_1t_3r_2$ |
| 2 | $m_2t_{1\,2}r_1$ | $m_3t_{1\,3}r_1$ | $m_{1\,3}t_3r_1$ | $m_3t_3r_1$ |
| 3 | $m_2t_{1\,3}r_2$ | $m_2t_2r_2$ | $m_2t_2r_2$ | $m_2t_2r_2$ |
| 4 | $m_2t_2r_3$ | $m_2t_{1\,2\,3}r_3$ | $m_2t_2r_2$ | $m_2t_2r_3$ |
| 5 | $m_2t_3r_2$ | $m_1t_{1\,3}r_2$ | $m_3t_3r_2$ | $m_-t_3r_2$ |
| 6 | $m_2t_3r_1$ | $m_1t_3r_1$ | $m_2t_3r_1$ | $m_2t_3r_1$ |
| 7 | $m_3t_3r_1$ | $m_2t_3r_1$ | $m_2t_3r_1$ | $m_2t_3r_1$ |
| 8 | $m_3t_2r_1$ | $m_2t_3r_2$ | $m_2t_3r_2$ | $m_2t_3r_2$ |
| 9 | $m_{1\,2\,3}t_1r_2$ | $m_{2\,3}t_2r_3$ | $m_3t_3r_1$ | $m_3t_-r_-$ |
| 10 | $m_2t_3r_1$ | $m_2t_3r_1$ | $m_2t_3r_1$ | $m_2t_3r_1$ |
| 12 | $m_1t_3r_1$ | $m_3t_3r_1$ | $m_{2\,3}t_3r_2$ | $m_3t_3r_1$ |
| 13 | $m_2t_3r_1$ | $m_3t_3r_1$ | $m_3t_3r_2$ | $m_3t_3r_1$ |
| 14 | $m_{2\,3}t_3r_2$ | $m_2t_1r_1$ | $m_3t_3r_1$ | $m_2t_3r_1$ |
| 15 | $m_2t_2r_-$ | $m_2t_3r_3$ | $m_3t_3r_2$ | $m_2t_3r_-$ |
| 16 | $m_3t_3r_-$ | $m_3t_2r_3$ | $m_3t_3r_2$ | $m_3t_3r_-$ |
| 19 | $m_2t_3r_2$ | $m_2t_3r_1$ | $m_2t_1r_1$ | $m_2t_3r_1$ |

Of the twelve unidimensional styles, three were used with all problems. These were $m_2t_3r_1$, $m_2t_3r_2$, $m_3t_3r_1$. Moreover, the predominating style for problems A and B was a factual-present-preference ranking ($m_2t_3r_1$) style. For problem C, an action-present-objective elimination
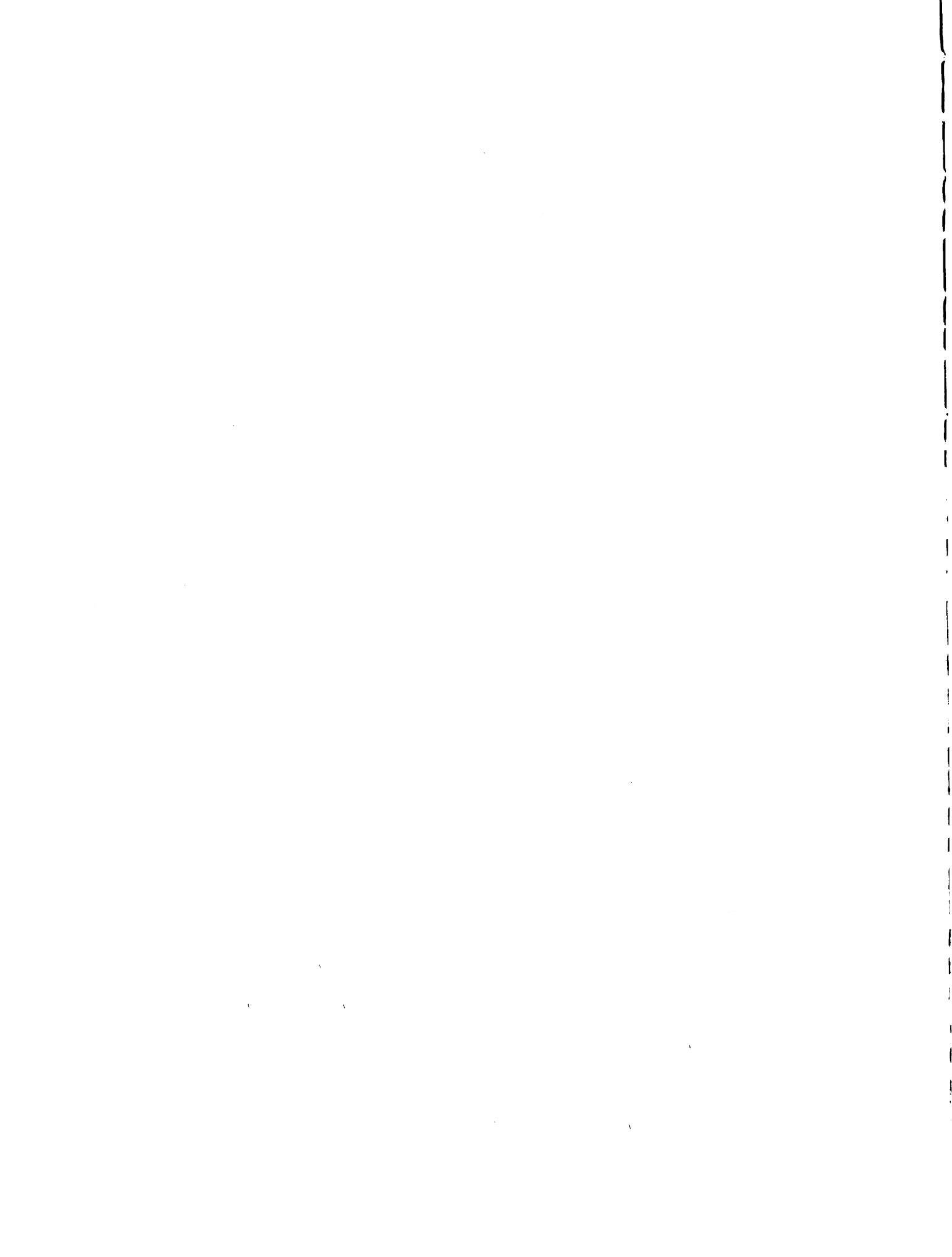
Table 43--Frequency Distribution of Twelve Complete
Decision Style Tendencies.

| Decision style tendency | Frequency |
|---|---|
| $m_2t_3r_1$ | 5 |
| $m_3t_3r_1$ | 3 |
| $m_2t_2r_3$ | 1 |
| $m_2t_3r_2$ | 1 |
| $m_2t_2r_2$ | 1 |
| $m_1t_3r_2$ | 1 |
| Total | 12 |

Table 44--Frequency Distribution of Unidimensional Style
Among Decision Problems.

| Decision style | Problem | | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | A | B | C | |
| $m_1t_2r_1$ | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| $m_2t_1r_1$ | 0 | 1 | 1 | 2 |
| $m_1t_3r_1$ | 1 | 1 | 0 | 2 |
| $m_2t_2r_2$ | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| $m_2t_3r_1$ | 3 | 3 | 3 | 9 |
| $m_3t_2r_1$ | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| $m_2t_2r_3$ | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| $m_2t_3r_2$ | 2 | 1 | 1 | 4 |
| $m_3t_3r_1$ | 1 | 2 | 2 | 5 |
| $m_2t_3r_3$ | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| $m_3t_2r_3$ | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| $m_3t_3r_2$ | 0 | 0 | 4 | 4 |
| Total | 9 | 12 | 13 | 34 |

$(m_3 t_3 r_2)$ style was most frequently evinced. No problem used the hypothetical $(m_1 t_1 r_1)$ style, but problem B used two styles approaching the hypothetical, $m_1 t_2 r_1$ and $m_2 t_1 r_1$. Problem A avoided any style with future time reference. It did not use any immediate closure as a decision-making rule. This was also true with problem C. It seemed, therefore, that of all the problems used to elicit decision-making responses, problem B provided for the use of all the dimensions of the elements in unidimensional decisions better than did problem A or C. Problem B was concerned with the working mother who was faced with a dilemma.

The ten multidimensional styles varied in distribution among the three problems (Table 45). With the exception of two styles, $m_{1\ 2} t_3 r_2$ and $m_{2\ 3} t_2 r_3$, each of which occurred in two problems, the remaining eight styles were used in only one problem. Problem A had five styles occurring; problem B, four, and problem C, three. Problem C had all its styles multidimensional in mode only, whereas the other two problems had their multidimensionality in both mode and time reference. Multidimensionality seemed to be attributed more to mode than to time. No multidimensionality of decision-making rule occurred.

Thus, in unidimensional styles, problems A and B used a factual-present-preference ranking $(m_2 t_3 r_1)$ style

but for the homemakers employing multidimensionality, the same problems had a factual-present-objective elimination ($m_2t_3r_2$) style. For problem C, the styles were, generally a factual-present-objective elimination ($m_2t_3r_2$) style and tended toward an action-present-preference=ranking ($m_3t_3r_1$) style. For the multidimensional styles, the mode seemed to be the most unstable element.

Table 45--Frequency Distribution of Multidimensional Styles in Three Decision Problems.

| Multidimensional decision-making styles | Problem A | Problem B | C | Total |
|---|:---:|:---:|:---:|:---:|
| $m_{1\ 2}t_3r_2$ | 1 | 0 | 1 | 2 |
| $m_{1\ 3}t_3r_1$ | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| $m_{1\ 2\ 3}t_1r_2$ | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| $m_{2\ 3}t_3r_2$ | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| $m_{2\ 3}t_2r_3$ | 1 | 1 | 0 | 2 |
| $m_2t_{1\ 2}r_1$ | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| $m_2t_{1\ 3}r_2$ | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| $m_3t_{1\ 3}r_1$ | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| $m_1t_{1\ 3}r_2$ | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| $m_2t_{1\ 2\ 3}r_3$ | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| Total | 5 | 4 | 3 | 12 |

It is evident, then, that in general, problem C elicited more variation in styles than did either problems A or B. It emphasized almost equally action-suggestive and factual mode and objective elimination and preference

ranking. Emphasis on time reference did not seem to vary with decision problems.

The present time reference was mentioned most frequently in all problems (Table 46). The past was mentioned least. Mention of present reference was made by almost all homemakers (Table 47). While mention of the future was less than mention of other time references, these references were made by fifteen homemakers in both problems B and C and by twelve homemakers in problem A. The past was mentioned by twelve homemakers in problem B and C and ten homemakers in problem A. The data, however, did not show any particular variation of the time reference with any of the problems.

Preference ranking was distinctly used for problem B (Table 48). For problems A and C, objective elimination and preference ranking were almost equally used. No immediate closure was used for problem C. It seemed, therefore, that problem B, concerning the working mother, aroused a greater degree of stability in preferences than either problems A or C.

Table 46--Frequency of Mention of Time Reference in Three Decision Problems.

| Time reference | Frequency problem | | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | A | B | C | |
| Future | 28 | 27 | 33 | 88 |
| Past | 26 | 24 | 19 | 69 |
| Present | 63 | 63 | 66 | 192 |

Table 47--Number of Homemakers who Used Particular Time
   Reference in Three Problems.

| Time reference | Number of homemakers | | |
| | Problem | | |
| | A | B | C |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Future | 12 | 15 | 15 |
| Past | 10 | 12 | 12 |
| Present | 14 | 15 | 16 |

Table 48--Number of Homemakers Using Decision-making Rule
   in Three Problems.

| Decision-making rule | Number of homemakers | | |
| | Problem | | |
| | A | B | C |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Preference ranking | 7 | 9 | 7 |
| Objective elimination | 6 | 3 | 8 |
| Immediate closure | 1 | 4 | 0 |
| No rule | 2 | 0 | 0 |
| Total | 16 | 16 | 16 |

## Summary

Specific decision styles varied with both home-
makers and problems. Six homemakers had completely uni-
dimensional styles and one homemaker had a completely
multidimensional style. Only one homemaker was consistent
with a style in the three problems, and ten evinced a
different style for each problem. Five homemakers had the
same style for two decision problems. Data indicate that
homemakers tended more toward unidimensionality than

multidimensionality in their decisions. Multidimension-
ality seemed to be caused primarily by the element, mode.
With a large group of homemakers, it is predicted that
styles will be unidimensional.

Homemakers varied in decision-making styles. How-
ever, five homemakers tended to have a factual-present-
preference ranking style. This result might indicate that
with a large sample factual-present-preference ranking will
emerge as the predominant style.

Three styles were used in all problems. These
were a factual-present-preference ranking style; a
factual-present-objective elimination style; and an
action-present-preference ranking style. Of the three
problems used, problem B, which dealt with the working
mother, provided for the use of all the dimensions of the
elements in unidimensional decisions. This result sug-
gests that the nature of the problem might affect the use
of elements and eventually, the resulting style.

CHAPTER VIII

SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter summarizes the results of this ex-
ploratory study on decision-making style, points out
certain limitations, and suggests implications for research.

## Summary

The researcher studied the decision-making
styles of sixteen Mexican homemakers of a low socio-
economic class in an unincorporated area of Lansing,
Michigan. The framework used included the conceptualiza-
tion of three elements of decision-making style: mode,
time reference, and decision-making rule and their res-
pective dimensions. It further predicted the emergence
of three distinct decision-making styles: the hypotheti-
cal, the factual, and the action styles from the relation-
ships of the dimensions of the three elements.

The instrument used for eliciting decision-making
responses was a set of three decision problems concern-
ing management in home situations. The researcher con-
structed, tested, and used these problems and tape-
recorded and transcribed the decision protocol. When the
protocol was in Spanish, an interpreter translated them.

A content analysis of the responses was made to
identify the elements of mode, time reference, and

decision-making rule and the respective dimensions of each using a set of formulated criteria. The resulting patterns of elements emerging from the responses were analyzed according to decision-making styles as predicted, then according to similarities in dimensionality, home-makers' consistency in style and kind of decision prob-lems.

Results indicated that the elements of decision style were identifiable in the decision protocol. Of the three modes, the factual mode emerged most frequently, the hypothetical, least frequently. Of the three time references, the present dominated the past and the future in most responses. Of the decision-making rule, prefer-ence ranking was used most frequently.

Two groups of decision styles were noted. Twelve unidimensional and ten multidimensional styles were observed.

The decision-making styles varied much more than those predicted. It was predicted that three styles would emerge; namely, the hypothetical style, consist-ing of the combination of hypothetical mode, future time reference, and preference ranking, (2) the factual style, consisting of the factual mode, past reference, and objective elimination; and (3) the action style, con-sisting of action-suggestive mode, present time reference, and immediate closure. Only one of the predicted styles,

the factual style emerged.

Decision-making styles varied with homemakers and problems. Six homemakers had completely unidimensional styles and one had a completely complex style in all three decision problems and ten had completely different styles for each problem. However, the elemental dimensions factual, present, and preference ranking recurred at least twice in responses of more than half of the homemakers.

The homemakers' styles also varied with problems. Hence, for problem B homemakers used ten styles; for problem C, six styles; and for problem A, five styles. In solving problem B, homemakers tended to use the factual-present-preference ranking style, whereas in problems A and C, homemakers tended equally to manifest preference ranking and objective elimination but also manifested the same factual mode and present time reference as homemakers did in problem B. The results suggest that the nature of the problem might affect the use of elements and eventually the resulting style.

## Limitations

The respondents' ability to verbalize, the nature of the problems used, and other factors limited the findings of the study.

## The respondents

The research design called for the thinking aloud of the homemakers. It is possible, that the respondents

might not have thought aloud throughout, that they tended
to edit what they verbalized, or that some did not know
how to verbalize what they had in mind and, therefore,
did not reveal all of their thought processes. Further-
more, their own mental processes might have been too quick
for them to verbalize. The ability to verbalize itself
is a factor in the thinking aloud instruction. Bilingual-
ity might have limited the ability of some to verbalize
even though an interpreter and a tape recorder were pro-
vided to overcome this difficulty.

## The problems

The problematic situations used did not cover the
entire range and kind of situations which a homemaker
meets. It would have been ideal to have worked on a
number of problems.

## Locale of the study

Studying homemakers' decision-making in their own
homes proved convenient for them and gave them the
security and confidence that familiar surroundings engender.
However, it is possible that negative feelings about
one's own home could have affected the responses. Know-
ledge of effects of varied home situations and a con-
trolled environmental situation could be examined by
future researchers in a similar study.

One other factor which was uncontrolled was the length of time alloted for responding to the decision problems. No attempt was made to limit or hurry the process although efforts were exerted to direct the proceedings when the respondents talked on and on.

## Implications for Research

The results indicate a need for further research on decision-making styles and their elements.

Using the same conceptual framework with sharpened categorizations, the study needs to be expanded to include a large heterogeneous group. This study would not only test the wider applicability of the conceptual framework but also would allow for comparisons of decision-making styles between or among groups. Furthermore, the results could pave the way for further study of the elemental dimensions involved that would lead to the quantification of decision-making styles.

Decision-making styles can be more precisely studied, hence, a way for setting up a scale is a real possibility.

Scaling provides a method for quantifying styles; if this is empirically achieved one can then hypothesize precise relationships of certain styles with significant variables such as types of problems, socio-economic groups, specific attitudes to time, and to clusters of

values, within the conceptualized system. Furthermore, one would then be in a position to determine the relationships between decision-making styles and home management practices or functions, resources, and involvement. Do styles of decision-making differ with the managerial function of planning, actuating, organizing, and controlling? Do styles of decision-making differ with variations in resources used? Do styles differ with the range of involvement occasioned by the decision problem? Knowledge of these differences and variations will enable those who are involved in teaching to predict decision-making behavior under specified conditions which allow for the preparation of appropriate approaches.

In scaling of decision-making style, this study suggests certain items; namely, for mode: degree of inquiry, degree of production of ideas, range of relationships; for time reference: degree of explicitness concerning a consequence; and for decision-making rule: extent of closure and degree of consistency of actions.

Another line of inquiry suggested is studying each element in depth and approaching each element in an altogether different manner. For example, mode itself could be studied in another way. In this study, the assignation of mode depended on the greatest frequency of the kind of statements used. This method needs to be scrutinized. It can be pointed out that a hypothetically

oriented individual might want to bring in factual state-
ments to support him. The more he does this, the more his
hypothetical orientation is blurred. The same is true
for an action oriented person. The assignation of mode
after a frequency count is made does not seem to be the
crucial use of hypothetical, factual, and action cate-
gories. The frequency of use of factual statements indi-
cates this.

What is perhaps important is how each kind of
statement relates to the other in a developmental sense;
which statement precedes and which statement follows.
What finer categories could be set up to differentiate
the different dimensions of decision-making rule.

Nobody has seemed to tackle the question of what
an alternative is and how this is structured. This seems
to go back to the structure of ideas. Assumptions are
made that an alternative is a possible course of action
with an outcome or several outcomes, or it is a choice,
or it is a potential action leading to a goal. One may
raise the question whether an alternative is a choice or
a possible action leading to a choice. An alternative,
may vary from the simple to the complex. It seems that
alternatives have been considered as simple constructs
when they may not be. It is perhaps how an alternative
is built, analyzed, and chosen on the basis of its identi-
fied attributes which is crucial in decision-making.

This study has suggested further possibilities
for research in both decision-making style and for each
separate element of style. Although exploratory in nature,
it has demonstrated the feasibility and productivity of
an approach, heretofore, untried in home management.

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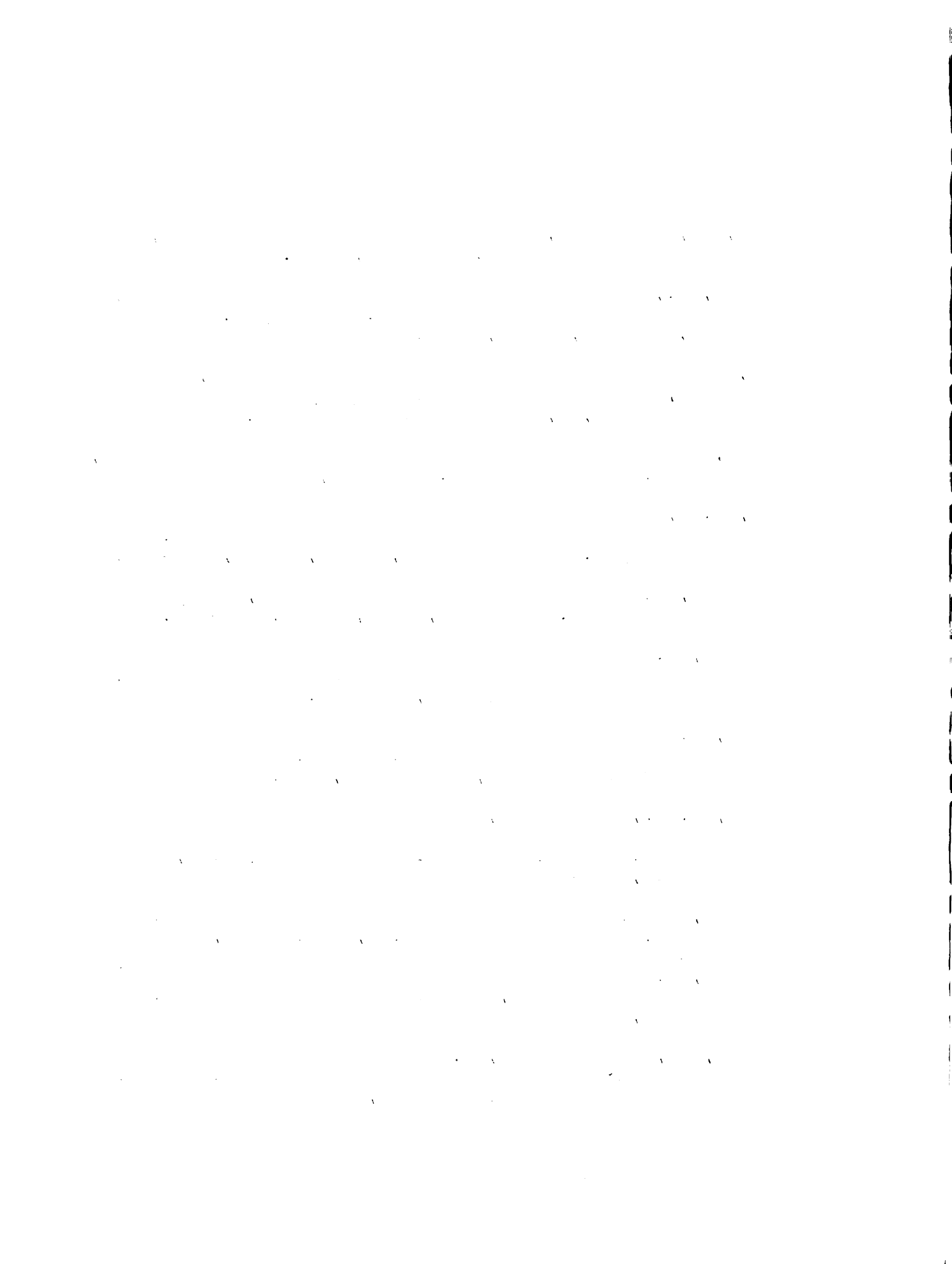
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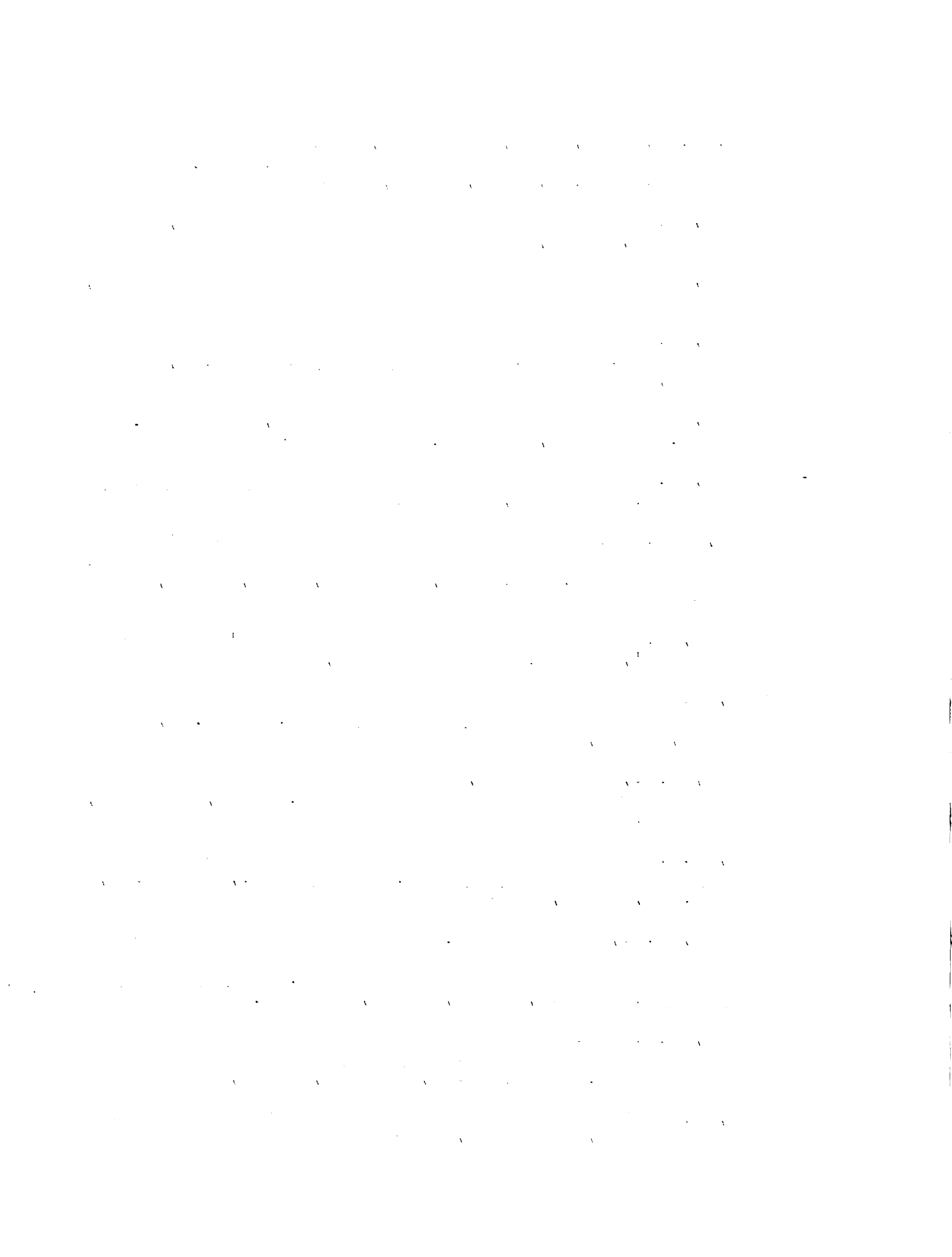
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APPENDICES

HYPOTHETICAL PROBLEMS

Here is a series of problems for you to solve. We would like you to help us out since you would know more of the problems of the homemaker here in the United States. We would like to take down in this tape recorder your answers. We feel that there is no wrong answer so we would like you to be free to give all your thoughts regarding the matter. Be free to say anything, to ask any questions to yourself, or of yourself while doing so. (Note: give the stories at random.

a. Imagine that you are a mother with two children under 10. You received $500 from a company as a result of a contest you participated in. The money has to be used in one month without any specification, otherwise, it reverts back to the company. What would you do?

b. Mrs. C. has three children all boys aged 8, 11, 13, 15. Her husband works as head janitor in a university building and is therefore out of the house before 4 every afternoon. All of the children do not help with the household chores nor with the small garden the husband just started. Mrs. C. feels that they should help but every time they do they expect to be paid. She wants to stop this business of paying the children for household chores. What would you do?

c. Imagine you are a working mother, you are not satisfied with some aspect in the management of your home. This has bothered you really and you certainly want to do something. Will you kindly share this with me?

d.  Imagine that you drove to a store to purchase
    some sewing items including a spool of blue
    thread.  Actually this was your reason for going
    down to the store so you can finish the dress
    you started last night.  You forgot your cloth
    sample and while you know that the thread is blue
    you cannot exactly recall its hue.

e.  Imagine you met somebody you quite respect and
    who knows you quite well.  You have wanted to
    talk over a problem that has been bothering you
    and you know she is just the right person, trust-
    worthy and sympathetic yet objective.  Will you
    kindly verbalize this to her.

INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE

BASIC INFORMATION:

1. Persons in the household

    _____husband
    _____wife
    _____children
    _____grandparents
    _____others

2. Ages

3. Sex

4. Marital Status

5. Formal Education

    _____grade school
    _____high school
    _____junior college
    _____college
    _____other

6. Occupation of husband

    _____professional and managerial
    _____clerical and sales
    _____service
    _____agriculture, fishery, forestry
    _____skilled
    _____semi-skilled
    _____unskilled

7. Occupation of homemaker

    _____professional and managerial
    _____clerical and sales
    _____service
    _____agriculture, fishery, forestry
    _____skilled
    _____semi-skilled
    _____unskilled

8. How long have you stayed here in East Lansing?
   (Cuanto tiempo ha vivido usted en East Lansing?)


9. Where did you live before coming to Lansing?
   (Donde vivira usted astes de mudarse a Lansing?)


10. Before that?
    (Y anteriormente?)


11. What are your reasons for moving to Lansing?
    (Porque razon se mudo usted a Lansing?)


12. Do you belong to any organization?  For how long?
    (A que asociaciones pertenece usted?)

        Church (Iglisia)
        School group (asociacion escolar)
        Club (club)
        Union (Union o obrera)
        Others (otros)


13. Aside from housework, what else do you do?
    (Ademas del trabajo domestico, que mas hace usted?)


14. Are there any particular radio programs (or TV programs)
    you like?  Why?
    (Que programas de radio y Tv prefiere usted?  Porque?)


15. Which newspapers or (magazines) do you read?
    (Que periodicos o revistas (review) lee usted?)


16. Tell me a little about the family you grew in?  Probe
    into number of sisters and brothers, her ordinal
    position in the family, who made decisions in her
    parents' family.
    (Cuantos hermanos y hermanas tiene?  Quien hace las
     decisiones en su familiar?)

17. In your opinion, what should a homemaker be?
(In su opinion, como deben ser el la senora de casa?)

What are her most important duties?
(Cuales deben ser sus deberes principales?)

18. How do you expect a husband to behave?
(Como espera que su esposo se porte?)

19. If you could change yourself to anything you want,
what would you like? What reasons do you have?
(Si usted pudiera transformarse cambiarse, y ser
locque usted quisiera, que? Por que?)


II. ACTIVITIES.

1. Tell me how a day is like in your family?
(describa como pasu el dia en su familia?)

2. How would you like your tomorrow to be like? Why
would you like it to be like this?
(Como le gustaria que fuese el futuro? Por que?)

3. How can you be sure that tomorrow will turn out the
way you want it to?
(Como sabe usted que el futuro sera como usted dice?)

4. How is your home run at present?
(Como functiono su hogar?)

5. The other day you said you wanted to _____. Did
things go like you wanted them to?
(Ayer usted dijo que queria ... Sucedio lo que usted
esperaba?)

6. If yes, what did you do to make it happen?
(Que hizo usted para logarlo?)

7. How did you feel about it?
(Como se siento?)


III. FINANCIAL PROBLEM.

"Suppose your family's yearly income is $4,000. how
would you use the money?"

"If you had to divide this money for your living ex-
penses, how would you do it?"

"Now if your income were increased by $1,000, what
would you do?"

IV. INCOMPLETE SENTENCES.

I will read to you incomplete sentences. Complete them as fast as you can and I will write down your responses.
(Las siguientes oraciones estan incompletas. Completelas tan rapido como pued as y yo escribire las respuestas.

1. When you were a child ...
   (Cuando usted era nina ...)

2. My father was in the best humor when ...
   (Mi padre estaba de mejor humor cuando ...)

3. When I was little, work at home ...
   (Cuando yo era pequena, el trabajo en la casa ...)

4. My mother used to say ...
   (Mi madre decia ...)

5. My brothers were always ...
   (Mis hermanos estaban siempre ...)

6. My sisters were always ...
   (Mis hermanas estaban siempre ...)

7. Little children are ...
   (Los ninos pequenos son ...)

8. Fathers ought to ...
   (Los padres deben de ...)

9. A well managed home is ...
   (Un hogar bien dirigido (administrado) es ...)

10. Deciding is ...
    (Decidir es ...)

11. Homemakers are supposed to ...
    (Las amas de casa se supone que ...)

12. The best part of keeping house is ...
    (Lo mejor de los quehaceres domesticos es ...)

13. Husbands expect their wives to ...
    (Los esposos esperan que sus esposas ...)

14. As a manager, one can ...
    (Como administradora de un hogar uno puede ...)

15. The most difficult decision I made was ...
(La decision mas deficil que tome ...)

16. I dislike homemakers who ...
(Me disgustan las amas de casa que ...)

17. Tasks in the home should be ...
(Los quehaceros del hogar deben ser ...)

18. If I had enough money ...
(Si you viese dinero suficiente ...)

19. Time is ...
(El tiempo es ...)

20. I dislike husbands who are ...
(Me disgustan los maridos que ...)

21. I do not like to do the deciding when ...
(No me gusta hacer las decisiones cuando ...)

22. I always ask my husband when ...
(Siempre le pregunto a mi esposo cuando ...)

23. The future is ...
(El futuro es ...)

24. When I think of my father ...
(Cuando pienso en mi padre ...)

25. What is important today is ...
(Hoy, lo importante es ...)

26. I like to be home because ...
(Me gusta estar en la casa porque ...)

27. I'd like my children to be ...
(Me gustaria que mis hijos fueran ...)

28. The most upsetting job is ...
(El trabajo mas indeseable es ...)

29. Husbands are not expected to ...
(Se supone que los maridos no ...)

30. If I could do what I want, I would ...
(Si yo pudiera hacer lo que quiero, yo ...)

31. Decisions are for ...
(Las decisiones son para ...)

32. So few have enough because ...
    (Muy pocas personas tienen suficiente por que ...)

33. I like men who ...
    (Me gusta el hombre que ...)

34. I like women who ...
    (Me gusta la mujer que ...)

35. Old people are ...
    (Los ancianos son ...)

36. To me housemaking is enjoyable because ...
    (Para mi las quehaceros domesticos son agradable por
    que ...)

37. I always feel terrible after ...
    (Siempre me siento mal despues de ...)

38. A decision must ...
    (Una decision debe ...)

39. The easiest decisions are ...
    (Las decisiones mas faciles son ...)

40. A good wife is ...
    (Una buena esposa es ...)

41. A good husband is ...
    (Un buen esposo es ...)

42. What I would like most is ...
    (Lo que mas gustaria es ...)

43. To finish my work, I ...
    (Para terminar mi trabajo, yo ...)

44. To make money last, I ...
    (Para estirar el dolar o dinero, yo ...)

45. Children ought to ...
    (Los ninos deben ...)

46. Parents are expected to ...
    (Se supone que los padres ...)

V. HYPOTHETICAL PROBLEMS.

Here is a series of problems for you to solve. We would like you to help us out since you would know more of the problems of the homemaker here in the United States. We would like to take down in this tape recorder your answers. We feel that there is no wrong answer so we would like you to be free to give all your thoughts regarding the matter. Be free to say anything, to ask any questions to yourself, or of yourself while doing so. (Note: give the stories at random.)

Problem A. For quite sometime now, the family has felt a need for a washing machine. The mother can not finish washing all the clothes for her four children, her husband and herself without getting a back ache. They have an old, broken machine. School has just started and they naturally have too many expenses.

(Desde hace algún tiempo la familia piensa que necesita una lavadora. La mamá no puede hacer el lavado de ropa para los cuatro hijos, su esposo y ella, sin que le duela la espalda. Tienen una máquina vieja y descompuesta. Las clases han empezado y naturalmente tienen muchos gastos.)

Problem B. The mother has been working out for quite a while now. She likes her work and the money she gets. The husband, however, likes her to stay home so he can sleep well before going back to work at night. He cannot do this now because he has to attend to the children.

(La mama ha estado trabajando fuera de la casa desde
hace tiempo. Le gusta su trabajo y el dinero que gana.
Pero al esposo le gusta que ella se quede en la casa para
que el pueda dormir bien antes de ir a trabajo durante
la noche. El no puede hace esto ahora, por que tiene que
cuidar a los ninos.)

Problem C. Ironing in the family has piled up for
about three weeks because the mother has been working in
the fields for two weeks. The twelve-year old daughter
does not seem to like doing the ironing.

(La ropa para planchar se ha acumulado desde hace
tres semanas, por que la mama ha estado trabajando en el
campo por dos semanas. A la hija que tiene doce anos
parece que no le gusta planchar.)

The three hypothetical problems, which shall
henceforth be referred to as decision problems, were used
as stated.

The following questions were asked after each
decision problem was stated:

(1) What could be done in this situation?
    (Que se podria hacer en esta situacion?)

(2) Which would you consider the best and second
    best thing to do? Which the worst? Why?
    (Que le parece a usted que seria mejor hacer
    en primer lugar? Yen segundo? Que seria
    lo peor? Por que?

(3) If you were faced with the same problem, what
    would you do? Why?
    (Si usted tuviera el mismo problema que haria?
    Por que?)

(4) Have you ever experienced this problem?
What did you do then?
(Alguno vez ha tenido este problema?  Que
hizo?)
(If a discrepancy was observed in 4 and 3,
then more probing followed.)

CATEGORIES AND CODING FOR THREE OPEN ENDED QUESTIONS

A. In your opinion, what should a homemaker be?

Code

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| a | Worker | $a_1$ | household work |
| | | $a_2$ | do everything in the house |
| | | $a_3$ | clean the house |
| | | $a_4$ | wash the clothes |
| | | $a_5$ | cook appetizing meals for all |
| | | $a_6$ | others |
| b | 1. Child care | $b_1$ | care of children |
| | 2. Child discipline | $b_2$ | don't let them run around |
| | 3. Husband care | $b_3$ | care of husband |
| | | $b_4$ | see to their needs |
| c | Affective function | $c_1$ | love them |
| | | $c_2$ | show interest in them |
| | | $c_3$ | should be home |
| | | $c_4$ | watch over family |
| d | Resource regulation | $d_1$ | see that both ends meet Use of resources properly See that money is sufficient |
| | | $d_2$ | Tell children what to do and give orders |
| | | $d_3$ | Others |
| e | Promotive function | $e_1$ | teach them to respect you |
| | | $e_2$ | so they will learn |
| | | $e_3$ | educate them |
| | | $e_4$ | see to their welfare |
| f | Aesthetic function | $f_1$ | take care and beautify maybe, cleanliness |

B.  How do you expect a husband to behave?

Code

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| a | Provider of basic needs | Work out<br>Provide for family<br>Pretty good worker pays attention to work<br>Brings home check<br>Gives everything I want<br>Thinks about the house |
| b | Helper around house | Repairs<br>Help around once in a while<br>Take care of the house |
| c | Companion | Be good husband<br>Be more in the house, not go out a lot<br>Always nice with me, with kids<br>Bring kids fishing<br>Be good to me, be home early |
| d | Thoughtful | Gives me what I need as surprise |
| e | Children disciplinarian and care | Spank children<br>Help me with children |
| f | Boss | Tells us, not him<br>Rests not work<br>Should know something<br>Decides |
| g | Others | Not to drink<br>Not to go out with women<br>Mine is lazy |

C.  If you could change yourself into anything you want, what would you like?

Code

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| a | Satisfied with self | Can't change<br>Nothing<br>As I am<br>Happy<br>As a homemaker |

<u>Code</u>

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| b | With skill | I wish I can sew<br>Be good<br>An animal<br>Play piano<br>Be secretary |
| c | Not with one self<br>with children | Be minister<br>Education of children<br>Buy a farm for children |
| d | With self but | Purchase of house<br>Purchase of mat. goods<br>Lovely things |

## SCORE CARD FOR HOUSING

| Items | Three point scale | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | 2 | 1 | 0 |
| 1. Age of house | 9 years or less | 10+ | 20+ |
| 2. Condition of painting or papering of walls | v. well | starting to fade | faded (torn) splattered |
| 3. Condition of floor or covering | wall to wall | linoleum | none |
| living room condition | good | bit faded and used | warped, need change badly |
| kitchen | good | bit faded | need change badly |
| (for wooden floor) | shellacked waxed polished | faded polish | not polished |
| 4. Over-all condition of cleanliness | very | passable | littered, dusty, dirty and muddy |
| 5. Bath and toilet | indoor | outdoor | none |
| 6. Hot water | always | part of year | none |
| 7. Heat adequacy | very adequate, all rooms heated | two or more rooms | most inadequate one room only |
| 8. Room per person | 1:1 | 1:2 | 1:3 |
| Total score | 16 | 8 | 0 |

| Housing condition - comparative | Score range = 0-16 |
|---|---|
| fairly good | 13 - 16 |
| fair | 9 - 12 |
| poor | 5 - 3 |
| very poor | 0 - 4 |

APR 3 1969

NOV 13 1969

JUN 29 1984

JUL 5 1984

AUG 20 '85

APR 8 1966

JUL 5 1966

FEB 6 1967

FEB 20 1967

DEC 9 1967

APR 30 1968

Due July 10/68

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