Factors affecting the extent of goal agreement between husbands and wives

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BETWEEN HUSBANDS AND WIVES

by

Jenniev Jorgensen Poulson

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Signature was redacted for privacy.

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Dean of Graduate College

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Of Science and Technology
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1964
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INTRODUCTION

The impact of the family is derived from the functions it fulfills in a society, and the influence it exerts in the life of its members. In the accomplishment of its functions, a family makes a projection into the future; and, by means of past experiences, an appraisal is made of the present situation. A choice is made, and an aim or goal is pursued. It is recognized that in the awareness of the family, goals may be explicit or implicit. Even though a family may be unable to articulate and formulate its goals, and especially to establish a relationship of importance of one to the other, yet there is always a movement towards an end or objective.

Individuals have wishes, make choices and evaluate their experiences. Because some things have more importance to them than others a value system develops. Values include the feelings and attitudes one has toward such things as work, honesty, love, respect for authority, comfort, health, etc. Beyer states that (6): "Values are guides to action. . .Values are not the concrete goals of behavior, but rather are aspects of these goals. Values appear as the criteria against which goals are chosen, and as the implications which those goals have in the situation."

The well-being of families depends to a large extent on their objectives and goals, and decisions made for achieving them. Goals towards which families strive occupy time and
attention and determine what the family does or does not do. It is around the objectives or ends sought that different family patterns are interwoven. The agreement or lack of agreement on goals has a significant influence on the family interaction pattern. A certain amount of divergence may challenge and stimulate thinking. However, divergence in goals to the point that action and orientation are in opposite directions is dysfunctional.

Families allocate limited resources in satisfying unlimited wants. Husbands and wives not in agreement on goals may be in competition for the use of family resources. This is particularly true of the allocation of non-human resources such as money and material goods, but extends as well to the use of human resources which include such things such as time, energy, interests, skills, and knowledge. Because of the inequality in the ratio of wants to resources for their fulfillment, families are constantly making decisions and allocating the resources at their command. Each decision made has a directing force. Because of limited resources, it is usually not possible for marriage partners with grossly differing goals or a grossly different priority system of similar goals simultaneously to be working toward or achieving the goals of both partners. In the marriage interaction situation, the extent to which the husband or wife have differing goals and find it necessary to subordinate his or her goals to the other mate's
may result in a corresponding dissatisfaction. Lack of agreement of family goals may even result in less satisfaction to the family from resources expended.

It is generally assumed that the American family of today functions on a democratic basis—inequalities are inherently opposed. Ideally in a democratic situation, objectives have mutual assent. Common objectives or goals imply that those organized to make objectives have the freedom to dissent, and that compromises are made until a status of common agreement is reached. Blau contends:

In this type of democratic organization, considerations of efficiency are expected to be subordinated to the central aim of stimulating the free expression of conflicting opinions. Of course, democratic processes are not the most expeditious way of arriving at decisions either for total societies or for limited associations, such as trade unions. But the fact that it would be more efficient if the leader were to decide on the objectives to be pursued is irrelevant, since this policy could not possibly accomplish the purpose of determining those objectives that are commonly agreed upon or express the view of the majority. (7, p. 106)

However, surprisingly little is known about goal agreement between husband and wife, other than what may be implied in the high rate of divorce. Little also is known about how greater goal agreement between husband and wife may be effected. The concern of this research is the extent to which the principal parties to a marriage, the husband and wife, agree on their objectives or goals. The author of this study believes there
is a need for research concerning factors that affect agreement in goal selection and factors that may bring about a change in goal agreement between the husband and wife.

The dependent variable in this study is goal agreement. In the families studied goal selection by husbands and wives has already occurred. The dependent variable is essentially a post-factum variable. The purpose herein is to study the goal agreement of husbands and wives who were involved in goal selection and to investigate the relationship between their agreement and selected independent variables. The study investigates the relationship between goal agreement and (1) personal characteristics (similarity of education, similarity and level of education, length of time married and whether or not husbands and wives make decisions together); and (2) training received in clarification and formulation of goals (educational training in management, involvement of learners, attitude of learners, and effectiveness of educators).

The objectives in undertaking this study are: (1) to study goal agreement between husbands and wives in relation to selected characteristics and to training received in clarification and formulation of goals; (2) to construct a possible rationale or logic for goal agreement and goal agreement change between husbands and wives; (3) to develop an instrument for measuring goal agreement; (4) and to test the validity of the constructed rationale for goal agreement and change in goal agreement by analyzing goal agreement and goal agreement change according to selected variables.
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A review of literature is essential to research endeavor. It is a means of determining the extent of work, both theoretical and empirical, that has gone on before in the area of interest. It allows the study being undertaken to be seen in perspective to other research, and to the problem area in which an interest exists. It provides insights into methodology and variables used, and suggests measurements of concepts. In some instances it provides a basis for interpretation of findings. It was with these various functions in mind that a search of the literature was made.

In this chapter the literature pertaining to the selection of family goals is reviewed. The literature has been grouped according to the major emphasis of the studies: relative importance of goals to families, interaction among family members and family type in relation to goals, personal and economic factors related to goals, and goal agreement between husband and wife inferred from other studies.

Relative Importance of Goals to Families

One of the purposes of a study by Ernest (11) was to describe the relative importance of specific goals to farm families. Data analyzed were taken from three surveys in Iowa, which included 666 randomly selected farm families. According
to the percentage distribution of choices made by these farm families, the goal of educating the children was relatively most important to both husbands and wives. The husbands tended to place goals of production high in their hierarchies of goals while the wives tended to give priority to goals of consumption. In two of the samples, the wives seemed to place the production goals higher in the hierarchy of goals than the wives of a third sample.

Fitzsimmons and Holmes (13) made an exploratory study of Indiana farm families in 1955-56 concerning factors affecting farm family goals, and used a sample of 70 selected farm families representing three stages of the seven stage family life cycle. Every family reported two goals in the list of things family members desire. This study supported the Ernest study inasmuch as all families reported one of their goals as a high-school education for the children, but differed inasmuch as one of the goals listed by all families was ownership of a farm. It was found that as the family's position in the family life cycle changes, goals also change.

In a study by Hillman (17) in which the purpose was to determine some of the problems and the quality of living during the first five years of marriage, 150 farm couples were selected from four central Ohio counties. In reply to free answer questions, it appeared that goals could be grouped under three major headings: those covering the home and family, those
related to the farm, and those concerned with community. Goals related directly to home and family living showed the concern of these families for the education and well-being of their children and for a happy family life. To have the family free of indebtedness, to have economic security, and to own a farm came out most frequently as goals related to the farm business. Eighty-two per cent of the men and sixty-eight per cent of the women indicated that they would like to be known as useful citizens in the community.

Voss (45) was interested in goal specification with relevance for adjustment in agriculture by farm families. She attempted to identify differences in rank orderings of goals in general and when families were classified by selected factors, and to determine the factors associated significantly with priorities given to goals. Data analyzed were obtained from two different surveys conducted in north and south central Iowa, and in southern Iowa and northern Missouri. The sample included 430 farm families randomly selected. In all samples, the same list of fourteen goals were randomly presented to the wife and she was requested to select four goals which she felt her family was working especially hard to accomplish. Voss stated that since no single goal was specified by as many as one-half of the respondents in any of the three samples, it was apparent that none of the goals considered in the study was held universally by all or most of the families.
In the research just cited, no one goal was universally found in all samples. Education and well-being of children were high in the hierarchy of goals, and it is probable that farm ownership would rank next. Because a common hierarchy of goals was not indicated by all of the samples, it would seem probable that even though all samples were farm families, yet there are cultural factors and differing situations which affect the goals toward which families strive. The different methods by which data were collected may also have an influence on discovered goals and goal hierarchies.

Goal Specification in Relation to Family Interaction or Type

There would seem to be a relationship between the interaction pattern characteristic of a family and the goals specified by the family. The ends or objectives which families seek to accomplish also would seem to be affected by the family life cycle stage.

Family Interaction

A study by Wilkening (47) is mainly concerned with the manner in which variations in the family produce variations in certain decisions and goals affecting farming. His data were obtained from 170 farm operators and their wives in a county in South Central Wisconsin. Indices of acceptance or adoption of a number of farm practices were constructed. The eighteen
change-in-farming practices were divided into two groups, those which were innovations in the sense that they required new techniques or materials or both, and those which were improvements in existing operations. But since the classification of the two types of practices were somewhat arbitrary, both indices and a combined index of the two were taken as three measures of the same dependent variable—acceptance of change in farm technology. Measures of family organization were constructed: inter-family dependence, familism and the extent to which decision making was father-centered.

Evidence presented in the Wilkening study suggests that family relationships as indicated by integration, familism, and father-centered decision-making have little direct influence upon the acceptance of innovations or improvements in farming, and that degree of integration, familism, and father-centered decision making are not predictive of acceptance in themselves. Of higher predictive value are specific items related to the operation of the farm enterprise, such as whether the informant learned most about farming from father rather than from other sources, or the nature of the arrangement between father and son with respect to farm matters. The factor of a man learning most about farming from his father was negatively associated with the acceptance of improvements in farming at the one per cent level of probability, which suggests that a farm operator who learned most about farming
from his father may select different goals than the farm operator who learned most about farming from other sources.

Fathers who discussed farm matters with their sons had adopted more total practices than had those who had not. Also, those farmers who thought that partnership or share arrangements were best, for compensating sons interested in remaining on the farm, had adopted more innovations than had those who thought separate projects were best. These findings suggest that in farm operations the relationship between father and son with respect to farm matters may have an effect upon the particular goals selected.

**Family life cycle stage**

For her three samples combined, Voss (45) found that 60, or 63.8 per cent, of the 94 coefficients calculated were considered sufficiently high to indicate probable association of the family type and the selected goals.

A brief summary of how the coefficients in the Voss study were derived follows. Farm families were classified by a tree model during factor investigations in order to observe the differences in specifications of goals. This tree model classified the families by five steps into homogeneous groups within each sample. The steps included tenure, farm size, goal specification and nonspecification, mean scores of factors, and finally, coefficients of difference in the paired means. In this manner each branch of the tree for every
factor was observed in its specification of individual goals. Factors considered in this rank ordering of goals in all three samples included: farm tenure, farm size, family type, age of wife, education of wife, sale value of farm, family income, housing score, consumer possessions score and net worth.

Goals considered in relation to the factors were: improve farm land, reduce indebtedness, increase savings, add or improve farm buildings, increase total production, improve the house itself, improve the yard and exterior of the house, own farm or add to the land owned, add to the movable home furnishings, provide for special education of the children, and gain and or maintain the respect of the neighbors.

The goals with which family type appeared to be associated, in descending order of probability, were: provide special education for the children; increase savings; improve the house itself; add to or improve farm buildings; own farm or add to the amount of land owned; reduce indebtedness; add to the movable home furnishings; and increase total production.

The study of Fitzsimmons and Holmes (13) confirm the study of Voss (45) that there is an association between family type and selected goals. Fitzsimmons and Holmes indicate that the goals of families with preschool children center on accumulation of goods for obtaining income and making the home convenient and comfortable. In addition to wishing to purchase land, a relatively large proportion of these families wished to purchase farm machinery. Goals of families with children in grade
school stress the improvement of income to care for the growing needs of the family. They specified goals in connection with changing or expanding farming operations, improving farm buildings, increasing future income and providing for income for retirement. Providing special training for the children and continuing the education of husband or wife were goals also specified by families with children in grade school. Goals of families with high school children showed the greatest concern with providing for future as well as present needs of the children. They specified goals in connection with improving farm buildings, providing savings, paying debts, increasing income, providing protection for emergencies and retirement, and educating and providing special training for the children.

Economic Factors Associated with Goal Specification

Tenure

Ernest (11) divided the respondents in her study into two tenure groups, owners and renters. She found in one sample of 440 farm families that goals chosen differed between owners and renters. Husbands and wives as owners were especially concerned with the improvement of farm buildings, including the family dwelling, and with improving the household equipment and the fixed household equipment. Renter families, after indicating their interest in acquiring ownership of property and increasing their savings, tended to select goals which were not
associated with farm ownership, such as learning better management of money and time, and gaining and maintaining the respect of neighbors and other community members.

With respect to four goals, Oommen (34) also found significant differences by farm tenure for samples of families in north and south Iowa. Oommen analyzed family goals specified by farm homemakers in two areas of Iowa for the purpose of determining the association of goals specified by homemakers with tenure status, age of homemaker, education of homemaker and economic status. Her samples consisted of 204 farm families randomly selected. About two-thirds of those who rented all of the land they operated, in contrast to about one-third of those who owned all or part of the land they farmed, selected the goal, "Own our own farm or add to the amount of land or other real estate we own." And more frequently the renting group selected the goal of providing special education for their children. More frequently homemakers of families who were farm owners were concerned with the goal of adding to or improving farm buildings and fixed equipment and in improving the yard and exterior appearance of the house.

Voss (45) found that about one-half of the owner families in three different geographical areas, in contrast with 10 to 20 per cent of the full renters, gave high priority to the goal, "Add to or improve farm buildings--other than the
house—and/or such fixed equipment as fence, feeding floors, and water system for livestock." For two of the three samples, the null hypothesis that farm tenure was not associated with four of the goals was rejected at the .05 per cent level or better. Wives of owners, significantly more often than those of renters, specified the goals of improving the house or adding to fixed household equipment and improving the yard and exterior appearance of the house. On the other hand, renters more often than owner families were concerned about owning their own farm or adding to the amount of land or other real estate owned, and adding to movable home furnishings or other household equipment.

**Sale value of farm**

Voss (45) had data on the sale values of farms from samples in north central Iowa and south central Iowa. Sixty-two coefficients were calculated of differences between the means of sale values of farms for goal specifications. Of the 62 coefficients, 38, or 61.3 per cent, were considered to be above the median. The goals with which sale value of land and buildings appeared to be associated, in descending order of probability, were to gain and/or maintain the respect of neighbors; add to or improve farm buildings; reduce indebtedness; provide for special education for the children; improve farm land; increase total production; increase savings.
accounts; and improve the house itself.

Family income

Voss (45) had data on family income for families in north central south central Iowa. For the two samples combined, 63 coefficients were calculated of which 36, or 57.1 per cent, were considered sufficiently high to indicate probable associations of family income with the respective goals (in descending order of probability) reduce indebtedness; add to the movable home furnishings; improve the house itself; improve farm land; increase total production; add or improve farm buildings; and increase savings.

Consumer possessions scores

For the samples of families in north central Iowa and south central Iowa, Voss (45) found 36 of the 61 coefficients (46.8 per cent) were above the median and sufficiently high to indicate the probable associations of the consumer possessions scores with the selected goals. These goals, in order of the probable associations, were: provide special education for the children; gain and/or maintain respect of the neighbors; improve the house itself; and increase savings.

Economic status

Net family income, operator's net worth, Sewell's socio-economic status scores and Liston-Pecheniuk economic status scores were used for classifying families according to economic
status by Stinson (40). Families were divided into "low", "middle" and "high" economic groups. The relationship of economic status to goal selection by the farm families was determined. The findings revealed that seldom were there differences in goals sought by young farm families of differing economic status. A maximum of 120 significant differences was possible in the specification of 15 goals by wives and husbands classified by economic status by the four methods. Differences were identified for four of the goals among the wives and for 10 goals among the husbands. This number was only 11.6 per cent of the potential number.

Oommen (34) found that when Iowa families were grouped by economic status, in terms of their consumer possessions scores, significant associations were revealed between economic status and seven of the fourteen goals studied, although differences were found more frequently among cases from one area than from the other geographical area included in her sample. The relationship between economic status and goals specified was stronger among families in southern Iowa than those in northern Iowa. In general, families relatively low in economic status and those who were renters were less concerned about farm and building improvements.

For her sample as a whole, the study revealed no association of goals specified by the homemakers with estimated family income or with net worth. Comparable to the findings
of Stinson, none of the fourteen goals was associated with net worth of families for the entire sample.

Personal Factors Associated with Goal Specification

Sex

The study by Ernest (11) indicated that sex is a factor related to choice of goals. There were significant differences between the nine goals chosen by men and those chosen by women. Goals chosen significantly more frequently by the husbands than the wives were related to the improvement of the farm enterprise. The goals chosen more frequently by the wives than the husbands were related to family development, home and household activities and participation in church affairs. Observations of choices within the family indicated that husbands and wives in the same family tended to agree more often in their order of choosing goals related to social aspects of family life than they did on the physical and economic aspects.

Education

Oommen (34) found that the goal to provide for special education for their children was specified by significantly more of the homemakers who had completed high school than by those who had not. Other goal selections did not differ significantly between those who had completed high school and those who had not. In the study of Voss, (45) no goals were
found to be associated highly with the education of the wife.

Age

Ernest (11) found that age did not appear to be an important factor in the choice of goals. Oommen (34) found significant differences among age groups in both the north central and south central areas of Iowa relative to the goals "Own our own farm, or add to the amount of land or other real estate we own" and "Provide for special education of our children such as music lessons, business or nurses training, or college." Oommen indicated the reasons for these differences appeared obvious since ownership of farms was positively related to age and educational level of the homemaker declined with age. In the north central but not in the south central area, percentages of homemakers who chose the goals to improve farm land and the yard and the exterior appearance of the house increased significantly with the age level. It was indicated by Oommen that in the southern areas families may have had other goals which took precedence for their resources.

For her three samples combined, Voss (45) calculated 97 coefficients, of which 39, or 40.2 per cent, were considered sufficiently high to indicate probable association of age of wife with the selected goals. The goals with which the age of wife appeared to be associated, in descending order of probability, were: gain and/or maintain respect of the
neighbors; own our own farm or add to the amount of land we own; increase total production; add to or improve farm buildings; and increase savings.

Goal Agreement between Husband and Wife
Inferred from Other Studies

No study primarily concerned with goal agreement between husbands and wives was discovered, but it is possible to derive an indication of goal agreement between husbands and wives from studies which did not have the measurement of husband-wife goal agreement as their central purpose. A comparison of the rank ordering of goals by husbands and by wives gives some evidence of goal-agreement, inasmuch as it indicates whether or not husbands and wives tend to rank goals in the same order of importance. Another indication of goal-agreement is the per cent or number of males as compared to females who select certain goals.

As part of a larger design, Wilkening (46) was interested in the relationship between family values and the adoption of improved farm practices. As a means of arriving at family values, each husband and wife was asked to rank five items according to which "means most" to him or her. This was done by handing the informant five cards, on each of which a family goal was stated, and having him place the goals in the order of his preference.
Table 1 (46 p. 46) presents the ranking results:

Table 1. Average rank of five family goals by husband and wife

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Family goals</th>
<th>Average rank</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Husband</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing my children a good education</td>
<td>2.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Owning my farm free of debt</td>
<td>2.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having my farm well equipped</td>
<td>2.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having modern conveniences in the home</td>
<td>3.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing myself and my family with an opportunity for travel and recreation</td>
<td>4.77</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Scrutiny of the rank order reveals that wives rank first the goal, "Providing my children a good education" and that husbands rank this goal second, and rank first the goal "Owning my farm free of debt". The rank order is the same for the other three goals. There is not complete husband-wife agreement on the average rank of the goals although they are similar.

In the study by Hillman (17) concerning the problems of the first five years of marriage, her purpose was to analyze those economic and personal factors which appear to have
influenced the home and family life of a selected group of 150 young married rural families in central Ohio. The research bulletin reporting the study is dated 1954. In reply to free response questions, the goals of these young farm families were grouped under three major headings: those covering the home and family, those related to the farm, and those concerned with community living. Figure 1 (17, p. 58) indicates the selection of goals by husbands and wives.

While Hillman's study did not emphasize the extent of agreement on goals among husbands and wives, some indication of the extent to which the husbands and wives in the sample mentioned the same goals can be obtained from inspection of the bar chart. The percentage of husbands and wives listing each goal, and a rank ordering is taken from Figure 1 (17, p. 58) and is shown in Table 2.

An appraisal of Table 2 indicates the extent husbands and wives are in agreement on the goals they select. The goal "Adequate machinery and good livestock program" was indicated by 55 per cent of the husbands and 55 per cent of the wives. Percentages of wives and husbands specifying other goals were dissimilar. In the rank order of goals, only "Farm ownership" received the same rank by both husbands and wives, although the goals "Economic security; Have children to be proud of; Educate children: give them a good start in life; and Modern, comfortable farm home" were only one step apart.
Figure 1. Goals and ambitions of young farm families. Frequency of replies of 45 husbands and 135 wives.
<table>
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<tr>
<th>Replies</th>
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<th>50</th>
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<tr>
<td>Educate children: give them a good start in life</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>27</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>60</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>W</td>
<td>105</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Have a happy family life</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>19</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>42</td>
<td>95</td>
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<td></td>
<td>W</td>
<td>128</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Have children to be proud of</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>31</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>68</td>
<td>82</td>
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<td>Travel</td>
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<td>W</td>
<td>95</td>
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<td>Good Health</td>
<td>H</td>
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<td></td>
<td>W</td>
<td>72</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Farm and Place</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>43</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>53</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Free of Indebtedness</td>
<td>W</td>
<td>115</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic Security</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>35</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>77</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>W</td>
<td>112</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Farm Ownership</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>37</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>82</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>W</td>
<td>122</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adequate Machinery &amp; good livestock program</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>25</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>55</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>W</td>
<td>75</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modern, comfortable farm home</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>19</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>42</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>W</td>
<td>87</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Remodel present farm home</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>21</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>13</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>W</td>
<td>18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COMMUNITY</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be known as useful citizens in community</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>37</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>82</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>W</td>
<td>92</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>68</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be active in organizations which work for community improvement</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>26</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>57</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>W</td>
<td>69</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>51</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2. Goals of selected young farm families ranked by frequency of specification by wives and husbands

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goal statements</th>
<th>% who specified</th>
<th>Rank order</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Wives</td>
<td>Husbands</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have a happy family life</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Farm ownership</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Free of indebtedness</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic security</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have children to be proud of</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educate children: give them a good start in life</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be known as useful citizens in community</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modern, comfortable farm home</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adequate machinery and good livestock program</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good health</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be active in organizations which work for community</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Remodel present farm home</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In a different study by Hillman, titled Part-Time Farming -- Its Influence on Young Families (18), 270 families engaged in part-time farming in Ohio were selected from twenty-nine
counties according to their location with respect to the 11 economic areas of the state and their location within the three generalized farming areas of the state. The study was made for the purpose of investigating some of the economic and personal factors which appear to have influenced, or to be influencing, the homes and family life of a selected group of young families who engage in part-time farming. Data were obtained by personal interview. Information reported is based upon the replies of 259 women and 101 men.

In answer to free-response questions, statements relative to the specific goals of these 270 families were grouped under three major headings—those related to the family, those related to material and economic security, and those concerned with associations beyond the family and extending into the community. The following table is reproduced (18, p. 67) and presents the long-term family goals indicated.

If major headings are ignored, and goals are arranged in rank order, husband and wife goals are not in agreement. In rank order the wife's first goal is "To travel, to have some time for leisure activity: to have some fun out of life"; while the husband's first goal in rank order is "To achieve financial security." "To educate children: give them a good start in life" is in fourth rank order for both husband and wife; and "To foster conditions which provide for good health of all family members" is sixth rank order for both
Table 3. Number and Percent of Respondents Indicating Certain Long-Term Family Goals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Long-term Family Goals</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(101 Records)</td>
<td>(259 Records)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Home and Family</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To have a wholesome, well-rounded happy family life</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>96.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educate children: Give them a good start in life</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>89.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To foster conditions which provide for good health of all family members</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>81.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To travel, to have some time for leisure activity: To have some fun out of life</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>94.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Material and Economic</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To achieve financial security</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To have a comfortable and convenient home</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>66.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To farm full-time: To have a comfortable living from it</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>77.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Community</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To have community respect: To be known as useful citizens</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>87.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To be more active in community work and community welfare</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>53.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
husbands and wives. The other goals differ in rank order between husbands and wives.

A study by Stinson (40) concerned with the association of goals sought and economic status of a group of young farm families in 10 counties of Iowa, is based on data from a survey in which 442 wives and husbands, randomly selected, were asked to designate individually the goals they considered most important for themselves and their families. The purpose of the study was to determine the significant differences in family goals specified by the farm operators and female homemakers, respectively, when classified by several economic factors. The data were obtained from Iowa Experiment Station Project 1278. Each respondent was asked to choose from a list of 15 goals the five he considered most important for him and his family. These 15 goals were listed on a card which the interviewer presented to the respondent and asked him to choose first the goal he considered most important, and then the next most important. This procedure was continued until five goals had been chosen. The goals listed on the cards shown to the husbands and wives were exactly alike except for goals 4 and 7. Goal 4 for husbands stated, "Keep up to date on farming" and for wives, "Keep up to date on homemaking." Goal 7 stated "Improve my ability as a husband and parent" for husbands and for wives this read "Improve my ability as a wife and parent."

A summary of goals selected by husbands and wives (40,
Table 4. Goals of selected young farm families ranked by frequency of specification by wives and husbands

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goal numbers and statements</th>
<th>% who specified</th>
<th>Rank order</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Wives</td>
<td>Husbands</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Provide a good education for my children</td>
<td>75.7</td>
<td>72.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Improve my ability as husband (wife) and parent</td>
<td>67.6</td>
<td>30.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Learn to be a better manager of money and time</td>
<td>50.4</td>
<td>37.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Improve the house and the fixed household equipment such as furnace, storm windows, back porch, kitchen cabinets, etc.</td>
<td>39.5</td>
<td>35.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Be more active in church affairs</td>
<td>39.1</td>
<td>27.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Improve the appearance of the farmstead</td>
<td>37.9</td>
<td>45.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Gain respect of my neighbors and other community members</td>
<td>35.2</td>
<td>35.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Keep up to date on farming (homemaking)</td>
<td>30.3</td>
<td>52.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Make a considerable increase in ownership of property or additions to savings</td>
<td>29.5</td>
<td>30.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Improve productivity of the farm itself</td>
<td>24.4</td>
<td>59.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Add to my movable home furnishings to make my home more comfortable and convenient</td>
<td>23.3</td>
<td>9.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Travel and see more of my country</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>16.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Improve the farm buildings and fixed farm equipment</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>32.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Be more active in community affairs</td>
<td>13.4</td>
<td>10.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Learn to more fully appreciate music, art and literature</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
p. 6) is presented in Table 4. According to the data in this table, husbands and wives are not in agreement on goals selected when either the percentages choosing the goal or the rank orderings of the goals are used as criteria for goal-agreement.

Summary

From this review of literature it is evident that studies concerned with the goals toward which families strive are not extensive. Family-goal research conducted has been mainly concerned with: ordering of goals (11), (13), (17), (45); goal specification in relation to family interaction or type (46), (45), (13); economic factors associated with goal specification (11), (34), (45), (40); and personal factors associated with goal specification (11), (34), (45).

In the review of literature no research primarily concerned with goal agreement between husbands and wives was discovered. Particular studies (46), (17), (18), (40) cited, while their central purpose was not the measurement of husband-wife goal agreement, contained data and analyses that made it possible to derive some indication of goal agreement. The present study is primarily concerned with goal agreement between husband and wife. The relative dearth of related research means that there are few methodological and theoretical guidelines for such problems as measurement of goal agreement between husband and wife and the determination of factors influencing that agreement.
This section considers the major concepts which are employed in the present research, the interrelations of the concepts, and their relations to goal agreement between husband and wife. An attempt is made to define the relationship of values to the selection of goals whereby an insight into a basis for, or a lack of, goal agreement between husband and wife may be developed. The dependent variable is defined and a general hypothesis is presented. Following this, the independent variables are discussed and hypotheses concerning the relationship between them and the dependent variable is offered.

Theoretical Orientation

In a theoretical statement relative to goal agreement between husband and wife and factors influencing goal agreement, it is first necessary to discuss briefly the antecedent of goals or the means whereby goals are selected as well as the technical nature of a goal itself, and the situation in which the process of goal selection takes place.

Values

Man is a teleogical being whose behavior is shaped by a purpose and oriented towards an end or a goal. Courses of action are selected from alternative courses of action and
decisions are made to act or not to act. Man's purposeful activity, appraisal and selection of one course of action in preference to another is based on a hierarchy of satisfaction producing factors or values. Parker states, "...things do not really have value; they only borrow value from the satisfactions corresponding." (35, p. 20)

Values are private or personal in the sense that they are part of the inner life of the individual. In making a statement about the qualities of values, Williams has this to say (48, p. 397): "(1) They have a conceptual element—they are more than pure sensations, emotions, reflexes, or so-called needs. Values are abstractions drawn from the flux of the individual's immediate experience." An evaluation is made by an individual of the objects, acts and human attributes with which he comes into contact. Inasmuch as experience is a continuing facet of life, subsequent actual or vicarious experiences serve to reinforce or reorganize the hierarchy of satisfactions attached to former experiences and are the criteria by which future acts are initiated, chosen or avoided.

An accompanying result of the individual's evaluation of satisfactions derived from various experiences may be a change in the value structure. The assimilation or development of a value does not result in a "fixed" value system. A continual evaluation of experiences reinforce or reorganize a hierarchy of satisfactions so that a value may be conceptualized as
occupying a position on a continuum—ranging from positive to negative value, from right to wrong, or valued to devalued. An experience may either strengthen a value in its position on the continuum or the outcome of the experience may cause the value to change position in a positive or negative direction. Not only do values occupy a position on a continuum (with the possibility of change in position), but values occupy a position of priority of one to another (with the possibility of change in priority). Each value of a person can be thought of as having a position on a continuum or a place in the hierarchy of his values.

Values are developed through interaction with variables in the environment and have multiple origins. The young child has not had the experience upon which to base judgments of what is "good" or "bad". Lacking his own experiential frame of reference, he is susceptible to the values of individuals who are significant in his life. Values of the pre-school child are largely derived from the family. After the child starts school, his social contacts increase. There are teachers, friends, and others from whom he derives values and attitudes. Values of significant people in the individual's social environment are manifest in their behavior. Values may not be proclaimed and announced as such, but through interaction with people and in their choices of action they may be implied. Or, values may be transmitted through explicit
indoctrination. In either case, various sanctions are applied to behavior in social situations so that certain values are accepted, approved and idealized. In the socialization process these values are assimilated by the individual.

After the child is exposed to and assimilates values from significant persons in his environment, both external and internal sanctions operate to keep them relatively stable and to insure that behavior is kept compatible with them. To deviate from values which the child has internalized causes him concern. There is a security in complying with values and standards which he has internalized. Avoidance of guilt feelings, retaining belongingness and acceptance by the group are strong forces in the control of an individual's behavior and operate in maintaining values and attitudes.

Values direct the action of an individual and are a reference point against which an individual does his thinking, forms beliefs and is motivated to action. Their importance is described by Ausubel:

Values refer to ways of striving, believing, and doing whenever purpose and direction are involved or choice and judgment are exercised. Values are implied in the relative importance an individual attaches to different objectives and activities, in his moral, social and religious beliefs, and in his aesthetic preferences. . .Values therefore are important factors in determining goals and goal seeking behavior, standards of conduct, and feelings of obligation to conform to such standards and to inhibit behavior at variance with them. (2, p. 380)
Wilkening also presents the idea that values guide action but in addition have an integrating influence that produces greatest total satisfaction:

Values provide a basis for the decisions and actions of people. They might be thought of as the integrative concepts which allow the individual to direct his behavior to attain the greatest total satisfaction. In a society in which there are many alternative courses of action, the individual develops certain value-concepts out of his experience which provide this integrating influence. (46)

Among others who consider values as guides to action and criteria according to which goals are selected are Parker and Williams. Parker especially emphasizes the motivation aspect, and the dynamic impact of values in an individual's life. Values provide the meaning, and determine the individual's outlook upon life so that actions are in keeping with a particular morality and norms derived from values. But even more than a compatibility between values and action, values are a compelling force, determining basically those things which are imperative and necessary that an individual do, (35, p. 46). Williams also purports that values are important and not "trivial" or of slight concern (48, p. 39).

From this brief review of the concept value, it may be stated that values have a conceptual element, and are abstractions drawn from the individual's experience. Values are developed through interaction with the variables in the environment and are affected by one's socialization in a particular
society. An evaluation is made by an individual of the objects, acts and human attributes with which he comes into contact. Future experiences serve to reinforce or reorganize the hierarchy of satisfactions attached to former experiences. Values have a dynamic impact upon the actions of the individual, and serve as a reference point or guide for his action.

Goals

A goal is the aim, end or objective toward which a family or individual strives. Action of the human organism is relatively constant, and goal-setting is a continual process. Some goals may be broad, comprehensive and sought after over a long period of time and as a consequence are ever present, while other goals are specific, of short duration, recur frequently and are immediately attainable. Some goals may be intermediate in relation to long-term and short-term goals. Or, goals may be classified as tangible and intangible. Tangible goals have concrete characteristics, the course of action and the goal are easily discernible, while intangible goals may be comprehensive with an abstract quality not easily discernible nor is the course of action clearly defined. Still another classification of goals may be concerned with urgency. Some goals may be of immediate urgency in their attainment, while other goals do not have the characteristics of immediate urgency, and can be accomplished at a future time, so that
urgency in the attainment of goals ranges from immediate to remote urgency on a continuum.

The Malones hold that goals can be classified according to different levels of ultimate importance, and they make the designations of long-run, intermediate and short-run goals—goals on lower levels are stepping stones to more important goals. According to the Malones, long-term goals have these characteristics:

Important goals are at the highest level like landmarks on the horizon, giving us a sense of direction. One of these higher goals might be to have each member of the family develop a well-rounded personality. . . . A goal of parents may be to help their children grow up to be Christians. Or they may say that an important goal is for each member of the family to be a good citizen and live a useful life.

These are among the long-time or ultimate goals. If strongly held, they guide the setting of many intermediate goals that lead toward them. (29, p. 31)

The Malones go on to say:

When people are asked to list their important goals, many they set down may really be intermediate ones, important but often not of the highest level. Some common ones that fall in this group are:

- To own a farm of our own
- To provide a good education for our children
- To prepare for old age and retirement
- To be free from debt

While those goals are important to the individual, they are intermediate in nature. A good education is not a final goal by itself, it is intended to serve other purposes. There usually are several reasons for wanting to own a farm, it is not a long-time goal in any final sense. (29, p. 31)
Lower level goals are a means to the goals in the hierarchy above, and a higher level goal may be considered an end relative to those on a lower level. While the higher level goals are broad and comprehensive and the ultimate towards which an individual or family strive, those on the lower level have an importance of their own. If higher level goals are to be achieved, lower level goals must lead to those above.

In addition to goals being on different levels, goals of the individual or the family may assume the shape of a pyramid. Several goals stem into a goal on a higher level. The stemming together of goals into a higher level goal continues until there is left one broad comprehensive goal (37, p. 63). It is necessary to accomplish several goals on a lower level in order to achieve a more comprehensive goal. On each level there are comprehensive goals, their accomplishment necessitating a group or a bundle of lower level goals. The comprehensiveness of a goal becomes greater going from the lower to the higher level so that the goals of a family assume a pyramidal shape.

To visualize their goals in an order or a hierarchy or to categorize their goals as long, intermediate and short-run may be difficult or impossible for a family without particular attention and reflective study. The family may feel its goals and work towards them. This would be true especially of the more general and comprehensive goals which are apt to be more
vague than goals in the near or immediate future. It may also be stated that to place their goals in an order of priority or importance of one to another may be difficult for a family to do.

The family lives in an environment which provides motivation for a change in goals, in addition factors within the family motivate change (to be explained more in detail later). The greater change in goal selection occurs among the lower level goals which are accomplished in a shorter length of time. While the individual's values are relatively stable and there are external and internal sanctions which operate to keep them relatively stable, an individual's evaluation of satisfactions derived from various experiences may result in a change in the value system so that with values as the criteria by which goals are selected, goals may change. With a change in the value system, the more broad and comprehensive goals which are thought of as being quite enduring and stable may also change.

Goal agreement between two individuals indicates a similarity in the kinds of goals and a priority of importance of one goal to the other. Goal agreement between two individuals is more probable if the two individuals share similar values (taking into consideration a similarity on a continuum and in a hierarchical arrangement), and if the individuals are in a similar situation.
The situation in its relation to goals

Ends or goals are selected in the context of a situation. The components of a situation are social, cultural and physical. Factors in the situation are internal and external to the family. Internal factors include such things as physical maturation of family members, as evidenced by the descriptive term, "family life cycle". Maturation of family members and the different phases of the family cycle are factors which foster change. Crises within the family such as illness, death, loss of income are other factors influencing change. Variations in resources (time, energy, money, and so forth) have an impact upon change and goals selected. External factors may include physical factors in the surroundings, such as climate and variations of the topography. The social environment of the family composed of the status of other families in close proximity and cultural factors in the society to which the individual belongs all are included in the situation. Arising from a situation are factors which present a problem and call for a modification in behavior. Before aims or goals are decided upon, the situation is defined. After the situation is defined, goals are selected in keeping with values.

Goal Agreement Between Husband and Wife

In the previous section, it was stated that values are a guide to action, and are a reference point against which an
individual does his thinking, forms beliefs and is motivated to action. In keeping with his values and in the context of a situation, the individual strives towards ends, aims or objectives. Inasmuch as this study is concerned with goal agreement and goal agreement change between husband and wife in relation to factors that influence agreement and change in agreement, a first concern is the basis for goal agreement between husband and wife. This section considers the development of values and factors influencing similarity of values, so that a general hypothesis pertaining to goal agreement can be derived.

**Development of values in the "self"**

The "self" arises in the social process of interaction.

Mead indicates that:

> The self is something which has a development; it is not initially there at birth, but arises in the process of social experience and activity, that is, develops in the given individual as a result of his relations to that process as a whole and to other individuals within the process. (31, p. 212)

It is in terms of significant symbols that the existence of a mind or intelligence is possible. A mind arises because thinking takes place, and thinking is a process in which the individual carries on an internalized conversation with himself by means of significant symbols. Or, external conversations carried on by the use of significant symbols with other
individuals, are internalized and become the essence of thinking. Also, significant symbols having the same meaning for the members of a given society or group arouse similar attitudes in individuals using them as they do in individuals responding to them (31, p. 174). Stryker states (41): "Language basically, is a system of significant symbols. This is equivalent to asserting that language is a system of shared behavior."

A further development is the emergence of a "self". An individual becomes a self in the reflective sense when he can become an object to himself, and he becomes an object to himself by taking the attitudes of other individuals toward himself within a social environment or context of experience and behavior in which both he and they are involved (31, p. 215). Taking the attitude of another individual toward himself, is taking the role of the other, so that he himself plays his role according to expectations. Mead says:

These are personalities which they take, roles they play, and in so far control the development of their own personality. . . . In so far as the child does take the attitude of the other and allows that attitude of the other to determine the thing he is going to do with reference to a common end, he is becoming an organic member of society. (32, p. 249)

A "self-conscious" individual takes the organized social attitude In Mead's opinion, a second stage in personality development is the development of a self in the fullest sense.
It is not sufficient for an individual to become an object to himself, and take the attitudes of others towards himself and toward one another. To accomplish full development of self, the individual organizes the attitudes of others towards himself and toward one another so that he has the attitude of the social group or society toward the various social problems of various kinds which confront a social group or society at any given time. The self-conscious individual takes or assumes the organized social attitudes of the given social group or community (or subsection thereof) to which he belongs, which serves as a means of organizing his conduct and responding so that he functions as an acceptable member of the group. Only insofar as the individual takes the attitude of the organized social group to which he belongs towards the social activity or the activity in which it is engaged, does the individual develop a complete self (31, p. 231).

Taking the attitudes of another develops values. Taking the attitude of another individual toward himself, is taking the role of the other, so that the actor himself plays his role according to expectations. In taking the role of another, the individual may or may not adopt the standards as his own. In the event that the role of the other is not adopted, it remains an object to the actor, so that he understands it and interprets it, but does not allow the point of view to become
his own. Or the actor may allow the inferred attitudes of the 
other to become his own and to determine his behavior. Turner 
contends that an individual imaginatively constructs the 
other's role from three general standpoints:

First, he may adopt the other's standpoint as his 
own, in which case he is identifying with the 
other-role and allowing it to become an automatic 
guide to his own behavior. Second, the role of the 
other may remain an object viewed from the standpoint 
of some personalized third part or depersonalized 
norm, in which case the role of the relevant other 
becomes a datum necessary in implementing the 
third-party directive. Third, the role of the 
relevant other may be viewed from the standpoint 
of its effect in interaction with potential self-
behavior, as contributing toward some individual 
or shared purpose. (44, p. 278)

Role taking wherein the individual adopts the standpoint 
of the other as his own, and identifies with the other-role 
allowing it to become a guide to his behavior, is a means of 
the development of individual values. As stated previously, 
taking a role may be constructed from three general standpoints, 
but the development of values in any event is accomplished in 
role taking by the adoption of the standpoint of the other. 
This is illustrated by Turner.

The fundamental source of social values appears to 
be the standpoint of the other. Accordingly, we 
may speak of role-taking which involves identifica-
tion as being derivative with respect to the values 
of the individual. The person derives his values 
through adopting others' standpoints. In contrast, 
the other types of role-taking are implementive or 
validative with respect to values. They serve as
means through which the values already acquired may be validated by reference to some standard or implemented in practice. Hence, these types are dependent upon role-taking with identification in two ways. They are dependent upon some prior role-taking as the source of values they express. And they are dependent upon prior learning of the skills of role-taking before the role-taking can be detached from adoption of the role standpoint. (44, p. 282)

The individual internalizes group values The individual at any one time moves in different groups, but he does not assume the organized social attitudes of all the groups in which he moves. The organized social attitude is derived from "... those groups to which the individual relates himself as a part or to which he aspires to relate himself psychologically." (36, p. 261) As the self-conscious individual takes or assumes the organized social attitudes of the given social group or society, he takes or assumes group values. The individual has values which he holds in common with the social group or society to which he belongs. Assimilation of values from the group is described by Mead as an organization of attitudes which are common to the group wherein the development of the "self" or personality takes place.

What goes to make up the organized self is the organization of the attitudes which are common to the group. A person is a personality because he belongs to a community because he takes over the institutions of that community into his own conduct. He takes its language as a medium by which he gets his personality, and then through a process of taking the different roles that all the others furnish he comes to get the attitude of the members of the community. Such, in a certain sense, is the structure of a man's personality. (32, p. 255)
The organized social attitudes of the given social group or society from which the individual derives values, is the group to which he relates himself psychologically. Organized social attitudes of the given social group or society used by Mead, or the reference group used by Sherif, or the identification group have interchangeable meanings, and are a source of values in the development of the individual's personality.

**Individuals have unique value systems** If we accepted the whole of the individual's conduct as comprising activity in keeping with the organized social attitude of the given social group or community toward the social problems of various kinds which confront that group or society at any given time, it would appear that uniformity would be a general rule and traditionality would be the mode. However, an individual is not only what is common to all but is different from everyone else. The organized social attitude of the given social group or community makes it possible for individuals to be members of a social group or society, and the individual is not different from everyone else to the extent and in the direction that it interferes with the common life.

Each individual develops a pattern which reflects in its organized structure the attitudes of the social group, yet he responds with a perspective from his own particular and unique standpoint within the social situation (31, p. 248). What the
response to a situation by an individual will be is not known by the individual or anyone else. The individual has in him the attitudes of others calling for a certain response, but the response is made by the person as an individual (31, p. 244). Mead states,

The 'I' is the response of the organism to the attitudes of the others; the 'me' is the organized set of attitudes of others which one himself assumes. The attitudes of the others constitute the organized 'me', and then one reacts toward that as an 'I'. (31, p. 243)

An individual not only has values which he holds in common with the social group or society to which he belongs, but because he is different from everyone else he holds values peculiar to himself. Each value has a place on a continuum, and is in a hierarchical arrangement in relation to other values, so that each individual has a value system unique to himself.

Values of husbands and wives differ in varying proportions

Importance of the family as a source of values The time spent with the family as well as the number of years before the individual assumes responsibility for himself contributes to the family's importance as a social group. At birth the infant is entirely dependent upon the family. Physical dependency gradually decreases as the child develops, but dependency in other areas may not decrease proportionately.
The family has a social attitude unique to itself which it interprets to the child in the socialization process during his dependency. Kenkel states,

Because of their own uniqueness, no two individuals interpret the demands of their culture in exactly the same way, and even when interpretations are close no two individuals are able to act out the cultural demands in precisely the same manner. Certain it is that the various attitudes and beliefs of a society, their fears and taboos, their systems of thinking, and their values, all have an influence on personality development. Before they affect the child, however, they are filtered through the interpreting and transmitting agents of socialization.

(24, p. 236)

As the child takes or assumes the social attitude unique to his family, he also takes or assumes values unique to his family group.

Other institutions, agencies and peers have a socializing influence on the individual. The origin of values are multiple. However, it is generally recognized that the family is the major socializing force in the life of an individual, and the major source from which the individual derives his values in the socialization process. Because they have been reared in different families, we should therefore expect that a given husband and wife would exhibit some degree of dissimilarity of values.

**Mate selection practices and dissimilarity of values of the spouses** Family sociologists employ the concept homogamy to refer to the tendency of a person to select as a marriage
partner someone who has social characteristics similar to his own. If the principle of homogamy operated perfectly, we would find all people choosing as a mate someone whose education, religion, ethnic group status, and other characteristics were similar to his own. Such a situation would tend to minimize value differences between husband and wife. But the principle of homogamy does not operate perfectly. More than this, whatever the force of the principle of homogamy at a given time it is assumed that it does not affect all people evenly. It would follow from this assumption that some marriages are more homogamous than others and, accordingly, the responsibility of value differences between the spouses is greater in some marriages than in others.

There is some indication that, in general, marriages in the United States currently are less homogamous than once they were. Thomas, for example, holds that for various reasons Catholic and Protestant youth have increasingly tolerant attitudes toward mixed religious marriages (42, p. 111). Hillman (17) indicates that rural young men are increasingly selecting mates from non-farm communities. In her study of the Factors Influencing the Lives of a Group of Young Farm Families, of the young men, 98 per cent had been farm reared, 2 per cent had rural but non-farm environment prior to marriage. The majority of men had always lived in the same communities where they now resided. Of the young women, 61 per cent had been
farm reared, 39 per cent had non-farm backgrounds.

Present-day transportation is a contributing factor in individuals of marriageable age selecting a mate from a group or sub-group different than their own. Job opportunities, the desire to become independent of parental control, and the quest for adventure take individuals into new areas. Individuals may receive specialized technological training for which the demand exists in places removed from their own community. Even to receive certain technological training an individual may be required to move far from the social group in which he was reared. Preparation for defense of the nation has resulted in training of men at a marriageable age. Training is carried on in centralized areas, and may be at a considerable distance from where the person was reared. Thus there are various factors that contribute to the spatial mobility of present-day American youth. When such mobility occurs at the time of life when mate selection is accomplished, it contributes to the selection of marriage partners from groups dissimilar from one's own. This, in turn, increases the possibility that the values of husbands and wives will be dissimilar.

There is no reason to believe that the forces producing geographical mobility affect all youth equally. This suggests that some youth are more likely than others to be mobile and, accordingly, that among the marriages formed by all young people some will exhibit greater dissimilarities in the values
Values are the criteria by which goals are chosen. It is assumed the family is a major influence in the socialization of the individual. The family takes or assumes its major social attitudes (values) from the immediate sub-culture to which it belongs. It may be expected that individuals from families which belong to different sub-cultures will have values that differ, not only as to the intensity with which a particular value is held but also hierarchically in relation to other values. The extent to which the values of a husband and wife vary will be influenced by the similarity or difference of the culture or sub-culture of the family in which he or she was reared; or, the extent of similarity or difference as to ethnic group, religion, education, occupation and socio-economic status.

With values as the criteria by which goals are selected in a particular situation, a husband and wife from different families, or from families of different cultures and sub-cultures may be expected to select goals which differ in varying proportions. Because an individual is not only what is common to all men, but is different from everyone else, his value system is therefore also unique. Again, with values as the criteria by which goals are selected in a particular situation, and because of the particular uniqueness of an
individual's value system, the goals selected by a husband and wife can be expected to differ to some degree.

The general hypothesis of this study is that within a given sample there will be varying degrees of agreement in the goals selected by husbands and wives.

Characteristics Influencing Goal Agreement Between Husband and Wife

The general hypothesis derived from the previous section indicated that within a sample of respondents we should expect to discover varying degrees of agreement in the selection of goals by husbands and wives. This section will be concerned with personal and social characteristics that affect the similarity of the value systems of the spouses and thus would seem to have an influence on the extent of goal agreement between husband and wife. Characteristics which seem most pertinent in this respect are: similarity of education, level of education, length of time married and making decisions together.

**Similar education**

Education is a means of developing verbal skills. Similarity in education implies similar verbal proficiency whereby communication is facilitated. When a symbol has a particular meaning attached to it, and this particular meaning
is also held by the other individual, a means of communication exists. As groups of symbols representing meanings of greater complexity are acquired, a higher level of communication is possible. Common verbal ability is a means of exploring the feelings, attitudes and beliefs of the other person, and facility in communication acquired through similar education is a means of increasing common meanings, understandings and shared feelings between husband and wife.

Education is acquired through meaningful experiences. Similar education implies that the recipients have had similar experience in general areas. Basic subjects make up the curriculum of most schools, although there are differences in some specialized areas. In addition there is a similarity from school to school in many of the extra-curricular activities, such as high school competitive athletics, social dancing, etc. Common experience facilitates communication and interaction. The more the accumulated experiences of the interactors "overlap", the more effectively they will be able to communicate.

Similar education from which similar experiences are derived affect the alternatives known by the husband and wife. A similar education suggests that the recipients share knowledge concerning the number and nature of alternatives that could be applied in a given situation, so that in choosing or listing goals there is a probability of higher agreement among such individuals. An example of this may be cited from Oommen
In her study it was found that the goal to provide for special education for their children was specified by significantly more of the homemakers who had completed high school than by those who had not.

Similarity of education affects the way husband and wife make decisions. Blood and Wolfe state:

Schooling trains people in verbal skills and knowledge which facilitate decision-making quite directly. In addition, schooling contributes to the effective participation of the individual in the community (through paid or voluntary participation) which in turn strengthens the power position of the individual. So whether directly or indirectly, the better-educated partner brings greater resources to the decision arena. (8, p. 37)

In their research study, they found that where the wife had at least five more years of schooling than the husband, she had the greater power in decision-making; when the husband had the greater amount of schooling, he had greater power in decision making (8, p. 37). Blood and Wolfe found that controlling by the husband's occupation did not change the relationship between power and educational differences of spouses. Instead, high-white-collar husbands exhibited more power than their wives if their education exceeded the wife's education. And the same trends held for the low-white-collar and the high-blue-collar groups, leaving only one, the low-blue-collar group, which showed reversal of the relationship (8, p. 38).

Dissimilarity in education is a contributing factor in
less satisfaction with companionship, less marital affection, and a higher percentage of disagreements. In their research Blood and Wolfe (8, p. 164) found that even a one- or two-year difference in education created a marked decline in satisfaction with companionship. They state,

Where differences in education exist (as with religion), it is the wife with more interest who feels most deprived because the husband is unable to keep up with her. Wives who have been to school without their husbands regret his inadequacies. Wives who have been to school without their husbands regret his inadequacies. Women who marry up provide their husbands with power and a feeling of superiority which he may appreciate, but power and companionship may be somewhat difficult to maintain in the same husband-wife relationship.

Educational differences interfere with marital affection. Where the wife has an education of three or more years more than her husband, satisfaction with love is less than where her education exceeds that of the husband by one or two years. Satisfaction with love is greatest when the education of both husband and wife are similar. When the education of the husband exceeds that of the wife, there is also diminished satisfaction with the love aspect of a marriage, but the relationship is not as strong as that between wife's educational superiority and satisfaction with love (8, p. 226).

Disagreements also rise with difference in education.

Quarrels over personal habits tend to occur in certain types of marital relationships. If the husband has had much more education than the wife, she seldom (11 per cent) mentions personality conflicts.
However, as the balance of education shifts in the opposite direction, the percentage of disagreements rises steadily to a peak of 25 per cent when the wife has had at least three more years of schooling than the husband. (8, p. 246)

In recapitulation, previous research has found that dissimilarity of education of marriage partners results in greater power in decision making for one spouse, less satisfaction with companionship in the marriage, less marital affection and a greater number of marital disagreements; it is assumed that these characteristics of a marriage would contribute to low goal agreement between husband and wife. Similarity in education contributes to common verbal ability and communication skills, and common verbal ability is a means of increased common meanings, understandings and shared feelings between husband and wife. Similarity in education also contributes to common experience, whereby interaction and communication is facilitated. Common experience suggests that alternatives known by husband and wife are similar. Common abilities, skills, experiences, and knowledge of alternatives would seem to increase the possibility of a husband and wife agreeing on goals.

It is hypothesized that the greater the degree of similarity of education of husbands and wives, the higher will be their goal agreement.
Level of education

It was previously pointed out that education is a means of developing verbal skills whereby communication is facilitated, and that common understandings, shared meanings and experiences are a function of communication. Blood and Wolfe state:

People who go to high school and college develop skills in communication and habits of self-expression. Hence, it is easier for them to express affection as well as to communicate information and opinions. Love is, after all, a kind of opinion—a very favorable opinion of another person. (8, p. 229)

Higher levels of similar education usually result in higher levels of ability in self-expression and communication. With increased facility of expression and communication, the husband and wife have the tools for increased thinking and exploring of alternatives. With higher levels of similar education, they have an increased means of communicating their experiences and opinions concerning them. It is hypothesized that among couples having a similar education, the higher the level of their education, the greater will be their goal agreement.

Length of time married

Charles Horton Cooley's classical definition of a primary group describes a group relationship in which there is an identification among its members to the extent that values in
their different dimensions are commonly held and the aims or objectives of the group are those of each individual. Cooley states a primary group is

...characterized by intimate face-to-face association and cooperation. The result of intimate association, psychologically, is a certain fusion of individualities in a common whole, so that one's very self, for many purposes at least, is the common life and purpose of the group. Perhaps the simplest way of describing this wholeness is by saying that it is a 'we'; it involves the sort of sympathy and mutual identification for which 'we' is the natural expression. One lives in the feeling of the whole and finds the chief aims of his will in that feeling. (9, p. 295)

The primary group as defined by Cooley approximates an ideal type. Before predicting the fusion of individualities in a common whole so that there is an identification of the marriage partners as to values, goals and purposes, complex factors need to be taken into consideration.

Stability of the human organism An individual's life is continuously active, and continuously purposive.

Life and activity are coexistent and inseparable. We do not have to explain why the organism acts, but only why it acts in one way rather than another. A stimulus does not initiate activity, but merely tends to modify in one or another way the activity already in progress. (33, p. 89)

Thomas presents the idea that preliminary to any self-determined act the individual is cognizant of a stimulus and the situation is defined. In defining a situation, past experiences of
an individual serve as a means of interpretation. Once the individual has interpreted a situation and responded to the stimulus, the particular act becomes a part of his experience, adding to other experiences. Experiences and attendant interpretations of those experiences are a tool by which further situations are defined. Gradually, as a result of the accumulative effect of the person's definition of many situations and the resulting satisfactions attendant to the acts of response, a whole life-policy and personality of the individual himself develops (43, p. 42).

The interaction of an individual and his environment is further explained by Alfred L. Baldwin,

The organism, or, in our case, the person, has a number of properties or characteristics. Because of these characteristics he behaves the way he does in the situation. On the other hand, it is equally valid to say that he behaves the way he does because of the characteristics of the situation. The same organism behaves differently in different situations; different organisms behave differently in the same situation. The behavior is, therefore a function both of the characteristics of the person and the characteristics of the situation. (3, p. 20)

Because of the influence of the situation upon the individual's behavior, and because of his native endowment, an individual, at any particular moment, is a product of his genetic endowment and past experiences in a social and physical environment. The social and physical environment is not a constant; change is the expected factor. Being influenced by
changing forces implies that personality is not static, it is a process wherein the environment modifies behavior. In a discussion of personality as a continual and on-going process, Simpson and Yinger state:

From our point of view, personality is best conceived, not as a collection of traits, not as a static system, but as process. As process, it can be understood only by analyzing the flow of behavior that comes from the interaction of the individual with the situation. An individual exists or behaves not in a vacuum but always in some situation. (38, p. 379)

In a social situation, the self-conscious individual takes or assumes the organized social attitudes of the given social group or community (or subsection thereof) to which he belongs, which process serves as a means of organizing his behavior so that he is able to function as an acceptable member of the group (31, p. 231). Individuals are role playing creatures, and their roles are enacted in regard to the expectations of the reference group with which the individual psychologically identifies at the moment in a given setting of sanctions and rewards. Entrance into any group requires that the roles peculiar to that group be learned. Lindesmith and Strauss assert:

In every society there are certain general behavior systems which broadly define and limit the conduct of the members of that society. . .(a) general role which influences the lives of many members of society and colors the entire texture of social
relations is that prescribed by the dominant values or ideals of a society. . . Whatever ideal is accepted compels the individual, if the ideal is to be realized, to follow a certain line of behavior that involves an entire complex of interwoven subsidiary roles. (25, p. 375)

While personality is conceived as a process, capable of modification through interaction with the social and physical environment, yet the individual is not a wholly malleable agent of the situation. Among its characteristics, other than process, personality is a unified scheme of experience. "We shall define the personality, then, as a unified scheme of experience, an organization of values that are consistent with one another." (33, p. 92) Behavior expresses the effort to maintain the integrity and unity of the organization.

The individual's organization of values furnishes him with standards which he feels obliged to maintain. As his standards are translated into action, a regularity of behavior results that presents continuity.

The point is that all of an individual's values are organized into a single system, the preservation of whose integrity is essential. The nucleus of the system, around which the rest of the system revolves, is the individual's valuation of himself. The individual sees the world from his own viewpoint, with himself as the center. Any value entering the system which is inconsistent with the individual's valuation of himself cannot be assimilated; it meets with resistance and is likely, unless a general reorganization occurs, to be rejected. This resistance is a natural phenomenon; it is essential for the maintenance of individuality. (33, p. 90)
In the opinion of Mead an individual can assume a position in a social environment and function as a socially acceptable member if he has developed the capacity to take the organized social attitude of the group to which he belongs. However, Mead recognized the person's individuality, and indicates it is the 'I' that responds to pressures from the reference group, and the expectation of others to his role. "It is the presence of those organized sets of attitudes that constitutes that 'me' to which he as an 'I' is responding." (31, p. 243)

Behavior is modifiable through interaction with the physical and social environment, but within limits of individual consistency. As indicated above, values become more firmly established and adaptability decreases. The stability of the human organism is illustrated in the statement by Adorno and his associates:

Although personality is a product of the social environment of the past, it is not, once it has developed, a mere object of the contemporary environment. What has developed is a structure within the individual, something which is capable of self-initiated action upon the social environment and of selection with respect to varied impinging stimuli, something which though always modifiable is frequently very resistant to fundamental change. This conception is necessary to explain consistency of behavior in widely varying situations, to explain the persistence of ideological trends in the face of contradicting facts and radically altered social conditions, to explain why people in the same sociological situation have different or even conflicting views on
social issues, and why it is that people whose behavior has been changed through psychological manipulation lapse into their old ways as soon as the agencies of manipulation are removed. (1, p. 6)

Reorganization and change of values  Values change by the same process that values are acquired originally. The individual develops values through interaction with variables in his environment.

The individual develops the ability to take the attitudes of others toward himself and toward one another. In so doing, and in the different roles that are played, the individual comes to accept the values of that role. A greater development takes place when the individual takes or assumes the organized social attitudes of the given social group or community (or subsection thereof) to which he belongs, which serves as a means of organizing his conduct and responding so that he functions as an acceptable member of the group (31, p. 231). As the self-conscious individual takes or assumes the organized social attitudes of the given social group or society, he is assimilating and assuming the given group's values. Participation in any group involves learning their values.

The individual's organization of values makes itself evident in the regularity of his behavior. However, in taking or assuming the organized social attitude of the given social group or society, values can and do change—the rate and
extent of change vary. In Moustakas it is stated:

It is important not to confuse these internal psychological standards with any sort of external standards of how people in general ought to behave. There is nothing to prevent a person from accepting these external standards as his own and making them a part of his system. All members of a family, for instance, define themselves as members of the family and will act in consistency with that definition. We think of ourselves also as belonging to larger groups, for instance as all being workers in a science, as all being Americans, members of the human race, and so on. If we accept definitions of ourselves as members of groups, it is just as necessary to maintain these definitions as to maintain definitions of ourselves as isolated individuals (this is the basis for reconciling the apparent contradiction between individual behavior and group behavior). Yet if a person does not accept them, he will not maintain them. The criminal is an obvious example. (33, p. 91)

Reorganization of the husband's and/or wife's value system towards greater similarity of the other spouse. For husbands and wives who remain married, probably a certain degree of compatibility is indicative of similar values and goal agreement. Couples that are incompatible, who have serious disagreements, and for whom the prospects of goal agreement are nil, probably become divorced. Data indicate that separation and divorce rates are highest in the early years of marriage and that couples with serious disagreements part within the first decade of marriage. The factors of identification, empathy, rewards, and consonance (lack of dissonance) wield an influence in affecting a greater similarity of values and are a means whereby the individual comes
to take or assume the organized social attitudes of the given social group or society.

**Identification** Taking or assuming the generalized attitude of the given social group or society whereby values are assimilated involves identification. Identification represents the effort of an individual to bring his ideas into a more unified relationship with the other individual(s). Differences are eliminated, and the bonds of relationship are strengthened by increasing a "generalized attitude of kind". In order for an individual to identify with a particular "generalized attitude of kind", he must become aware that such an attitude exists, and following this have the motivation to bring his own ideas into a unified relationship.

An individual is susceptible to the values of others who are significant in his life. Through interaction and social contact he is exposed to both explicit and implicit indoctrination. The latter occurs insidiously through a recurrent and unobtrusive exposure to the underlying value system of significant others. Explicit and implicit indoctrination are the means whereby the individual becomes aware of the values of others, and because the others are significant to him the motivation is provided whereby identification occurs. Identification with another individual is a means of developing similar values.
Empathy. For those who remain married, the passage of time should help a spouse develop an understanding of how the other feels and thinks. Social interaction in daily living facilitates each of the mates knowing the responses of the other to situations that arise. Communication, verbal and otherwise, indicates the feelings, desires and those things which the one mate feels is important to pursue. Empathy is a term which is used in describing the ability of one person to interpret the feelings, attitudes and intentions of others, and empathy is the means by which social integration is accomplished in contrast to incompatibility.

The daily interaction of living together and the proximity within a similar situation should enhance the empathic ability of those involved. Blood and Wolfe have this to say:

The passing years sap the energy which joint activities require and calm the fires of passionate love—but sheer living together provides the basic condition for understanding another person. The longer a man lives with a woman, the greater his accumulated store of memories of how she behaves, what upsets her, and what will make her feel better. The wisdom of experience enables him to read her facial expressions more accurately, to sense her silences, to interpret her sighs. Hearing her troubles becomes less necessary, since he can read her thoughts without words. (8, p. 218)

As was stated previously, role-taking wherein the individual adopts the standpoint of the other as his own, and identifies with the other-role allowing it to become a guide to his behavior is a means of the development of individual
values. Foote and Cottrell present the idea that empathy is basic to taking the role of the other, that it is a prerequisite to role taking. They purport that it is basic to social interaction and the communicative processes upon which rests social integration (14, p. 54). In this study, the assumption is made that taking the role of the other, and adopting the viewpoint of the other as a guide to behavior is a means in the assimilation and development of similar values. If empathy is basic to role taking, then empathy is one of the means whereby similar values are developed.

Rewards Many of the rewards to be gained in modern marriage have to do with personal happiness. Kenkel states:

We can point to specific motives like companionship, sexual satisfaction, or love, but when we examine them more carefully it must be admitted that these things are desired because they produce or are a part of happiness. (24, p. 317)

Americans do not feel the necessity of marriage for the purpose of reproducing the species, and as far as economic considerations are concerned, paired living is not a necessity for sustenance and existence. Each year thousands of individuals marry because they believe that in marriage and parenthood they will find a happier, fuller, and more meaningful life. The impetus for marriage comes from the promise of close, satisfying interpersonal relations (24).
Husbands and wives enter the marriage relationship anticipating rewards that are greater than rewards to be derived from alternative opportunities outside of marriage. In the interaction process between husband and wife, rewards or sanctions are forthcoming for activities emitted by the other. Rewards and sanctions either reinforce or punish social behavior. A special class of activities which are the signs of attitudes and feelings one individual takes toward another individual or individuals is called sentiments (19, p. 33). Homans states (19, p. 34): "Above all, sentiments resemble other activities in that they may reinforce or punish behavior." Sentiments are an expression of social approval, and Homans contends (19, p. 34):

We hold that all activities and sentiments emitted by one man in response to the behavior of another are more or less reinforcing or punishing to the behavior of the other or, as we shall say, more or less valuable to him.

Homans presents the proposition (19, p. 54): "(2) The more often within a given period of time a man's activity rewards the activity of another, the more often the other will emit the activity." Social approval is a reinforcer to behavior, and social disapproval is a deterrent to behavior. Social approval for a particular unit of activity is an impetus for the activity being repeated, and the husband and or wife receiving positive social approval from the other is receiving
reinforcement for a particular value.

The very fact that a husband and a wife each choose the other for a marriage partner, denotes social approval of each for the other. Love is the basis for mate selection in present day American marriages. Love implies that the person loved is held in high esteem by the other. It was previously indicated that highly discordant mates generally become divorced in the early years of marriage. It is highly probable that marriage partners in love and holding each other in high esteem will attempt to maintain the social approval of the other. The giving or withholding of social approval is the means whereby sanctions are applied in the marriage relationship which result in activity emitted by each of the spouses in compliance with the values of the other. Loomis quoting from Homans states:

(just as) money is used to reinforce, to reward, a . . . (wide variety of activities and is thus spoken of) as a generalized reinforcer, (so too is social approval): one can reinforce a wide variety of human activities by providing social approval and similar sentiments in return. (28, p. 220)

Consonance Consonance has its opposite in dissonance. According to Festinger, the terms "dissonance" and "consonance" refer to relations which exist between pairs of "elements". These elements refer to cognition, things a person knows about himself, about his behavior, and about his
surroundings. Two elements are dissonant if they do not fit together, if they are inconsistent or contradictory, if the one does not, or would not be expected to follow from the other. An individual strives to reduce dissonance, or an inconsistency between himself and his environment (12). The theory of cognitive dissonance led Festinger to generate the following hypotheses:

1. The existence of dissonance, being psychologically uncomfortable, will motivate the person to try to reduce the dissonance and achieve consonance (or consistency).

2. When dissonance is present, in addition to trying to reduce it, the person will actively avoid situations and information which will likely increase the dissonance. (12, p. 3)

A means of reducing the occurrence of dissonance is by social interaction with people who share similar attitudes and values. As stated previously, homogamy is the mode in mate selection (at a decelerating rate), and implies social interaction between people holding similar values and attitudes. According to the proposition of Festinger (and assuming that highly discordant mates probably become divorced), if an inconsistency is present in the marriage relationship due to different reasons (length of courtship before marriage, marriage of individuals from different cultures and subcultures), the individuals being psychologically uncomfortable,
will be motivated to try to reduce the dissonance and achieve consonance.

A husband or wife may try to effect greater consistency. Festinger suggests that dissonance may also be reduced by attempting to persuade those who disagree to change their opinion, and states the attempt only occurs once the individual has obtained strong support from others most like himself. In a marital situation, the husband or wife having the support of the other (compatibility in marriage) would be motivated to try to change the attitude and opinion of the other in order to bring about greater consonance.

The processes of identification, empathy, giving or receiving rewards, and of striving for consonance are accomplished by means of social interaction. Through social interaction, the behavior of an individual is influenced by that of another individual or group so that the processes listed above effect greater consistency and harmony between or among individuals. Inherent in greater consistency and harmony, is a greater similarity in beliefs, in ways of striving and doing. These things are represented by values, and as values are the criteria by which goals are selected, a greater similarity in values should produce greater goal agreement.

However, it is not possible to predict that because of the factors of identification, empathy, rewards, and consonance all individuals progress equally in achieving greater
harmony and consistency with others with whom they are interacting. Individuals appear to differ in their capacity to identify, and to bring their ideas into a more unified relationship with other individuals. All individuals do not appear to have the same social awareness of a situation. People appear to differ in their capacity to empathize, in their ability to interpret correctly the attitudes and intentions of others, in the accuracy with which they can perceive situations from others' standpoint, and thus in their ability to anticipate and predict another's behavior (14, p. 54). Differences in values and in the intensity with which values are held can influence the degree to which individuals are capable of change, even when social approval for change is given.

The foregoing discussion suggests that among compatible spouses the processes of identification, empathy, social rewards, and striving toward consonance would produce over time a similarity of beliefs and values of husband and wife. While individual differences among people may contaminate the relationship between passage of time and the development of similarity of values, it is assumed that the passage of time and the interaction thereby made possible are strong factors in the production of value-similarity between spouses. It is therefore hypothesized that within a sample of married couples, the greater the length of time married, the greater will be
the goal agreement of husband and wife.

Making decisions together

Joint husband-wife decision making can refer to either, or both, of two types of decision making activities. In one type, decisions may be made together in clarifying and formulating goals. In a problem situation, the individual or individuals may feel a need, an uncertainty, or an awareness that a change needs to take place. In the clarification of the problem or the situation, alternative changes are considered, relevant alternatives are determined and weighed, and a choice is made. A goal is decided upon that has the potentiality of modifying behavior. The spouses can contribute equally or differentially to the selection of family goals. "Decision-making togetherness" may also describe activity that has to do with determining action necessary for the attainment of goals. This process, as described by Gartner, involves four steps:

(1) Determination of total alternatives--alternatives are acquired during the daily routine without expenditure of appreciable amounts of family resources, and by conscious search involving the use of time, money, energy and other available resources.

(2) Selection of relevant alternatives--in this phase the family eliminates those alternatives which are outside its range of action.

(3) Weigh the relevant alternatives--evaluate the attributes of each.
(4) Make a choice--after having estimated the net satisfactions from each alternative, a choice is consumated. (15, p. 7)

The above or similar decision-making tasks can be accomplished by one spouse or by both spouses in interaction. Whether done by one or by both spouses, courses of action can be selected. It is felt, however, that joint husband-wife decision-making has different effects on the spouses than does decision-making performed only by one spouse and that some of the effects are related to the degree to which husbands and wives come to agree upon their goals.

Decision-making is a necessary process in performing management functions, and in joint husband-wife decision-making many of these functions pertain to family living. In the enactment of the process, communication takes place between the husband and wife, opinions are shared, projections are made into the future, and past experiences are brought to bear in making decisions concerned with the present and future. A stage of consensus is arrived at, and a decision between the husband and wife is consumated.

When goals are selected together, it suggests that there has been an airing of different and possibly contradictory goals and perhaps a compromise has been made. In the joint process, at any rate, both spouses ultimately should agree on what were selected as family goals, whether or not either originally endorsed the goals. The joint selection of goals suggests either original agreement on goals or the development
of some degree of agreement through the selection process.

Joint husband-wife decision-making regarding the attainment of goals provides both partners with information regarding specific action, taken or contemplated, which will affect both. Such a joint activity would seem to provide a better opportunity for either spouse to ponder, to question, or to ask the other about the goals to which the action presumably is related, than when the methods of reaching a goal are determined by one spouse. This joint activity would seem to facilitate the development of goal agreement even if it did not earlier exist.

The foregoing discussion suggests that joint and unilateral decision-making have differential effects on the degree of goal agreement between husband and wife that can be expected to develop and to be maintained. It is hypothesized that husbands and wives who jointly make decisions will exhibit greater goal agreement than those who do not make decisions jointly.

Hypothesis

From this section of Characteristics Influencing Goal Agreement between Husband and Wife a general hypothesis is derived: Husbands and wives who have high agreement on goals will have certain characteristics that differentiate them from husbands and wives with low agreement on goals. Characteristics which seem most pertinent in differentiating those
with low and high agreement on goals are: similarity of education, level of education, length of time married and the pattern of making decisions together. Hypotheses derived in relation to each of these characteristics are:

The greater the degree of similarity of education of husbands and wives, the higher will be their goal agreement.

Among couples having a similar education, the higher the level of their education, the greater will be their goal agreement.

The greater the length of time married, the greater will be the goal agreement of husband and wife.

Husbands and wives who jointly make decisions will exhibit greater goal agreement than those who do not make decisions jointly.

Influence of Training on Goal Agreement and Goal Agreement Change

In previous sections a general hypothesis relating to goal agreement between husbands and wives was formulated. Theory pertaining to selected characteristics and their influence on goal agreement between husbands and wives was developed. This section is concerned with the effect of training in the management process on husband-wife goal agreement and goal agreement change. In relation to goal agreement between husbands and wives, consideration will be given to the effect of training in management, the involvement of the learners in management training, the attitude of the learners toward the
management training and the effectiveness of the educators in relation to goal agreement between husbands and wives. General hypotheses and sub-hypotheses will be formulated.

**Educational training in management**

Management is a function of social units and institutions, and within the different areas in which it takes place, common denominators are evidenced. Liston states (27, p. 9): "Yet, if management is an entity within itself regardless of the social unit which is concerned with it, one would expect certain common denominators in definitions of it by each unit."

By way of illustrating the meaning of Liston's statement, examples are presented:

Markin in a discussion of management in its relation to business has this to say:

Management is the accomplishment of some desired goal with the available resources. It may be described in several ways, any one of which may be the more or less arbitrary selection of the writer. Terminology and the groupings of factors and functions are not necessarily important; whether or not they adequately cover the work of management is significant. (30)

Gross and Crandall in a definition of management in relation to family living state:

Home management consists of a series of decisions making up the process of using family resources to achieve family goals. The process consists of three more or less consecutive steps: planning; controlling the various elements of the plan while
carrying it through, whether it is executed by oneself or by others; and evaluating results preparatory to future planning. (16, p. 4)

The Malones in defining management in relation to the farm and home indicate:

To manage is to have control over resources, to organize, guide, and direct their use, and to be responsible for the results that follow.

Unless a manager has resources under his control, he is not in a position to manage. Nor can one guide and direct very well until goals are clearly in mind, so the manager needs to know where he wants to go. To manage well is to move toward the goal in the best possible way. (29, p. 40)

The common denominators cited by Liston, resources and goals or objectives, are explicitly stated in each of these references, and the decision-making process is included in all either specifically or by implication (27, p. 9). From these references one also derives the component of process—management is a mental process that has definite successive steps.

Training in management implies an indoctrination in relation to the common denominators: goals or objectives and resources, as well as the process (including decision-making) by which management is accomplished. Probably all families are not equally aware of their goals, and within a single family some goals may be quite explicit, while others are implicit. It is also entirely possible for families to have
a feeling of uneasiness, or to have different stages of awareness in relation to a problem without having clarified the problem and formulated a goal. Goal clarification is a starting point in management training. Husbands and wives who are recipients of such training have the opportunity to focus on their needs, wants, and hopes, and in the process clarify and formulate goals preliminary to making decisions and plans for their attainment. Management training wherein goals and their attainment is the focus of attention, would render assistance to husbands and wives in an increased awareness of goals they consider to be most important, and the relationship of other goals to these. It is hypothesized that husbands and wives who had management training will have higher goal agreement, and will have higher positive goal agreement change than husbands and wives who received no such training.

A generalization of Beal and Bohlen is that the acceptance of new ideas is not a unit act, but rather a series of complex unit acts--a mental process. Their generalizations are based on the findings of thirty-five research studies conducted during the past twenty years in various parts of the United States. This team of sociologists conclude from their research findings that the mental process of accepting new ideas consists of at least five stages: 1) the awareness stage, 2) the interest stage, 3) the evaluation stage, 4) the trial stage, and 5) the adoption stage (5, p. 2).
At the awareness stage, the individual knows about the existence of the idea, but he lacks details concerning it. As awareness increases, and interest develops (interest stage) an individual wants more information about the idea or product. He wants to know what it is, how it works and what its potentialities are. At the third stage (evaluation) the individual makes a mental trial of the idea. He applies the information obtained in the previous stages to his own situation. The trial stage is characterized by small-scale experimental use after the individual has decided the idea has possibilities for him and he will try it. He has a need for specific information which deals with how to use it, when to use it and how it works best for his own specific situation. The final stage in this mental process is the adoption. This stage is characterized by large-scale, continued use of the idea, and most of all, by satisfaction with the idea (5).

Each of the stages indicates a development up to that point, with further development taking place after the process is completed in the prior stage. There are particular kinds of challenges and information that aid in the mental process at each of the stages. In a training program aimed at the adoption of a new idea, involvement is an important factor in impelling the individual to change, and in aiding him with guidance he needs. Involvement is defined as the activities and interaction of the learner with the learning situation.
Participation in a management training program is represented by interaction with the educator, with group activities and an opportunity for application of theoretical principles on the empirical level as the learner proceeds through the five stages.

Inasmuch as clarification and formulation of goals is a component of the management process, and training in management involves this activity, it is hypothesized that the greater the involvement of husband and wife in a management training program, the greater will be their goal agreement and the greater will be the positive goal agreement change between husband and wife.

**Attitude of learners and goal agreement**

Training in the management process implies that the recipients are involved in a situation wherein it is expected change will take place. Enrollment of a husband and wife in management training is probably indicative of their dissatisfaction with their present situation. It could indicate that they feel that their familiar way of behavior no longer works in a new environment or in one that has been altered; it could indicate that there is a recognition on the part of husband and wife that there is a better way of managing than their current practices. These are stimuli towards change. Lippit, *et al.*, indicate that four different types of motivation may be distinguished in the change process:
The client system may feel dissatisfaction or pain associated with the present situation. Then the change force is a desire for relief... Sometimes the dissatisfaction arises from a perceived discrepancy between what is and what might be... Sometimes external pressures will be brought to bear upon the client system to make it change its behavior. One example of such environmental "requiredness" is the expectation of society that an individual will change his behavior as he grows older, as he develops from an infant into an adult... Finally, there is the possibility that some internal requiredness will set up pressures toward change... These needs are assumed to be steady forces operating within the system. When they are not satisfied, they become pressures toward change. (26, p. 73)

Inherent in a situation are factors that encourage change, and vice versa, factors that operate to resist change. An individual himself frequently feels an ambivalence, a hesitation or doubt as to whether or not to proceed with the change indicated. Lippitt, et al., contends:

Resistant forces which might arise early in the change project include a general opposition to change, actual inability to change, opposition to a proposed change objective, and a desire to preserve existing satisfactions. Resistance may also arise from the relationship between the client system and the change agent. Most of these forms of resistance can occur early or late in the change process. In addition, there are some resistance forces which can arise after the project is underway. These include a re-evaluation of costs and difficulties which seemed possible to handle at the beginning but which the client system later finds it cannot handle, a loss of energy and motivation through excessive prolongation of the diagnostic phase of the project, and a premature cessation of change activities because of the impending end of the relationship with the change agent. (26, p. 89)

In a training situation involving individuals occupied in
change, there are forces representative of motives, capacities, and situational factors which influence behavior. Individuals develop attitudes, and because of their attitudes their behavior is frequently categorized as being "cooperative", and in relation to their cooperation listed as "very good", "good", "fair" and "poor".

Training received in the management process wherein husbands and wives clarify and formulate goals provides opportunity for greater goal agreement between husband and wife if the effect of resistant forces are not too profound. It is hypothesized that the greater the degree of the husband's and wife's cooperation with the management training program, the higher will be their goal agreement and positive goal agreement change.

Effectiveness of educators and goal agreement

In a change situation wherein it is hoped new skills, new attitudes, and increased understanding will be developed, the proficiency of the educator or change-agent is a decisive factor as to whether or not this is accomplished. The educator himself must possess sufficient motivation and resources for his job. Problems associated with the educator's or change-agent's ability to effect a change include: being able effectively to motivate the client system or those involved in making a change; being able to relate effectively to others; and having the necessary skills and knowledge for accomplishing
the proposed change.

To motivate others sufficiently requires that the change agent is genuinely motivated in giving help, and that he feels a justification for what he is doing in effecting a change. The change agent's feelings are easily transported to the client system. It is important for the educator to feel a "rightness" about what he is doing, and it is equally important that the individuals involved in making a change are convinced they are receiving friendly and competent help—that change is actually possible. Lippet, et al, state:

No change agent can afford to take himself for granted. His objectives must be clear to himself and to others. The emotional reactions which he experiences as a result of his participation in the change process become a part of that process itself, and thus it is his responsibility to be aware of these emotional reactions, to minimize their irrational elements, and to keep the rational elements in proper perspective. He can be sure that many of his feelings about the change project will be communicated to the client system. Both members—agent and client—will function more effectively if these feelings are channeled into confidence and realistic optimism than if they are dissipated in anxiety, uncertainty, and self-doubt. (26, p. 86)

The educator's ability to relate himself to others is partly dependent upon the recipient's feeling that he is receiving friendly and competent help. It is also dependent upon the individual's feeling he is regarded as a worthwhile individual. A threat to the personality is a deterrent to relatedness. Being able effectively to relate himself to
others and at the same time give direction and needed leadership is a function of the educator.

The resources the educator can draw on in a training situation affect the confidence placed in him by those receiving the training. To present an educational program in management requires that the educator understand the meaning of management and the factors involved in the management process, as well as having an understanding of the theoretical application in an empirical situation. He needs to be able to assist an individual receiving training to apply management in his own particular situation.

Because of differences in background experiences and training, it does not seem logical to expect that educators are equally matched in their proficiencies and skills in motivating, in their abilities to relate to others and in their technical competencies. It does not seem justifiable to predict that individuals trained in the management process by different educators will make equal progress.

It is hypothesized that there will be a difference in the goal agreement and goal agreement change of husbands and wives after having participated in management training administered by different educators.

Hypotheses

From this section of Influence of Training on Goal Agreement and Goal Agreement Change two general hypotheses are
derived: Husbands and wives who have had training and involvement in the management process will have higher goal agreement than husbands and wives who have had little or no training in the management process. And, husbands and wives who have had training and involvement in the management process will have made higher positive change in goal agreement than husbands and wives who have had little or no training in the management process.

It is suggested that factors within management training that would influence greater goal agreement between husband and wife include: whether or not training was received, involvement of the learners in the training, attitude of the learners, and the effectiveness of the educators. Sub-hypotheses derived in relation to each of these factors and in relation to the general hypothesis husbands and wives who have had training and involvement in the management process will have higher goal agreement than husbands and wives who have had little or no training in the management process are:

Husbands and wives who had management training will have higher goal agreement than husbands and wives who received no such training.

The greater the involvement of husband and wife in a management training program, the greater will be their goal agreement.

The greater the degree of the husband's and wife's cooperation with the management training program, the higher will be their goal agreement.
There will be a difference in the goal agreement of husbands and wives after having participated in management training administered by different educators.

Sub-hypotheses derived in relation to each of the above factors within management training and in relation to the general hypothesis husbands and wives who have had training and involvement in the management process will have made higher positive change in goal agreement than husbands and wives who have had little or no training in the management process are:

Husbands and wives who had management training will have higher positive goal agreement change than husbands and wives who received no such training.

The greater the involvement of husband and wife in a management training program, the greater will be the positive goal agreement change between husband and wife.

The greater the degree of the husband's and wife's cooperation with the management training program, the higher will be their positive goal agreement change.

There will be a difference in the goal agreement change of husbands and wives after having participated in management training administered by different educators.
PROCEDURE AND METHOD

In the previous chapter, a theory of goal agreement and change in goal agreement between husbands and wives was developed. A general hypothesis and three sub-hypotheses with hypotheses in relation to each of these were derived. This chapter will deal with the source and collection of data, and the method of testing the data whereby conclusions can be reached as to whether or not the hypotheses developed are supported. Specifically, this chapter is divided into four sections. In the first section, the source and collection of data will be described. In order to operationalize the theoretical concept of goal agreement, the second section will be devoted to the development of instruments for measuring goal agreement and change in goal agreement. The third section will describe data used to define operationally the theoretical concepts of the three sub-hypotheses. The fourth section will describe the methods of data analysis.

Source and Collection of Data for Study

Source of data

Data for this study were taken from the Iowa Agriculture and Home Economics Experiment Station Project No. 1278, Evaluation of the Iowa Extension Farm Family Development Program. It was a joint project between the Agricultural...
Extension Service and the Agricultural Experiment Station in cooperation with the W. W. Kellogg Foundation, and was under the general supervision of the Iowa State University Interdisciplinary Committee for Research on Intensive Extension Programs. The basic objective was to provide data about the relative effectiveness of the farm and home development educational approach, when compared with the traditional Extension educational approach, that would allow Extension Administration a means of evaluating the role of farm and home development in the over-all Iowa Extension program.

Farm and home development is a method of doing Extension Service education, and involves an intensive educational effort with a relatively small number of families. The purpose of farm and home development is clarified by a statement from a policy document of the Iowa Extension Service:

Farm and home development is an organized effort on the part of the Extension Service to teach the farm family to manage more effectively. If family members are to manage effectively, they must (1) have an understanding of their own goals; (2) have a reasonably adequate set of resources to manage; and (3) understand and be able to apply the process of management. (23, p. 1)

Although the farm and home development program is a cooperative venture between the farm family and the Extension Service, each have their unique responsibilities.
The central focus of this program is the farm family in a setting where each family makes its own estimates of what its problems are and what contributes to its welfare. The obligation the Extension Service undertakes is (1) to help the family clarify goals, and evaluate alternatives; (2) to teach the essentials of management and their applications; and (3) to inform and counsel on all matters that the family deems important on which Extension workers are competent to assist. ... Extension undertakes to teach each family whatever it needs to learn to make its management effective. In practice, this means helping families integrate personal and family goals, problem solving methods, the maximization process, and technical information from many fields. (23, p. 1)

**Overall experimental plan** Since the principle purpose of the project was to measure the effect of farm and home development, there had to be some standard for comparison. In addition to measuring the progress of the people who received the farm and home development training, the progress of a second group of farm families, called the control group, also was measured. The control group received the traditional Extension service.

Before the farm and home development program was started with the treatment group, a survey was made of both control and treatment samples. This was accomplished in 1956. After the farm and home development program had been in operation for four years (1960), interviewers returned to all available farm families interviewed in the benchmark survey of 1956 and interviewed them again with the same questionnaire. By this means, the progress of the control farm families in comparison
to the treatment families could be evaluated.

Data were gathered in several general category areas: husband and wife goals, economic status of the farm family, selected personal characteristics of respondents (age, education, special training and score on the Gordon Personality Profile), practices used (farm, household and child rearing), sources of information, use of the Extension Service, decision-making, social participation and satisfaction with present status and degree of achievement in attainment of goals.

The Iowa State University statistical laboratory collaborated with the Iowa State University Interdisciplinary Committee for Research on Intensive Extension Programs in designing the survey, and collected, processed and tabulated the data.

Designation of counties In determining the selection of counties appropriate for the survey, a four-way classification of all Iowa counties was made:

1. Those counties which had a farm and home development program already underway.

2. Those counties which had no farm and home development program but were ready to initiate such programs.

3. Those counties which had no farm and home development programs, were not ready to initiate farm and home development programs immediately, but had high probability of initiating them in the next four years.
Those counties which had no farm and home development programs and would probably not initiate extensive farm and home development programs within the next four years.

The counties in category (2) were the potential for the treatment counties. Those in category (4) were the potential for the control counties.

The second stratification was made on type of farming area in Iowa. Beal (4) states type of farming area was used for three major reasons:

(1) To assure different type of farming area counties in the sample, (2) to give a somewhat general sample distribution over the state, (3) to attempt to provide counties that were in different Extension supervisory districts—thus provide a realistic test of the program under different supervision and area specialist resources. (4, p. 9)

The survey was carried out in each of five major types of farming areas into which Iowa is divided: Area 1, western livestock; Area 2, central cash grain; Area 3, north eastern dairy; Area 4, southern pasture; and Area 5, eastern livestock.

Within each type of farming area a treatment county was paired with a control county so that the two counties were as nearly alike as possible with respect to soil fertility, type of farm operations, and other farm characteristics. From each farming area one such pair was drawn at random. The "treatment" counties were Cherokee, Hamilton, Chickasaw, Marion and Clinton. "Control" counties were Ida, Webster, Howard, Lucas
and Jackson.

**Sample size**  In determining the sample size, the desired precision of the survey results, the cost of conducting the survey, the size group which could be worked with in the treatment counties, and the expected degree of cooperation with Farm and Home Development program in the treatment counties were considered. It was originally estimated that about 500 interviews could be taken with the existing budget, and that about one and a half times as many should be interviewed in the treatment counties as in the control counties. This was because only about two thirds of those interviewed in the treatment counties could be expected to cooperate with the Farm and Home Development Program. To secure a sufficient number of Farm and Home Development participants for analysis, it was decided to sample 55 eligible families in the treatment counties and 35 in the control counties, leaving an equal number of cooperating treatment farmers and control farmers, and a third group of non-cooperating treatment farmers which could be used for comparison.

**Definition of the population**  The definition of the population within each of the counties upon which the sampling procedure was based was: (4, p. 10) All farm families

1. who consisted of an operator and a homemaker who were husband and wife
2. in which the operator was under 38 years of age
3. in which the operator worked less than 100 days off the farm
4. whose gross income from sale of agricultural products totaled more than $1,200
5. in which the operator was not in partnership with a person over 38 years of age
6. who intended to operate a farm in the sample area during the next farming season.

Stratification of the counties The educational phase of the Farm and Home Development program proposed to use both the direct family counseling and the small group approach. The recommendation was that groups should be organized as nearly as possible on a "community" basis so that all families would be from the same social group.

The Iowa counties are stratified into "natural social communities". The farm families in Iowa tend to identify themselves with a certain community, and this community is usually about the size of a township. The average Iowa county contains 16 townships of 36 square miles each so that this way of designating the size of a community would take care of counties of different size. The stratification was carried out with the help of the County Extension Director and such other people as knew the social patterns in that county (20, p. 5).

To assure that neither a very cooperative nor a very un-cooperative sample would be formed in any given county, and to arrive at a more representative sample of farm families, the
county Extension staff was asked to rank all of their delineated communities into three strata: one third of the communities that had the lowest degree of cooperation with Extension; the one third that had medium degree of cooperation, and the one third that had the highest degree of cooperation. Three communities were drawn in each of the ten counties; one community being drawn at random from each of the three "cooperation groups". The number of interviews taken in a given community depended on the size of this community relative to the size of the other communities in that county.

**Sampling within the communities**  In most of the counties, the selected communities contained more than the desired number of eligible respondents, and those to be interviewed were randomly selected.

**Collection of data**  Trained interviewers collected the data. It was felt that the same interviewer who worked in a given treatment county should also work in the control county of that pair. If there was any interviewer bias present for this interviewer, the bias would appear in both treatment and control county so that the comparison between the two counties could be expected to be valid.

Due to the length of the interview schedule, each interview was split into two stages; the two stages of the interview were taken approximately a month apart. In total, the
interviews with each husband and wife took approximately from four to five hours.

For the 1956 survey, total data were collected from 271 treatment families and 161 control families randomly drawn. The follow-up study of 1960 provided data collected from a total of 220 in the treatment county families and a total of 134 in the control county families. No treatment county fell below 40 families in the follow-up study; the fewest number of families in a control county was 33. The same respondents were contacted in both surveys; the decrease in respondents in the 1960 survey resulted from movement of people out of the treatment or control areas (4, p. 11 and 16).

**Goal selection, open-end response**

Inasmuch as this study is concerned with goal selection, an account of how goals were selected by the respondents follows. The methods of collecting data on husband and wife goals were by open-end and forced-choice responses.

It was indicated to the respondents,

* A person of your age and experience often has a number of important things you are working toward—things you want to do. For example, things you would like to do in your own personal life, your farm, your household, your family and your community. (22, p. 4)

They were then asked, "As you see it now, what things seem to be most important in your life?"
This probe provided the stimulus for the respondents to list their goals in their own words.

**Goal selection, forced-choice response**

A list of fifteen goals printed on a card was handed to the husband and the wife, and each was asked (22, p. 4), "Here is a list of things that some farm families think are important. Which one of these things seems most important to you and your family?" The husband and wife were each asked to list their first choice, and this was continued until five goals, in order of importance to each respondent, had been chosen. The fifteen goals from which the respondents selected five were:

1. Improve the house and the fixed household equipment such as furnace, storm windows, back porch, kitchen cabinets, etc.
2. Improve the appearance of the farmstead.
3. Keep up to date on farming (homemaking).
4. Improve the productivity of the farm itself.
5. Provide a good education for my children.
6. Be more active in church affairs.
7. Improve my ability as a husband and parent (wife and parent).
8. Make a considerable increase in ownership of property or additions to savings.
9. Travel and see more of my country.
10. Add to my moveable home furnishings to make my home more comfortable or convenient.
11. Learn to be a better manager of money and time.
12. Learn to more fully appreciate music, art, and literature.
13. Gain and maintain the respect of my neighbors and other community members.
15. Improve the farm buildings and fixed farm equipment.
The list of fifteen goals was selected by the Iowa State University Interdisciplinary Committee for Research on Intensive Extension Programs, and was judged by them to contain items representative of the most common areas in which families formulate goals.

Decision-making

In this study it is felt an understanding of goal selection agreement may be gained by relating goal selection to decision-making. Data were collected on decision-making by the husband and wife. The respondents were handed a sheet on decision-making, and the interviewer stated,

Here is a list of activities which most farm families would engage in at one time or another. In connection with each of these activities, a decision between two things usually must be made. We would like for you to make two checks for each one of these activities; the first check will tell whether you and your mate usually discuss this thing before you decide what to do, and the second check will tell who really makes the final decision. (22, p. 6)

For the second check, "Who really makes the decision", four alternatives that might apply to the respondents were listed: Farm operator, homemaker, together, or each makes his own choice. If none of these applied, another column "This could not apply to our family" could be checked. The hypothetical decision-making activities were:

1. Buying household needs such as an ironing board or an iron
2. What is to be given to church or charity
3. Disciplining the children
4. Where to go on trips or holidays
5. Where to go out socially
6. TV or radio programs
7. Whom to vote for at a general election
8. Buying a cultivator

Summary

It is felt that data collected from respondents in the surveys of 1956 and 1960 in the Evaluation of the Iowa Extension Farm Family Development Program are suitable for a study related to factors influencing goal agreement and change in goal agreement between husband and wife. Data were collected from representative farm areas, and treatment and control counties with similar farm characteristics were randomly selected. The respondents were randomly selected from a defined population, and a sample large enough to be meaningful was used. An appropriate questionnaire was developed, and the husband and wife each responded by selecting and listing "those things of most importance to them and their family". The data available are pertinent to the focus of this study.

Measurement of Agreement and Change in Goal Selection

In this section, a description of the development of instruments for measuring goal agreement will be presented together with an evaluation of the individual methods. A
designation of the instrument selected for measuring goal agreement in this study will be given. Factors influencing agreement over a period of time necessitates the development of a method for measuring change. Methods whereby change can be studied are also developed and described in this section.

In a study concerned with goal agreement between husband and wife, an instrument for measuring agreement is needed. According to the knowledge of the author of this study, no such instrument has been developed. Some studies indicate that the majority of husbands and wives know what they, as a family, are trying to do over a long-time period and are endeavoring to accomplish these things together (17, p. 57). However, as pointed out in the chapter on a Review of Literature, a scrutiny of the goals selected by husbands and wives indicates that the goals selected by the spouses do not have the same rank order. To make valid statements concerning the extent of husband-wife goal agreement, an instrument for measuring agreement on goals is needed.

**Measurement of goal selection agreement, forced-choice responses**

In arriving at an instrument that would be valid in measuring goal agreement, three instruments were developed and are designated as instruments "A", "B" and "C".

From the list of fifteen goals presented them, each
husband and wife listed five goals in order of their first, second, third, fourth and fifth goal choice. For example, if a husband indicated his selection as Goals 5, 7, 11, 6 and 9, and a wife indicated her selection as Goals 7, 11, 8, 6 and 12, their choices would be tabulated as indicated in Figure 2.

**Instrument "A" for measuring agreement**  
An instrument for measuring husband-wife agreement on goals needs to take into account the similarity or dissimilarity of the goals selected by the spouses. In the forced-choice responses, selection of the same five goals by husband and wife indicates an agreement; and, vice versa, selection of no goals in common indicates disagreement or no agreement. A method of measuring the extent of goal agreement in the forced-choice goal responses which takes into consideration the number of similar goals appearing on the husband's and the wife's list may be expressed:

**Agreement designation:**

- **Very good agreement on goals:** 5 appeared on the wife's list  
  4 appeared on the wife's list

- **Moderate agreement on goals:** 3 appeared on the wife's list  
  2 appeared on the wife's list

- **Poor agreement on goals:** 1 appeared on the wife's list  
  0 appeared on the wife's list

The use of instrument "A" thus results in a quantitative definition of husband-wife agreement on goals with scores ranging from 0 to 5.
Instrument "B" for measuring agreement

Instrument "B" takes into account both the goals that appeared on the lists of husbands and wives and the order of choice that was designated by each spouse. Even though both husband and wife may have selected the same goal, their rank order for an identical goal could have ranged from first in importance to fifth in importance. To compute a score using instrument "B", identical ordering of the same goal by husband and wife was given a score of "8" points; if the same goal appeared on the lists of both spouses but was assigned by the wife one rank higher or one rank lower than that assigned by the husband, it was scored "6" points; two ranks or steps difference was scored "4" points, and three or four ranks difference "2" points; a goal selected by one spouse and not by the other "0" points. Subtraction of the ranks assigned by the spouses, in the case of a goal appearing on both lists, was the means of determining whether or not a goal was identical in order of choice and of determining the number of steps between the rank orders of the spouses.

To compute the degree of husband-wife agreement, one begins with the first goal on the husband's list and determines whether that goal was mentioned by the wife at all and, if mentioned, where it appeared in her rank ordering of the goals. The appropriate score value of 0 to 8 is then assigned for this goal on the basis described above. The procedure is
Figure 2. Chart for computing goal agreement scores for forced-choice response goal lists of husbands and wives using instruments "A", "B" and "C"
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goals</th>
<th>Instrument &quot;A&quot;</th>
<th>Instrument &quot;B&quot;</th>
<th>Instrument &quot;C&quot;</th>
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<td>15.</td>
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</table>

- **Order of Choice**: 
  - Husband: 12345
  - Wife: 12345

- **Agreement score**: 
  - Instrument "A": 19
  - Instrument "B": 3
  - Instrument "C": 5 (inverted)

Goals that appear on both lists:
repeated for the remaining four goals on the husband's list. Thus the total agreement scores can range from 0 to 40; the higher the score, the higher the degree of agreement. An illustration of the computation of an agreement score by instrument "B" appears in Figure 2.

**Instrument "C" for measuring agreement**

This method of computing a score takes into account the similarity of goals selected by husband and wife, and the similarity of rank order in which the goals were indicated. The agreement score is computed by subtraction, and the rank order is the basis for subtracting. If the same goal was selected by the husband and wife, the smaller of the two ranks indicated (by either husband or wife) was subtracted from the larger. In Figure 2 Goal 7 was selected by the husband in a rank order of 2, and the wife also selected Goal 7 but indicated a rank order of 1. Subtracting the smaller rank from the larger, 2 minus 1 equals a score of 1. If both spouses selected the same goal in the same rank order, then subtracting according to rank, the score equaled "0". If the goal was selected by one spouse and not by the other, the rank order was subtracted from "6". If there had been a selection of six goals in order of importance instead of five, there is a probability of one out of ten that one of the remaining goals not listed would have been selected as the sixth choice. Whenever one of the mates selected a goal not selected by the other, the rank order of that goal was
subtracted from "6". It is entirely probable, even with listing six goals in a rank order, one of the spouses would still have selected a goal not selected by the other spouse. However, in this method of computing the score, when a goal was selected by one of the spouses and not by the other, arbitrarily the rank order of the goal selected was subtracted from "6", or one rank beyond the number of items being ranked.

The selection of the same goal in the same rank order, is the highest goal selection agreement possible between the spouses (if husband and wife both selected Goal 4 in a rank order of 1, the score was "0"). Because the lower the score, the higher the agreement on goal selection between husband and wife, the final score was inverted. After inversion, the higher the score, the higher the goal selection agreement. The total agreement scores can range from 0 to 30. An illustration of the computation of an agreement score using instrument "C" appears in Figure 2. The total score has been inverted.

Selection of instrument for measuring agreement, forced-choice response To test the three different procedures for measuring agreement, a sub-sample was randomly selected from the cases in the 1956 benchmark survey. Each eighth complete schedule in which both husband and wife had made the forced-choice responses and open-end responses to the questions on goal selection was utilized in the sub-sample. If the eighth
case was not complete for both husband and wife, the next such complete case was selected. The test sample contained 52 cases. Goal agreement scores were computed utilizing instruments "A", "B" and "C". The statistical test to determine whether or not the three instruments were similar in their measurement was the product moment coefficient of correlation. The results were as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{r of instrument } "A" \text{ and } "B" &= .7889 + \\
\text{r of instrument } "A" \text{ and } "C" &= .7934 + \\
\text{r of instrument } "B" \text{ and } "C" &= .9310 + \\
\end{align*}
\]

Correlations indicate that the instruments are comparable in their measurement of agreement, with a high degree of comparability in the measurement of goal agreement by instrument "B" and "C". If any one of the three instruments were utilized in the measurement of agreement in this study the results would be similar to those obtained by the other measures. Instruments "B" and "C" take into account not only whether or not the same goal was selected, but also the rank orders assigned to goals by the spouses. Instrument "B" is favored for measuring agreement in the forced-choice responses because of its straight-forwardness (in the use of instrument "C", in some statistical tests it may be necessary to do an inversion of the total score).
Measurement of goal selection agreement, open-end responses

The open-end method of determining the goals of husbands and wives was determining their responses to a question concerning the important things toward which they were working. A great variety of responses could be expected and were, in fact, obtained. In order to arrive at a basis for measuring agreement on the open-end responses, it was deemed necessary to categorize the goals listed by the respondents. A jury panel of six people individually attempted to categorize the goals listed by the husband and wife into the fifteen goal category used in the forced-choice responses. All panel members agreed that more categories were needed. A fifty-five item list was derived based on goals listed by the respondents, with the following major divisions: children, family, farm, house, occupation, personal, property, savings, and unclassified (for the complete list of goals, see the appendix). Panel members individually placed each open-end goal selection into one of the fifty-five categories. Differences were reconciled by the six panel members as a group, so that final categorization of goals was the unanimous opinion of panel members.

Determination of respondents' goals by open-end and forced-choice responses present different methodological problems. The forced-choice method results in some structuring inasmuch as respondents were required to choose, in order
of importance, from a list of fifteen goals selected by the interdisciplinary committee. In the open-end response method, the number of goals that could be selected is unlimited, and no ordering or ranking of the goals was requested.

**Instrument for measuring agreement, open-end responses**

The procedure for measuring agreement between spouses with regard to their goals elicited by the free-response item was as follows. First, the number of goals listed by the husband was recorded, the number listed by the wife was recorded, and the total number listed by the pair combined was computed. Such totals were computed for each married pair in both the treatment and control samples and for both 1956 and 1960. While the total number of goals a pair could list is unlimited, the highest total number listed by any pair in the study was thirteen.

For each married pair, a count was made of the number of goals that appeared on both the list of the husband and that of the wife. The number of agreed-upon goals was divided by the total number of goals listed by husband and wife.

At this stage, then, there was available for each pair the percentage of their total number of stated goals on which they agreed. Percentages of agreement of 75 and above were designated as "excellent" agreement and arbitrarily assigned an agreement score value of "3". Between 25 and 74 per cent agreement was designated as "average" and arbitrarily assigned
a value of "2". If the percentage of agreement was 24 percent or below it was designated as "poor" and assigned an agreement score value of "1".

For ease in assigning agreement scores, all combinations of number of agreed-upon goals to total number of goals up to thirteen were prepared and corresponding agreement scores designated for the various combinations. The combinations of agreed-upon goals to total goals listed and their agreement score values appear in Figure 3.

The instrument for measuring the extent of husband-wife goal agreement reflected in their responses to the open-end question on goals will be identified as instrument "D". The coefficients of correlation between the values obtained by using instrument "D" and those obtained by using instruments "A", "B" and "C" are as follows:

- r of scores by instrument "D" and "A" = .04994 -
- r of scores by instrument "D" and "B" = .03516 +
- r of scores by instrument "D" and "C" = .01212 -

A low correlation of "D" with "A", "B" and "C" may be explained by the fact that the original measurement of goals from which goal agreement was computed using instrument "D" was different from the measurement of goals used in computing goal agreement with instruments "A", "B", and "C". "A", "B" and "C" are methods of measuring goal agreement based on the selection of goals by the husband and wife in forced-choice
<table>
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<th>No. of goals agreed on</th>
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<td>Total goals listed</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>3</td>
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<tr>
<td>Designation</td>
<td>&quot;Average&quot;: number agreed on ( \frac{\text{#}}{\text{Total}} ) by number of total goals = 25 - 74%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Agreement score</td>
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<th>1</th>
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<tr>
<td>Designation</td>
<td>&quot;Poor&quot;: number agreed on ( \frac{\text{#}}{\text{Total}} ) by number of total goals = 24% or less</td>
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<tr>
<td>Agreement score</td>
<td>1</td>
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</table>

Figure 3. Instrument for computing agreement scores for free-response goal lists of husbands and wives.
responses to a list of fifteen goals; instrument "D" is a method of measuring goal agreement based on a measurement of goals which consisted of the free responses of husband and wife to a question asking what were their goals. No rank order was obtained for the goals named in response to the open-end question.

**Measurement of change in husband-wife goal agreement**

The measurement of goal agreement based on goals elicited in response to the open-end question asked in 1956 resulted in a classification of husband-wife agreement as "excellent", "average", or "poor", to which were assigned numerical values of 3, 2, and 1 in that order. The same system of designating husband-wife agreement was used with regard to the goals indicated by the spouses in the 1960 follow-up study. There was thus available for the couples a score representing their agreement in 1956 and another score representing their goal agreement in 1960.

The method of measuring change in goal agreement between 1956 and 1960 reflects whether or not change occurred and, if change occurred, the direction and degree of goal agreement change. The procedure for measuring goal agreement change is as follows: if the couple moved two steps toward closer agreement, that is from "poor" to "excellent" agreement, it was scored "5"; one step movement toward closer agreement, that is, from "poor" to "average" or from "average" to
"excellent", was scored "4"; movement neither closer nor further away in agreement was scored "3". In a similar manner movement of one step toward less agreement was scored "2" and movement of two steps toward less agreement was scored "1". The change in goal agreement scores thus range from 1 to 5 with the higher the value the more change in the direction of closer agreement on goals.

The measurement of goal agreement between husband and wife was computed from the goals selected by the forced-choice response in the 1956 and the 1960 survey. From the two different surveys, two measures of goal agreement between husband and wife were available. Instrument "B" was used for measuring goal agreement, and the scores ranged from 0 to 40. A comparison of goal agreement scores derived from the 1956 and 1960 data indicated whether or not the scores remained the same or if there was a change. Because it was possible for a couple to make a goal agreement score of 40 using instrument "B" for computing the score, it was also possible for a couple to change either in a positive or negative direction 40 steps in goal agreement between 1956 and 1960. The couple could have changed to greater goal agreement (a positive change) of 1 to 40 steps; or could have changed to less goal agreement (a negative change) of 1 to 40 steps; or made no change in goal agreement. A score of "1" was assigned to couples who changed 40 steps in goal agreement in a negative
direction. Proceeding from "1" to "2" and so on in a numerical order, a score was assigned to the steps of change in the negative direction, increasing the score as the number of steps decreased, to where 41 was assigned to couples who had made no change. Still continuing in a numerical order, the score ranged from 41 to 81 in keeping with the 40 steps of change possible in the positive direction, with 81 being the highest score in relation to the 40 steps of change in a positive direction. Thus, if a husband and wife received a score of 35 in goal agreement from the forced-choice response using instrument "B" in the 1956 survey, and a score of 15 goal agreement in 1960, this indicated they changed 20 steps in a negative direction. Counting 20 steps in a negative direction in goal agreement, they were given a score of 21 in goal agreement change. Or if a couple received a goal agreement score of 35 in the 1956 survey and the same score in 1960 this indicated they made no change and they were given a score of 41. Or if the couple received a goal agreement score of 10 in the 1956 survey, and in the 1960 survey they received a goal agreement score of 40, this was a change of 30 positive steps and they received a score of 71. See Figure 4 for the steps of change in either a positive or negative direction and the score associated with the number of steps change.
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Figure 4. Forced-choice, measurement of change in goal agreement
Method of goal selection used in this study

In the interest of keeping this study from becoming involved and unwieldy, goal selection as measured by the open-end responses is utilized as the means of studying goal agreement and goal agreement change. The assumption is made that goals stated in the open-end responses represent a spontaneous listing of goals of most importance to the respondent, unstructured by a printed list of a limited number of goals in which the respondents are asked to select their goals by order of choice.

In the analysis of data goal agreement is measured with the "D" instrument.

Operational Definitions

The previous section presented the development of instruments for measuring goal agreement and goal agreement change, thus operationalizing "agreement". Further operational definitions are needed whereby theoretical concepts influencing goal agreement or change in goal agreement can be tested. Baldwin states:

A scientific theory is a deductive system. It contains a set of hypotheses, some of which may be logically deduced from the others in the set. These hypotheses can be arranged in a sort of hierarchical order. 1. There will be a set of highest-level hypotheses, generally called assumptions and definitions, from which all the rest of the set can be
deduced. . . 2. There will be middle-level hypotheses that are deducible from the fundamental assumptions and are also the premises from which lower-level hypotheses are deduced. . . 3. There will be lowest-level hypotheses that are deducible from the rest of the system but are not premises for further deductions. These are empirically testable hypotheses or predictions if the system as a whole is testable. (3, p. 8)

This section will be concerned with operational definitions whereby the general and sub-hypotheses can be empirically tested. Restated the general and sub-hypotheses are:

General Hypothesis 1: husbands and wives who have high agreement on goals will have certain characteristics that differentiate them from husbands and wives with low agreement on goals.

Sub-hypotheses:

The greater the degree of similarity of education of husbands and wives, the higher will be their goal agreement.

Among couples having a similar education, the higher the level of their education, the greater will be their goal agreement.

The greater the length of time married, the greater will be the goal agreement of husband and wife.

Husbands and wives who jointly make decisions will exhibit greater goal agreement than those who do not make decisions jointly.

General Hypothesis 2: husbands and wives who have had training and involvement in the management process will have higher goal agreement than husbands and wives who have had little or no training in the management process.
Sub-hypotheses:

Husbands and wives who had management training will have higher goal agreement than husbands and wives who received no such training.

The greater the involvement of husband and wife in a management training program, the greater will be their goal agreement.

The greater the degree of the husband's and wife's cooperation with the management training program, the higher will be their goal agreement.

There will be a difference in the goal agreement of husbands and wives after having participated in management training administered by different educators.

General Hypothesis 3: husbands and wives who have had training and involvement in the management process will have made higher positive change in goal agreement than husbands and wives who have had little or no training in the management process.

Sub-hypotheses:

Husbands and wives who had management training will have higher positive goal agreement change than husbands and wives who received no such training.

The greater the involvement of husband and wife in a management training program, the greater will be the positive goal agreement change between husband and wife.

The greater the degree of the husband's and wife's cooperation with the management training program, the higher will be their positive goal agreement change.

There will be a difference in the goal agreement change of husbands and wives after having participated in management training administered by different educators.
Concepts common to all three hypotheses

General concepts common to all three hypotheses are: husbands and wives, goal selection and goal selection agreement.

Transforming general level concepts in these general hypotheses into more precise terms for empirical testing, the sample of husbands and wives were selected from the Iowa Agriculture and Home Economics Experiment Station Project No. 1278. The population from which this sample was selected, and the method by which they were selected was described in the section Source and Collection of Data of this chapter. In this study, the sample includes those respondents in the treatment and control counties in which both husband and wife selected goals (by both open-end and forced-choice responses) in 1956 and 1960. The sample in its totality includes 338 pairs of husbands and wives. Some of the testable hypotheses will be concerned with only the treatment county husbands and wives (208 pairs); in some instances the husbands and wives of both treatment and control counties (338 pairs) will be the object of concern; and in a few instances husband-wife pairs in selected categories will be used.

Goal selection was by means of the open-end and forced-choice responses. The operational definition of fifteen goals from which a selection of five was made, and the open-end selection and categorization by a panel of six judges has
already been described. For this study, a decision was made to use the open-end method of measuring the goals of husbands and wives.

The operational definition of goal agreement was given attention in the preceding section. Inasmuch as instrument "D" was developed for measuring agreement for the open-end selection of goals by husbands and wives, it is the instrument used in this study.

General concepts which are different for each hypothesis are: characteristics influencing agreement in goal selection, influence of training and involvement in the management process on goal selection agreement, and influence of training and involvement in the management process on goal selection agreement change. Empirical operationalization for each general concept will be defined, along with sub-concepts related to the general concepts.

**Characteristics influencing agreement in goal selection**

It was suggested previously in this study that husbands and wives having similar values are in higher agreement on the aims, objectives or goals towards which they as a family are striving. It was also suggested that certain factors, similarity of education, level of education, length of time married and "togetherness" in making decisions, influence goal selection agreement. Operational definitions of these factors whereby hypotheses may be tested is the focus of this
Similar education A comparison of the number of years of schooling completed by husband and wife is the basis of measuring the similarity of their education. However, it is recognized that using formal education as a standard of similar education has its limitations. Much education is informal, and acquired through interaction with other individuals, from mass media and in various other ways. Measurement of informal education is complicated, while grades completed in the formal school system provides a measure of education that is readily available. It provides a means whereby the education of one person may be compared with that of another. Due to the length of time out of a year that is spent in classroom instruction after a child reaches the kindergarten or first grade age, and for the number of years thereafter he attends school, it is felt that formal education is a valid measure of "education". It was suggested previously in this study there is a relationship between similarity of education and goal selection agreement. Similarity in the number of years of schooling completed by husband and wife will be the measure of similarity in education used in this study.

To arrive at an operational definition of similarity of husband's and wife's education, an educational similarity score was developed from data taken from the 1956 survey of the treatment and control sample. A question on the interview
schedule asked the school grade completed by husband and by wife. These responses were coded as follows:

1 - Less than 8th grade
2 - Completed 8th grade
3 - 9-11
4 - Completed 12th grade
5 - 13-15
6 - 16 and over

When the same code number appeared for the husband's and wife's education, they are considered for the purpose of this study to have had the same amount of education and their education was designated "the same" and the couple was given an educational similarity score of 3. If the code values for the husband's and wife's education was one step apart it was given a score of 2 and their education was designated "similar". If the code values for the husband's and wife's education were more than one step away the couple was considered to have "dissimilar" amounts of education and an educational similarity score of 1 was assigned.

**Level of education** In the theoretical development of this study a positive linear relationship between the level of education and goal agreement was depicted. Rationale presented indicated that education provides opportunity for the development of verbalization skills whereby communication is facilitated between husbands and wives. Empirical data for testing the relationship between the level of education and the degree
of goal selection agreement are available in the form of a combined educational score of husbands and wives. From information given as to the school grade completed by the husband and by the wife on the interview schedule (data taken from the 1956 survey of the treatment and control sample), a combined educational score for husbands and wives was derived and given code numbers as follows:

1- Husband 11th grade or less; wife 11th grade or less
2- Husband 11th grade or less; wife 12th grade
3- Husband 11th grade or less; wife 13th grade or more
4- Husband 12th grade; wife 11th grade or less
5- Husband 12th grade; wife 12th grade
6- Husband 12th grade; wife 13th grade or more
7- Husband 13th grade or more; wife 11th grade or less
8- Husband 13th grade or more; wife 12th grade
9- Husband 13th grade or more; wife 13th grade or more

In this study the combined educational score categories that will be used are: husbands having a 11th grade education or less and wives having a 11th grade education or less; husbands and wives both with a 12th grade education, and husbands with a 13th grade education or more and wives with a 13th grade education or more. When a husband and wife fall into one of these categories they are considered, for the purposes of this study to have had the same amount of education. Using these categories permits testing for the effect of level of education independent of similarity of education of husband and wife.
Time  It was pointed out previously that through interaction over time each spouse may come to understand the feelings of the other spouse to a greater degree. It was also suggested that highly incompatible spouses probably become divorced so that spouses who are compatible (although in varying degrees) remain married. Even with various degrees of compatibility, increasing understanding and identification of husband with wife and of wife with husband is a function of length of time married, so that as previously suggested, greater agreement in goal selection is a function of time.

No data were collected on the date of marriage of the husband and wife, or on the length of time married. However, the age of both spouses was asked. The assumption is made that the age of the wife can be used as a measure of the length of time married.

In 1960 the median age was 22.8 for grooms and 20.3 for brides (39, p. 3). This gives an indication of the age around which couples marry, so that present age of the wife gives an estimation of the length of time married.

The coded number in relation to the age of the wife (data taken from the 1956 survey of the treatment and control samples) was used as an index to the length of time married. Data collected relative to the age of the homemaker was coded as follows:

1 - 23 and below
2 - 24-26
"Togetherness" in making decisions  

It was suggested in the theoretical development of this study that there is a relationship between husbands and wives making decisions together and their agreement on goals.

Data were collected relative to eight items on which farm families usually make decisions. The items represented areas of family living such as an accumulation of equipment for the home and the farm, child rearing, use of leisure time and social activity, contributions to church or charity, and a political decision. The complete list of items follows:

- Buying household needs such as an ironing board or an iron
- What is to be given to church or charity
- Disciplining the children
- Where to go on trips or holidays
- Where to go out socially
- TV or radio programs
- Whom to vote for at a general election
- Buying a cultivator

Each respondent was shown the list of items and was then asked how each decision was customarily made in his family. The respondent was asked to make two checks for each one of the activities, the first check told whether the respondent and his spouse usually discussed the particular thing before
they decided what to do, and the second check told who really made the final decision. Four alternatives that might have applied as to how the final decision was made were: farm operator, homemaker, together, or each makes his own choice. For each item which was answered "together" a score of 1 was given; for any other answer a 0 was given. The eight scores were totaled and this total is used as an operational definition of decision-making togetherness; the higher the score, the greater is the joint decision-making of husband and wife.

Data were taken from the 1956 survey of the treatment and control samples. The response of the husband as to how decisions are made is used for the decision-making score. It was not felt necessary to use the response of both spouses; it was felt that the information given by one spouse would represent the situation in a family as to whether decisions were made together. There was no particular reason for selecting the husband's response in preference to the wife's.

Training and involvement in the management process

It was suggested in the theoretical development of this study that there is a relationship between training and involvement in the management process and spousal goal agreement. Focusing on an understanding and clarification of family goals explains the rationale for this relationship. Resources and goals or objectives are common denominators in management regardless of the particular social unit (27, p. 9).
Sub-concepts related to the general concept Training and involvement in the management process are: educational training in management, involvement of learners, attitude of learners and effectiveness of educators. Empirical measures whereby the relation of these sub-concepts to goal agreement may be tested follow.

Educational training in management  As pointed out in the first section of this chapter, the basic objective of the project Evaluation of the Iowa Extension Farm Family Development Program from which data for this study were taken was to provide information about the relative effectiveness of the farm and home development program compared to the traditional approach of the Extension service. The farm and home development program is an intensive educational method, involving a relatively small number of families, and is an organized effort on the part of Extension service to teach the farm family to manage more effectively (23, p. 1). Clarification and an understanding of family goals is a function of management (27, p. 9). In the theoretical development of this study, the proposition was presented that as husband and wife jointly formulate goals, a higher degree of goal agreement and a higher degree of goal agreement change should result. The farm and home development program focuses on management (identification of problems, aims and objectives the family seeks to attain, analysis of possible alternatives, and the formulation of a
plan of action). In this study whether or not the respondents received educational training in the farm and home development program is considered a measure of training in management, the training period extending from 1956 to 1960. A family listed as farm and home development cooperators included both husband and wife. Those cases wherein an interview schedule was completed with each of the spouses in 1956 and was not completed with either one or both in 1960 were not used in this study.

Involvement of learners  It was previously suggested that the higher the involvement of a husband and wife in a learning activity pertinent to the family's aims or objectives, the higher would be the goal agreement and goal agreement change score. The degree of involvement would seem to be related to the extent to which an individual actively applies principles from the new learning situation to his own particular situation, and to the extent to which he forms new concepts, reorganizes values, and actively applies new procedures.

To test for involvement of the respondents according to these criteria is complicated, and data collected in this study do not allow a direct test of such involvement. However, a lesser indication of involvement is available from data collected regarding the number of group meetings attended, the number of farm visits by the Extension service, the amount of time spent in the farm visit teaching the farm and home
development method, and the number of other contacts in which the farm family made telephone calls or made visits to the county Extension office concerning the farm and home development program. It is possible that involvement could be motivated by other reasons than the desire to learn and apply principles in one's own situation, i.e., involvement may be for social reasons, status, and so forth. However, it seems highly probable that involvement as represented by group meetings attended, number of farm visits, minutes spent in farm visits, and other contacts relative to the farm and home development program represent a desire on the part of the respondents to improve their family economic situation through participation in the farm and home development program, and represent the process by which the respondents in the treatment counties went through a series of steps in the adoption and application of management to their particular situations.

If a husband and wife are involved to a high degree identifying problems and formulating objectives or goals toward which they will work (which is the focus of the farm and home development program) it seems likely, as suggested previously, that their goal agreement score will be higher. Attendance at meetings, farm visits, time spent in farm visits, and number of other contacts is used as the measure of involvement of learners in the farm and home development program. Each one of these factors is considered separately in relation
to goal agreement.

Involvement in relation to group meetings is measured by the number of meetings attended by husband and wife, and is divided into eight categories as follows: number of husbands and wives who attended 0 meetings; husbands and wives who attended 1-2; 3-4; 5-6; 7-8; 9-10; 11-12 or 13-14 meetings.

Involvement in relation to visits to the farm of the husband and wife by Extension personnel relative to the farm and home development program is also divided into eight categories as follows: number of husbands and wives who received no visits at their farm by Extension personnel, number of husbands and wives who received 1-4; 5-8; 9-12; 13-16; 17-20 or 21-24 farm visits. Involvement by the husband and wife in relation to the number of minutes spent during farm visits by the Extension personnel to their farm is divided into ten categories as follows: number of husbands and wives who received no visits to their farm and thus, no time was spent during visits by Extension personnel; number of husbands and wives who received 1-200; 201-400; 401-600; 601-800; 801-1,000; 1,001-1,200; 1,201-1,400 or 1,401-1,600 minutes of the Extension personnel's time during farm visits relative to the farm and home development program. Involvement by the husband and wife in the farm and home development program in relation to the number of "other" contacts is divided into eight categories as follows: the number of husbands and wives who had no other
contacts in relation to the farm and home development program; number of husbands and wives who had 1-10; 11-20; 21-30; 31-40; 41-50; 51-60 or 61-70 "other" contacts in relation to the farm and home development program.

Attitude of learners. It was previously suggested that the more positive the attitude of husband and wife in a learning activity in which the family's objectives or goals are jointly formulated, the higher will be their agreement score and the higher will be their change in goal agreement. For this study it is assumed that a positive attitude toward the learning situation is the degree of cooperation evidenced by the couple. It is assumed that very good cooperation represents a desire and willingness on the part of the respondents to apply educational principles to their particular situations. In the farm and home development program, Extension service personnel who worked with the respondents in the treatment counties estimated their cooperation in terms of whether it was very good, good, fair or poor. Numerical values were assigned to the terms of cooperation as follows:

- Very good: 4
- Good: 3
- Fair: 2
- Poor: 1

In this study the Extension person's estimate of the degree of cooperation is considered to measure the degree of
cooperation of the couple.

Effectiveness of educators The relation between the effectiveness of educators and the goal agreement score was presented in the theoretical development of this study. The proposition was presented that a higher rapport between educator and learner in social interaction, and higher proficiency and skills in presenting educational materials, results in an increased adoption of a new educational principle. In teaching the management process in which the husband and wife jointly identify problems, clarify and formulate objectives or goals, the hypothesis was developed that if the teaching has been effective the husbands and wives would be in closer agreement on their goal agreement score and would have made greater goal agreement change. The assumption was made that the educators or Extension personnel operating in the various treatment counties would not have equal effectiveness. In this study educator effectiveness effect is determined by analyzing the change in degree of goal agreement of husbands and wives according to the county of residence of the couples.

Concepts used for future prediction

In this study there are some general concepts for which no rationale was developed in the theoretical section. They are being used in an exploratory manner for the purpose of making future predictions as to their relation to goal
selection agreement between husband and wife. Statistical measures will be applied to determine relationships of these concepts to husband-wife goal agreement categories into which data (collected in the 1956 survey) for each of the following concepts were divided, along with assigned numerical ratings, are to be found in the appendix.

**Household types** Data concerning the number and school-status of members of the families were collected from the respondents, from which household types were constructed. Numerical ratings were assigned each of the household types as follows:

0 - Couple only  
1 - Couple and pre-school children  
2 - Couple and school age children  
3 - Couple and pre-school and school children

**Socio-economic** Each of the families was scored on the following items: (1) construction of house; (2) ratio of rooms in house to people living in the house; (3) whether or not the family has electricity; (4) whether or not the family has water piped into the house; (5) washer; (6) refrigerator; (7) radio; (8) telephone; (9) automobile; (10) daily paper; (11) wife's education; (12) husband's education; (13) church attendance.

After the scores were computed for each family, they were classified into seven categories, and each category was given
a numerical ranking as follows:

- 0 - 74 and below
- 1 - 75 to 78
- 2 - 79 to 82
- 3 - 83 to 85
- 4 - 86 to 87
- 5 - 88 to 89
- 6 - 90 and over

Housewife's work off farm Data were gathered relative to the housewife's work off the farm. Five different categories were developed according to the income received from the wife's work. Numerical ratings were assigned to each category, starting with 0 for those housewives who received $2,000 or more per year from their work off the farm.

Net family income Net income was computed for each family in the sample, and was derived by adding together total farm receipts, plus other receipts (interest, gifts, investments) and housewife's income and then subtracting total expenses. One hundred thousand dollars was added to the total income to take care of minus net family incomes. The families were categorized into seven groups with numerical ratings ranging from 1-7. The income of the group with a numerical rating of 1 was $99,999 or less; the top income category was $108,000 or over and was assigned a value of 7.

Sources of information, farm papers and magazines If the respondents mentioned farm papers and magazines as a source of information, they were given a numerical rating of 1. If
farm papers and magazines were not mentioned as a source of information, 0 was assigned. In determining whether or not a relationship exists between source of information and goal agreement, husbands and wives are categorized as follows: neither read; husband doesn't, wife does; husband does, wife doesn't; both read.

**Method of Data Analysis**

**Exploratory study**

To the knowledge of this author, no other study has been done relative to goal agreement between husbands and wives. Most studies relative to family goals have been in the area of variables related to goal selection and goal ranking. The purpose of this study is not to "confirm and consolidate" (previous research does not warrant this procedure), but rather to develop an instrument for measuring agreement, to point out possible relationships, and to propose certain empirical hypotheses.

**Statistical problem**

A statistical problem encountered in this study is the number of respondents categorized in the grouping of "high" agreement. Going from "low", to "medium" and to "high" in the treatment group, the number of respondents in each category in 1956 are 102, 83 and 23 respectively; in the treatment and
control samples combined, going from "low", to "medium" and to "high", the number of respondents in each category in 1956 are 219, 77 and 42 respectively.

Because of the small number of respondents in the "high" agreement category and because there are fewer respondents in the "medium" group than in the "low", the "medium" and "high" groups are combined in some instances to give a more meaningful analysis.

**Statistical procedures**

In this study the purpose is not to assign causality to husband-wife goal agreement. The assumption is made that a linear relationship exists between goal agreement and certain selected variables. Another assumption made is that because of random selection, the respondents in the study represented a common population when selected in 1956. However, between the 1956 and 1960 surveys, treatment was administered to the respondents of five counties. Therefore it is assumed that in 1960, the respondents of the treatment and control samples represent two different populations.

**Product moment coefficient correlation**

According to Edwards,

The coefficient of correlation is a measure of the degree of linear association between two variables. The coefficient may be positive or negative in sign and ranges in value from -1.00 to 1.00. A correlation coefficient may be computed whenever
A perfect linear association between two variables indicates that as one variable increases, the other variable also increases. In testing for a linear association, the coefficient of correlation is applied to variables on a continuum. The agreement score between husband and wife in the open-end response is on a continuum ("low", "medium" and "high" with scores assigned ranging from 1-3). Variables paired with the agreement scores are also on continua, i.e., similarity of education, length of time married and the numerical score reflecting "togetherness" in making decisions.

Variables used to test for the effect of training and involvement in the management process are on a continuum, i.e., participation in the farm and home development program as represented by attendance at group meetings, farm visits, time spent in farm visits, and "other" contacts with Extension personnel (see operational definitions). Concepts used for future prediction, which have been operationalized as continuous variables: socio-economic status, housewife's work off the farm, and net family income.

To test the assumption that a linear relationship exists between goal agreement and certain selected variables, it is felt the product moment coefficient correlation is an appropriate statistical instrument to use.
Chi square  In this study there is an interest in the association between the agreement score of husbands and wives and some variables which are not on a continuum—wherein one observation does not give prior knowledge concerning another observation. The variables referred to are: counties, source of information (farm magazines and newspapers) and household types. For example, assuming the treatment counties were randomly selected, and computing the goal agreement change scores for husbands and wives in those counties, if a significant difference were obtained we would have a basis for concluding there is an association between goal agreement within the different counties and the treatment received. Or if a significant difference among household types according to the goal agreement of husband and wife were obtained (using control and treatment samples before any treatment were applied), we would have a basis for concluding there is an association between household type and goal agreement.

The same reasoning would apply to the different groups and the manner in which they obtain information from farm magazines and papers according to the goal agreement of husband and wife.

In testing the association between the goal agreement score of husbands and wives and selected variables wherein the observations are independent and are not on a continuum, it is felt that the chi square test is an appropriate statistical
measure, and will be used accordingly.

Analysis of variance Edwards (10, p. 117) states the analysis of variance is a statistical method used to test the significance of the differences between three or more means. Edwards quotes from R. A. Fisher who was largely responsible for accomplishing the early development of analysis of variance:

...so with the analysis of variance; its one claim to attention lies in its convenience. It is convenient in two ways: (1) because it brings to the eyes and to the mind a summary of a mass of statistical data in which the logical content of the whole is readily appreciated. Probably everyone who has used it has found that comparisons which they have not previously thought of may obtrude themselves, because there they are, necessary items in the analysis.

(2) Apart from aiding the logical process, it is convenient in facilitating and reducing to a common form all the tests of significance which we may want to apply. (10, p. 117)

In this study it is hypothesized that there will be a significant treatment effect, that respondents who received training and were involved in the management process (identifying problems and concerns, and formulating goals) will have a higher goal agreement, and higher positive goal agreement change. Out of ten counties randomly selected, treatment was applied to Cherokee, Chickasaw, Clinton, Hamilton and Marion counties, so that a comparison could be made with the control counties, Ida, Howard, Jackson, Webster and Lucas.
When a sample is randomly selected, analysis of variance assumes that the population and random variation are normally distributed. Analysis of variance provides a means of removing random variation (error), so that the treatment effect can be studied.

In this study it is believed analysis of variance is an appropriate instrument to use in testing the significant difference between treatment and control counties, in determining whether or not there is a treatment effect, and will be used accordingly.

In testing for whether or not a significant difference existed in goal agreement among the counties, the procedure followed was to find the difference in goal agreement between 1956 and 1960 for each husband-wife pair, algebraically add the difference, and divide by the total husband-wife pairs to derive a mean. This procedure was followed for each of the three communities for both treatment and control counties resulting in thirty observations with three in a block (community by treatment). After these means were derived the analysis of variance was computed.

In testing whether or not a significant difference existed in goal agreement change between those counties that received the farm and home development treatment and those counties who did not, goal agreement change scores were computed, as previously described, for each husband-wife pair. The change
scores for each husband-wife pair in a county were totaled, and divided by the total number of husband-wife pairs in that county. After these means were derived, the analysis of variance was computed.

Tables The respondents were all scored as to goal agreement and goal agreement change. Tables are set up whereby goal agreement according to selected variables are depicted. The distribution of goal agreement scores and goal agreement change scores according to certain characteristics are available in the tables for scrutiny, and will supplement the statistical measures of correlation, chi square and analysis of variance.

On the basis of the statistical tests and the graphic presentations, a tentative conclusion concerning each empirical hypothesis will be made. These conclusions will indicate on the basis of the data analyzed in this thesis, whether these hypotheses need further confirmation and testing, or whether there appears to be a need to re-evaluate the hypotheses and the related concepts before further testing.
This chapter will be divided into five parts. Each of the first three sections will present the analysis of the data which is relevant to each of the three general hypotheses. In each section, empirical hypotheses deduced from the general hypotheses will be stated and restated in null form. The fourth section will present the analysis of data relevant to exploratory concepts used for future prediction, with the hypotheses stated in the null form. The fifth section will contain a summary of the tentative conclusions that are reached concerning the three general and exploratory hypotheses.

The over-all general hypothesis of this thesis is stated as follows:

There will be varying degrees of agreement in the goals selected by husbands and wives.

Characteristics Influencing Goal Agreement between Husband and Wife

Concepts concerning characteristics thought to influence the agreement of husbands and wives in goal selection were developed in this study in the Theory and Hypotheses chapter. Briefly summarized, characteristics that affect goal agreement between husbands and wives were theorized to be similarity of education, level of education, length of time married and "togetherness" in decision making. These characteristics
influence the formation and reorganization of values. Values held in common by husband and wife, supplemented by common understandings, shared meanings and shared experiences in the interaction process, increase agreement on goals toward which the family strives.

General Hypothesis 1: husbands and wives who have high agreement on goals will have certain characteristics that differentiate them from husbands and wives with low agreement on goals.

General Hypothesis 1 stated in the null form is: there is no difference in the goal agreement of husbands and wives having certain characteristics that differentiate them from other husbands and wives and the goal agreement of husbands and wives not having those characteristics.

Similar education

As discussed in the theoretical development of this study, it was suggested there would be an association between the similarity of husband's and wife's education and their goal agreement. A similarity in the grades in school completed by husband and wife is used in this study as a measure of similarity in education of husband and wife. An educational score was computed by comparing the education of husband and wife. Three categories of years of schooling completed have been constructed. When husband and wife fall into the same category they are considered, for the purposes of this study, to have had the same amount of education. The same education ("the same") was given a score of 3, one step difference
1^3

("similar") a score of 2 and more than one step difference
("dissimilar") a score of 1. Empirical hypotheses with
respect to the association between the similarity of education
and goal agreement are stated in the empirical hypotheses 1
and 2.

E. H. 1

The greater the degree of similarity of
education of husbands and wives, as measured by
whether "the same", "similar", or "dissimilar", the
higher will be their goal agreement score.

The hypothesis stated in the null form is: There is
no significant difference between the degree of
similarity of education of husbands and wives as
measured by whether "the same", "similar", or "dis-
similar", and their goal agreement score.

A coefficient of correlation was computed to determined
whether or not a linear relationship existed between the goal
agreement score and similarity of education of husbands and
wives. The value of the coefficient of correlation, .0014+, is
not statistically significant at the .05 level.

Table 5 presents the frequency distribution in the "high",
"medium", and "low" categories of goal agreement scores for
husbands and wives according to the similarity of their educa-
tion. The lack of a strong positive relationship between
educational similarity and the goal agreement score is evident.
For example, the proportion of those couples with "the same"
number of years of education who had a low agreement score
(63.7%) was very similar to the proportions with low agreement
Table 5. Distribution of husband-wife goal agreement scores according to similarity of husband's and wife's education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Husband-wife educational similarity</th>
<th>Goal agreement score</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Low (1)</td>
<td>Medium (2)</td>
<td>High (3)</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;the same&quot;</td>
<td>109 63.7</td>
<td>44 25.8</td>
<td>18 10.5</td>
<td>171 100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;similar&quot;</td>
<td>60 65.2</td>
<td>17 18.5</td>
<td>15 16.3</td>
<td>92 100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;dissimilar&quot;</td>
<td>49 67.1</td>
<td>15 20.5</td>
<td>9 12.4</td>
<td>73 100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

aData from the 1956 survey of the treatment and control samples, based on 336 pairs of husbands and wives.

scores of couples with "similar" education (65.2%) and those with "dissimilar" education (67.1%). The evidence does not permit rejection of the null hypothesis.

Another test for the possibility of an association between similarity of education of spouses and their degree of goal agreement was made. This test involved only those couples in which either husband or wife or both had completed twelve years of schooling. Goal agreement scores of cases where both spouses had twelve years of education can be compared with the scores of couples where one spouse had twelve years of
schooling and the other had more education, or less education, than this. This analysis also provides information on whether the discrepancy in education is due to the wife or husband having completed more or fewer grades of schooling than the other. That is, the previous analysis dealt only with degree of similarity of education and did not, as in the present analysis, distinguish between such different ways of exhibiting dissimilarity as husband having more education than wife and wife having more education than husband.

The empirical hypothesis that deals with the analysis discussed above is stated as follows:

E. H. 2 Among couples where one spouse has twelve years of education only, the goal agreement score will be higher when the other spouse also has an education of twelve years, than when one spouse has an education different from twelve years.

The hypothesis stated in the null form is: There is no difference in the goal agreement score among couples where one spouse has twelve years of education only and the other spouse also has an education of twelve years, than when one spouse has an education of twelve years and the other has an education different from twelve years.

Table 6 presents the frequency distribution in the "high", "medium", and "low" categories of the goal agreement scores for husbands and wives according to whether both husband and wife have a twelfth grade education or the one spouse has a twelfth grade education, and the other spouse has an education different from twelve years. The over-all pattern of the table indicates that for each educational combination a
higher proportion of husbands and wives have "low" goal agreement, the next highest proportion have "medium" goal agreement, and the lowest proportion have "high" goal agreement. For example, the proportion of those couples both with a twelfth grade education is greater in the low agreement score category (63.6%) than the medium (25.8%) and high (10.6%) categories.

Because of the skewed distribution of the cases by degree of goal agreement, a number of the educational combination categories contain less than ten cases. This makes it difficult to compare and contrast, particularly those cases where the spouses had a "medium" goal agreement score and those cases with a "high" agreement score. With regard to these two agreement categories, however, there seems to be a similarity in the percentages of couples in the various educational categories. No consistent pattern of association between degree of goal agreement and educational combination category seems evident.

Four out of the five cells in the "low" goal agreement column would seem to contain sufficient cases to suggest whether a relationship between low goal agreement and educational category exists. As shown in the proportion of those couples with a twelfth grade education who had a low agreement score (63.6%) was similar to the low agreement scores of couples with husband twelfth grade, wife eleventh grade or
Table 6. Distribution of husband-wife goal agreement scores according to selected categories of years of schooling completed by husband and wife

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories of husband-wife education</th>
<th>Goal agreement score</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Low (1)</td>
<td>Medium (2)</td>
<td>High (3)</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both 12th grade</td>
<td>84 63.6</td>
<td>34 25.8</td>
<td>14 10.6</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hus. 12th grade, wife 11th grade or less</td>
<td>14 63.7</td>
<td>5 22.7</td>
<td>3 13.6</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wife 12th grade, hus. 11th grade or less</td>
<td>48 72.7</td>
<td>11 16.7</td>
<td>7 10.6</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hus. 12th grade, wife 13th grade or more</td>
<td>23 59.</td>
<td>9 23.1</td>
<td>7 17.9</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wife 12th grade, hus. 13th grade or more</td>
<td>2 40.</td>
<td>2 40.</td>
<td>1 20.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data from the 1956 survey of the treatment and control samples, based on 264 pairs of husbands and wives.

less (63.7%); and husband twelfth grade, wife thirteenth grade or more (59.%). When the wife had graduated from high school and the husband had less education, they were apparently more likely than other educational combinations to be in the low goal-agreement category. However, the other type
of husband-wife educational discrepancy in which the wife had the more education, that is, husband with 12 years of schooling and wife with thirteen years or more, did not show this tendency for the couples to be represented more than other couples in the low goal agreement category. Indeed, among the four educational categories this category had the lowest proportion in the low goal-agreement category.

The general pattern of similarity among the categories and the lack of a logical and consistent relationship are used as evidence that the null hypothesis cannot be rejected.

**Level of education**

As discussed in the theoretical development of this study, the theory presented suggested that when similarity of education was controlled, the higher the level of education of husband and wife, the higher would be their goal agreement score. The level of education is measured by years of school completed. Three categories of years of schooling completed are used. When husband and wife fall into the same category they are considered, for the purposes of this study, to have had the same amount of education. The empirical hypothesis with respect to the relationship between level of education and the goal agreement score of husbands and wives is stated as follows:
Table 7. Distribution of husband-wife goal agreement scores according to the combined educational level of husband and wife

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Husband-wife combined educational level</th>
<th>Low (1)</th>
<th>Medium (2)</th>
<th>High (3)</th>
<th>Total N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Both 11th grade or less</td>
<td>25 65.8</td>
<td>6 15.8</td>
<td>7 18.4</td>
<td>38 100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both 12th grade</td>
<td>84 63.6</td>
<td>34 25.8</td>
<td>14 10.6</td>
<td>132 100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both 13th grade or more</td>
<td>11 61.1</td>
<td>5 27.8</td>
<td>2 11.1</td>
<td>18 100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

aData from the 1956 survey of the treatment and control samples, based on 188 pairs of husbands and wives.

E. H. 3 Among couples where husband and wife are in the same category of education, the higher the educational level of the couple, the higher the goal agreement score.

The hypothesis stated in the null form is: Among couples with the same number of years of education, there is no difference in goal agreement score according to educational level of the couple.

Table 7 presents the frequency distribution in the "high", "medium", and "low" categories of goal agreement for husbands and wives according to the combined educational level of husband and wife. The lack of a strong positive relationship
between educational level and goal agreement is evident. For example, the proportion of those couples with an eleventh grade education or less who had a low agreement score (65.8%) was very similar to the proportions with low agreement scores of couples both with a twelfth grade education (63.6%), and those both with a thirteenth grade education or more (61.1%). The null hypothesis is not rejected.

Length of time married

As discussed in the theoretical development of this study, the theory presented suggested that the length of time married would be associated with the goal agreement score. No data were collected relative to the time of marriage of the husband and wife, but the assumption is made that the age of the wife can be used as an indication of the length of time married. The empirical hypothesis with respect to the aforementioned relationship is stated as follows:

E. H. 4 The older the wife, the higher will be the husband-wife goal agreement score.

The hypothesis stated in the null form is: There will be no relationship between age of wife and husband-wife goal agreement score.

A correlation coefficient was computed to determine whether or not a linear relationship existed between the goal agreement score and age of wife. The value of the coefficient of correlation, .0422 +, is not statistically
Table 8. Distribution of husband-wife goal agreement scores according to the age of the wife

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age of wife</th>
<th>Low (1) N</th>
<th>Low (1) %</th>
<th>Medium (2) N</th>
<th>Medium (2) %</th>
<th>High (3) N</th>
<th>High (3) %</th>
<th>Total N</th>
<th>Total %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>24-26</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>81.1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27-29</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>59.7</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>25.8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>14.5</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-32</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>63.4</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>23.7</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12.9</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33-35</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>63.5</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>28.4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36-37</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>60.8</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>19.6</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>19.6</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38 and over</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>71.4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>19.1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

aData from the 1956 survey of the treatment and control samples, based on 338 pairs of husbands and wives.

significant at the .05 level.

Table 8 presents the frequency distribution in the "high", "medium", and "low" categories of the goal agreement scores for husbands and wives according to the age of the wife. A strong positive relationship between age of wife and the agreement score is not indicated. However, the proportion of husbands and wives with a low agreement score was higher in the 24-26 age group (81.1%) than in any other group. Inspecting only the low agreement scores of husbands and wives,
one notes similar scores for the next four age groups, 27-29 years, 59.7%; 30-32 years, 63.4%; 33-35 years, 63.5% and 36-37 years, 60.8%. But there is an increase in the proportion of husbands and wives in the low agreement score in the 38 and over age group (71.4%). In sum, there is a suggestion from the data that age of wife, and presumably number of years couple has been married, may make some difference with regard to the degree of goal agreement of husband and wife. Couples in which the wife was in the youngest age category and those in which the wife was 38 years of age or older were more likely to have low agreement scores than other couples. However, the lack of a statistically significant relationship between age of wife and goal agreement score is used as evidence that the null hypothesis cannot be rejected.

Making decisions together

The theory presented in the theoretical development of this study suggested that there would be a relationship between the extent to which husbands and wives make agreements together and the extent to which they agree on goals. Making decisions together was measured with respect to eight items on which farm families usually make decisions. For each item which was answered "together" a score of 1 was given, for any other answer a 0 was given. The score is referred to as the couple's decision-making "togetherness" score. The empirical hypothesis with respect to the aforementioned
relationship is stated as follows:

E. H. 5 The higher the decision-making "togetherness" score of husbands and wives, the higher will be the goal agreement score.

The hypothesis stated in the null form is: There will be no relationship between the decision-making "togetherness" score of husbands and wives and their goal agreement score.

Table 9. Distribution of husband-wife goal agreement scores according to the decision-making "togetherness" score.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>&quot;Togetherness&quot; score</th>
<th>Goal agreement score</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Low (1) N %</td>
<td>Medium (2) N %</td>
<td>High (3) N %</td>
<td>Total N %</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>1 100</td>
<td>2 28.6</td>
<td>2 15.4</td>
<td>7 100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>5 71.4</td>
<td>4 30.8</td>
<td>2 15.4</td>
<td>13 100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>7 53.8</td>
<td>7 17.1</td>
<td>2  4.9</td>
<td>16 100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>32 78.</td>
<td>7 17.1</td>
<td>2  4.9</td>
<td>41 100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>55 67.9</td>
<td>15 18.5</td>
<td>11 13.6</td>
<td>81 100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>67 67.0</td>
<td>22 22.0</td>
<td>11 11.0</td>
<td>100 100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>32 57.1</td>
<td>15 26.8</td>
<td>9 16.1</td>
<td>56 100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>12 44.4</td>
<td>8 29.6</td>
<td>7 26.9</td>
<td>27 99.9b</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>8 66.6</td>
<td>4 33.3</td>
<td></td>
<td>12 99.9c</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

aData from the 1956 survey of the treatment and control samples, based on 338 pairs of husbands and wives.

bDue to rounding error.

cDue to rounding error.
A coefficient of correlation was computed to determine whether or not a linear relationship existed between the goal agreement score and the couple's decision-making "togetherness" score. The value of coefficient of correlation .1138+ with 338 d.f. is statistically significant at the .05 level (non-directional test).

Table 9 presents the frequency distribution in the "high", "medium" and "low" categories of goal agreement for husbands and wives according to their decision-making "togetherness" score. The table gives evidence of a positive relationship between goal agreement and decision-making "togetherness". Excluding the "togetherness" score categories of 0, 1, 2 and 8 because of the fewness in numbers of respondents, an analysis of the table indicates that beginning with the third "togetherness" score of husbands and wives according to "low" agreement, there is a decrease in proportion through the seventh "togetherness" score. From the third "togetherness" score to the seventh, the proportion of husbands and wives having "medium" goal agreement increases, and the proportion of husbands and wives having "high" agreement increases beginning with the fifth "togetherness" score and continuing on through the seventh. If a linear association between the goal agreement score and the couple's decision-making "togetherness" score exists, one would expect that the proportion of husbands and wives in the "low" goal agreement category
would gradually decrease according to the number of decisions husbands and wives make together, and increase in the "medium" and the "high" goal agreement category according to the decision-making "togetherness". There is such an over-all pattern in the table.

To illustrate further the relationship between goal agreement and decision-making "togetherness", husbands and wives whose scores are from 1 to 4 are placed in one category, and husbands and wives whose scores are from 5 to 8 are placed in another category as indicated by Table 10.

Table 10. Distribution of husband-wife goal agreement scores according to the decision-making "togetherness" scores combined into two categories—scores of 1-4 (low) and scores of 5-8 (high)^

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>&quot;Togetherness&quot;</th>
<th>Goal agreement score</th>
<th>Low (1)</th>
<th>Medium (2)</th>
<th>High (3)</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>scores</td>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(low) 1-4</td>
<td></td>
<td>99</td>
<td>69.7</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>19.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(high) 5-8</td>
<td></td>
<td>119</td>
<td>61.1</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>25.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

^Data from the 1956 survey of the treatment and control samples, based on 337 pairs of husbands and wives.
An analysis of Table 10 reveals that low "togetherness" is more often associated with low goal agreement, while high "togetherness" is more often associated with medium or high agreement than is low "togetherness". For example, there is a higher proportion (69.7%) of husbands and wives with low goal agreement scores and low "togetherness" scores as compared to the proportion of husbands and wives (61.0%) with low goal agreement scores and high "togetherness" scores. The opposite is true when the number of husbands and wives having high goal agreement scores are examined. There is a lower proportion of husbands and wives (10.6%) with high goal agreement scores who were in the low (1-4) "togetherness" score category, and a higher proportion of husbands and wives (13.9%) with high goal agreement who had high "togetherness" scores (5-8).

Due to the significant coefficient of correlation, and the general overall pattern of the relationship exhibited in Tables 9 and 10, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Influence of Training on Goal Agreement

Concepts of agreement in goal selection in relation to education in management focusing on goals were developed in the Theory and Hypotheses chapter. Briefly summarized, an organized effort to teach farm families to manage more effectively involves an understanding of their goals by husband...
and wife. Interaction in a clarification of goals by husbands and wives contributes to increased understanding and agreement on their aims and objectives. The results of educational training is influenced by the effectiveness of the educators, attitude of the learners, and involvement by the learners in the activity of learning. The general hypothesis concerning these concepts is stated below.

**General Hypothesis 2:** Husbands and wives who have had training and involvement in the management process will have higher goal agreement than husbands and wives who have had little or no training in the management process.

**General Hypothesis 2** stated in the null form is: There is no difference in the goal agreement of husbands and wives who have had training and involvement in the management process and the goal agreement of husbands and wives who have had little or no training and involvement in the management process.

**Educational training in management**

As discussed in the theoretical development of this study, it was suggested that families who have had training in the management process will have a higher goal agreement score. A principle factor of management involves an understanding of and clarification of family goals. The farm and home development program focuses upon training in management. The empirical hypothesis with respect to the relationship between educational training in management and goal agreement is stated below.
E. H. 6  Husbands and wives who had educational training in the farm and home development program will be in higher agreement on goals than husbands and wives who had no educational training in the farm and home development program.

The hypothesis stated in the null form is: There is no difference in the goal agreement scores among husbands and wives who had educational training in the farm and home development program and husbands and wives who had no educational training in the farm and home development program.

Table 11. Distribution of husband-wife goal agreement scores according to the 1956 and 1960 survey of the treatment and control samplea

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goal agreement categories</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>High and medium</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1956</td>
<td>1960</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treatment counties</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cherokee</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>84.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chickasaw</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>65.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clinton</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>68.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hamilton</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>56.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marion</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>67.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control counties</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ida</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>80.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Howard</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>64.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jackson</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>78.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Webster</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>48.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lucas</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>30.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

aBased on 338 pairs of husbands and wives.
Table 12. Percentage change of husbands and wives between 1956 and 1960 in "high" and "medium" goal agreement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Treatment counties</th>
<th>Percentage change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cherokee</td>
<td>17.6 +</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chickasaw</td>
<td>7.4 +</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clinton</td>
<td>29.3 +</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hamilton</td>
<td>31.8 +</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marion</td>
<td>10.8 +</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control counties</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ida</td>
<td>5.0 -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Howard</td>
<td>12.0 +</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jackson</td>
<td>32.1 +</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Webster</td>
<td>29.7 +</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lucas</td>
<td>20.0 -</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on 338 pairs of husbands and wives.

An analysis of variance, computed to determine whether or not a difference existed among the control and treatment samples, was based on the difference between goal agreement in 1956 and 1960. For the treatment effect, the obtained value of 1.4835 with 1 and 20 d.f. is not significant. F with 1 and 20 d.f. at the .05 level equals 4.35. However,
computing the difference in goal agreement between 1956 and 1960 for the treatment and control counties, a mean of 2.5879 was obtained for the treatment counties and a mean of .4425 was obtained for the control counties. As indicated by the analysis of variance, there is not a significant difference among the counties according to treatment, yet the mean 2.5879 would indicate that the treatment counties made greater change in goal agreement than the control counties (.4425) even though the difference is not significant.

Table 11 presents the frequency distribution of goal agreement scores according to the 1956 and 1960 survey of the treatment and control sample based on 338 pairs of husbands and wives. The table gives evidence there was an increase in the proportion of husbands and wives in the "medium" and "high" category of goal agreement between 1956 and 1960 in all of the treatment counties, and in all of the control counties with the exception of Ida and Lucas (5.0% and 20.0% decrease respectively). Table 12 indicates the highest percentage increase was in the control county of Jackson (32.1%) with Webster (control county), Clinton (treatment county) and Hamilton (treatment county) being similar, 29.7%, 29.3% and 31.8% increase respectively. However, the treatment counties indicate a more consistent pattern of increase in goal agreement. The percentage change ranging from 7.4% + increase to 31.8% +, while the control counties ranged from 20.0% -
increase to 32.1% + increase.

Although there is evidence of greater positive goal agreement among the treatment counties, it is not large enough to be significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not rejected.

Involvement of learners

As discussed in the chapter Theory and Hypotheses, it was suggested that the degree of involvement and interaction in a learning experience affects the extent of the impact—the greater the involvement of the learner, the greater will be the change in his knowledge, attitude, skills and accompanying application. The farm and home development program focuses upon training in management, and involves an understanding of and clarification of family goals. Two assumptions are made: first, as husband and wife clarify and formulate goals, a higher degree of goal agreement will result; and second, involvement in and interaction with the farm and home development program is evidenced by attendance at group meetings, farm visits, minutes spent in farm visits and "other" contacts by telephone or office visits to the county Extension office. The relationship between involvement in the farm and home development program and goal agreement of husband and wife is stated in empirical hypotheses 7 through 10.
The greater the number of group meetings attended by husbands and wives relative to the farm and home development program, the higher will be the husband-wife goal agreement score.

The hypothesis stated in the null form is: There is no difference in the goal agreement score of husbands and wives according to the number of group meetings attended relative to the farm and home development program.

Table 13. Distribution of husband-wife goal agreement scores according to the number of group meetings attended relative to the farm and home development program

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group meetings attended</th>
<th>Goal agreement score</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Low (1)</td>
<td>Medium (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N %</td>
<td>N %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>49 51.6</td>
<td>36 37.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-2</td>
<td>33 45.2</td>
<td>33 45.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-4</td>
<td>12 50.0</td>
<td>9 37.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-6</td>
<td>4 44.4</td>
<td>3 33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7-8</td>
<td>2 66.7</td>
<td>1 33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9-10</td>
<td>1 100.0</td>
<td>1 100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-12</td>
<td>1 100.0</td>
<td>1 100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13-14</td>
<td>2 100.0</td>
<td>2 100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

aData from the 1960 survey of the treatment sample, based on 208 pairs of husbands and wives.

bDue to rounding error.
A correlation coefficient was computed to determine whether or not a linear relationship existed between the goal agreement score and the number of group meetings attended relative to the farm and home development program. The value of coefficient of correlation \(0.0196\) is not statistically significant at the .05 level.

Table 13 presents the frequency distribution in the "high", "medium", and "low" categories of the goal agreement scores for husbands and wives according to the number of group meetings attended relative to the farm and home development program. A linear relationship between these two factors is not evident. Only sixteen husbands and wives in all categories ("low", "medium", and "high") attended more than four group meetings. In the first three categories of 0, 1-2, and 3-4 meetings attended, the proportion of husbands and wives with low agreement who attended no group meetings (51.6%) is similar for husbands and wives who attended 1-2 group meetings (45.2%) and 3-4 group meetings (50.0%). In the "medium" and "high" agreement categories, a similar situation is evident. The null hypothesis is not rejected.

E. H. 8 The greater the number of farm visits by Extension personnel relative to the farm and home development program, the higher will be the husband-wife goal agreement score.

The hypothesis stated in null form is: There is no difference in the husband-wife goal agreement score according to the number of farm visits by Extension
personnel relative to the farm and home development program.

Table 14. Distribution of husband-wife goal agreement scores according to the number of farm visits by Extension personnel relative to the farm and home development program.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Farm visits by Extension personnel</th>
<th>Goal agreement score</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Low (1)</td>
<td>Medium (2)</td>
<td>High (3)</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N %</td>
<td>N %</td>
<td>N %</td>
<td>N %</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>1 50.0</td>
<td>1 50.0</td>
<td>2 100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-4</td>
<td>38 53.5</td>
<td>25 35.2</td>
<td>8 11.3</td>
<td>71 100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-8</td>
<td>40 43.5</td>
<td>42 45.6</td>
<td>10 10.9</td>
<td>92 100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9-12</td>
<td>16 51.6</td>
<td>12 38.7</td>
<td>3 9.6</td>
<td>31 100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13-16</td>
<td>4 50.0</td>
<td>4 50.0</td>
<td>8 100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17-20</td>
<td>2 66.7</td>
<td></td>
<td>1 33.3</td>
<td>3 100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-24</td>
<td>1 100.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1 100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

aData from the 1960 survey of the treatment sample, based on 208 pairs of husbands and wives.

The correlation coefficient computed to determine whether or not a linear relationship existed between the goal agreement score and the number of farm visits by Extension personnel relative to the farm and home development program.
program, is not significant at the .05 level. The value obtained is .1357-.

Table 14 presents the frequency distribution in the "high", "medium", and "low" categories of the goal agreement scores for husbands and wives according to the number of farm visits by Extension personnel relative to the farm and home development program. A positive linear relationship between these two variables is not evident. Excluding the first and the last three categories of farm visits because of the fewness in numbers of husband-wife pairs who received 0 farm visits or 13 farm visits and over, the proportion of husbands and wives in all three categories of goal agreement ("low", "medium", and "high") are very similar regardless of how many farm visits they received. For example, the proportion of husbands and wives having "high" goal agreement is similar for those receiving 1-4 farm visits (11.3%), 5-8 farm visits (10.9%) or 9-12 farm visits (9.6%). The null hypothesis is not rejected.

E. H. 2 The greater the number of minutes spent in farm visits by Extension personnel relative to the farm and home development program, the higher will be the husband-wife goal agreement score.

The hypothesis stated in null form is: There is no difference in the husband-wife goal agreement score according to the number of minutes spent in farm visits by Extension personnel relative to the farm and home development program.
Table 15. Distribution of husband-wife goal agreement scores according to minutes spent in farm visits by Extension personnel relative to the farm and home development program\(^a\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Minutes spent in farm visits</th>
<th>Goal agreement score</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Low (1)</td>
<td>Medium (2)</td>
<td>High (3)</td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-200</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>53.5</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>38.4</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>201-400</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>42.4</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>40.9</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>401-600</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>44.1</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>601-800</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>801-1,000</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,001-1,200</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>66.7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,201-1,400</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,401-1,600</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^a\)Data from the 1960 survey of the treatment sample, based on 208 pairs of husbands and wives.

\(^b\)Due to rounding error.

\(^c\)Due to rounding error.

The correlation coefficient computed to determine whether or not a linear relationship existed between the husband-wife goal agreement score and the number of minutes spent in farm visits by Extension personnel relative to the farm and home development program relative to the farm and home development program.
development program is not significant at the .05 level. The value obtained is .1607-.

Table 15 presents the frequency distribution in the "high", "medium", and "low" categories of the goal agreement scores for husbands and wives according to the minutes spent in farm visits by Extension personnel relative to the farm and home development program. A positive linear relationship between these two variables is not evident. Excluding the first and the last five categories of minutes spent in farm visits because of the fewness of numbers, the proportion of husbands and wives having high goal agreement does not increase in proportion to the number of minutes spent in farm visits as would be expected if a linear relationship existed. Moving from the second category of minutes spent in farm visits to the third category (1-200 minutes spent in farm visits to 201-400) the proportion of husbands and wives having high goal agreement increases (8.1% to 16.7% respectively). However, moving from the third category of minutes spent in farm visits to the fourth category (201-400 minutes spent in farm visits to 401-600) the proportion of husbands and wives having high goal agreement decreases (16.7% to 5.9% respectively). The null hypothesis is not rejected.

E. H. 10 The greater the number of "other" Extension contacts relative to the farm and home development program, the higher will be the husband-wife goal
agreement score. ("Other" contacts refers to telephone and office calls to the county Extension office relative to the farm and home development program.)

The hypothesis stated in null form is: There is no difference in the husband-wife goal agreement score according to the number of "other" Extension contacts relative to the farm and home development program.

Table 16. Distribution of husband-wife goal agreement scores according to the number of "other" Extension contacts relative to the farm and home development program

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of other contacts</th>
<th>Goal agreement score</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Low (1)</td>
<td>Medium (2)</td>
<td>High (3)</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td>19</td>
<td>61.3</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>35.5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-10</td>
<td></td>
<td>55</td>
<td>46.2</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>42.0</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-20</td>
<td></td>
<td>19</td>
<td>51.4</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>35.1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-30</td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>45.5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>45.5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>100.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-50</td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>99.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51-60</td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61-70</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a Data from the 1960 survey of the treatment sample, based on 208 pairs of husbands and wives.

b Due to rounding error.

c Due to rounding error.
Computation of the correlation coefficient to determine whether or not a linear relationship existed between the husband-wife goal agreement score and the number of "other" Extension contacts relative to the farm and home development program does not indicate significance at the .05 level. The value obtained is .0609-.

Table 16 presents the frequency distribution in the "high", "medium", and "low" categories of the goal agreement scores for husbands and wives according to the number of "other" Extension contacts relative to the farm and home development program. A positive relationship between the two variables is not evident. The proportion of those couples having no "other" Extension contacts who had a low agreement score (61.3%) is higher than the proportion of couples with low agreement scores having 1-10 "other" Extension contacts (46.2%), but those couples with low agreement scores having 11-20 "other" Extension contacts increased (51.4%). The null hypothesis is not rejected.

Attitude of learners

As discussed in the theoretical development of this study, it was suggested that the more positive the attitude of husband and wife in a learning activity in which the family's objectives or goals are jointly formulated, the higher would be the agreement score. In the farm and home development program, Extension service personnel who worked with the
respondents in the treatment counties estimated their cooperation in terms of whether it was very good, good, fair or poor. The association between attitude and goal agreement is stated in Empirical Hypothesis 11.

E. H. 11 The greater the degree of the husband's and wife's cooperation with the farm and home development program, the higher will be their goal agreement score.

The hypothesis stated in null form is: There is no difference in the goal agreement score of husbands and wives according to the degree of their cooperation with the farm and home development program.

Table 17. Distribution of husband-wife goal agreement scores according to the estimation of their cooperation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Estimation of family cooperation</th>
<th>Goal agreement score</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Low (1)</td>
<td>Medium (2)</td>
<td>High (3)</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>53.8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>34.6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>57.4</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>35.2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>39.8</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>47.3</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very good</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>57.1</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>31.4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*aData from the 1960 survey of the treatment sample, based on 208 pairs of husbands and wives.

*bDue to rounding error.

*cDue to rounding error.
A coefficient of correlation was computed to determine whether or not a linear relationship existed between the goal agreement score and the degree of the husband's and wife's cooperation with the farm and home development program. The value of coefficient of correlation .0594- is not statistically significant at the .05 level.

Table 17 presents the frequency distribution in the "high", "medium", and "low" categories of the goal agreement scores for husbands and wives according to the estimation of their cooperation. A strong positive relationship between the estimation of husband-wife cooperation and their goal agreement score is not evident. In Table 17 the proportion of those couples estimated as having poor cooperation (53.8%) is very similar to the proportion of couples with low agreement scores estimated as having fair cooperation (57.4%) and those estimated as having very good cooperation (57.1%).

However, to illustrate further the relationship between goal agreement and estimation of husband-wife cooperation, husbands and wives whose cooperation is estimated as poor or fair are placed in one category, and husbands and wives whose cooperation is estimated as good and very good are placed in another category as indicated by Table 18.

Combining the husband-wife categories estimated as having poor and fair cooperation in one group and those estimated as having good or very good cooperation in another group as
Table 18. Distribution of husband-wife goal agreement scores according to the estimation of their cooperation combined in two categories—poor and fair, good and very good.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Estimation of family cooperation</th>
<th>Goal agreement score</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Low (1)</td>
<td>Medium (2)</td>
<td>High (3)</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor or fair</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>56.2</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>35.</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good or very good</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>44.5</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>43.</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>128</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data from the 1960 survey of the treatment sample, based on 208 pairs of husbands and wives.

illustrated in Table 18, seems to indicate that the relationship is in the expected direction, that the greater the degree of the husband's and wife's cooperation with the farm and home development program, the higher will be their goal agreement score. For example, there is a higher proportion of husbands and wives (56.2%) with low goal agreement and estimated as having poor or fair cooperation as compared with the proportion of husbands and wives (44.5%) with low goal agreement and estimated as having good or very good cooperation; and in contrast a higher proportion of husbands and wives (12.5%) with high goal agreement scores and estimated as having good or very good cooperation as compared with
the proportion of husbands and wives (8.8%) with high goal agreement scores and estimated as having poor or fair cooperation. In addition, a high proportion whose cooperation is estimated as good or very good (43.%) have at least a medium goal agreement score. However, in view of the small differences (even though in the predicted direction) and the non-significant coefficient of correlation, .0594 -, the null hypothesis is not rejected.

Effectiveness of educators

In teaching the management process (using farm and home development as the vehicle) in which the husband and wife jointly identify problems, clarify and formulate objectives or goals, it was suggested in the theoretical development of this study there is an association between educator effectiveness and goal agreement. This association is stated in Empirical Hypothesis 12.

E. H. 12 There will be a difference among the five treatment counties in goal agreement by husbands and wives after having participated in the farm and home development program administered by different Extension personnel.

The hypothesis stated in null form is: There is no difference among the five treatment counties in goal agreement by husbands and wives after having received the farm and home development experience administered by different Extension personnel.

An analysis of variance was computed to determine whether
or not a difference existed among the control and treatment sample in goal agreement. The analysis of variance was based on the goal agreement difference between 1956 and 1960. The F obtained is 1.4835 with 1 and 20 d.f. At the .05 level, F = 5.87 with 1 and 20 d.f. The obtained F of 1.4835 is not significant. The null hypothesis is not rejected.

Influence of Training on Goal Agreement Change

Concepts of goal agreement change in relation to education in management were presented in the theoretical development of this study. Briefly summarized, an educational effort focusing on management involves an understanding, clarification and formulation of goals by husbands and wives. Going through a process, becoming aware of problems and defining goals increases the potentiality for goal agreement so that from one point in time before the training took place, to another point in time when the respondents had received training, a high positive change in goal agreement is possible. Goal agreement change is hypothesized to be influenced by educational training, involvement by the learners in the activity of learning, the attitude of the learners and effectiveness of the educators. The general hypothesis concerning these concepts is stated below.

General Hypothesis 3: husbands and wives who have had training and involvement in the management process will
have made higher positive change in goal agreement than husbands and wives who have had little or no training in the management process.

General Hypothesis 3 stated in the null form is: there is no difference in the positive goal agreement change of husbands and wives who have had training and involvement in the management process and husbands and wives who have had little or no training in the management process.

**Educational training in management**

It was previously suggested there is an association between the husband's and wife's clarification and formulation of goals and goal agreement change. Clarification and formulation of goals should have been a part of the management training in the farm and home development program, and one should therefore expect a relationship between receipt of management training and goal agreement change. The association between educational training in management and goal agreement change is stated in the empirical hypothesis which follows.

E. H. 13 Husbands and wives who had training in the farm and home development program will have a higher positive change in goal agreement than husbands and wives who had no training in the farm and home development program.

The hypothesis stated in the null form is: There is no difference in the goal agreement change score among husbands and wives who had educational training in the farm and home development program and husbands and wives who had no educational training in the farm and home development program.

An analysis of variance was computed to determine if
Table 19. Distribution of husband-wife goal agreement change scores according to the treatment and control counties

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goal agreement change score</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treatment counties</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cherokee</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>51.1</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>26.6</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chickasaw</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>48.8</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>24.4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clinton</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>29.3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hamilton</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>47.7</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>34.1</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marion</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>59.5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>18.9</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control counties</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ida</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>80.0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Howard</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>16.0</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>56.0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>24.0</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jackson</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10.7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>35.7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>32.1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Webster</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>25.9</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>48.1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lucas</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>66.6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>26.6</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data from the 1956 and 1960 surveys of the treatment and control sample, 338 pairs of husbands and wives.

Due to rounding error.

Due to rounding error.
Table 20. Distribution of husband-wife goal agreement change scores according to the treatment and control group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Treatment</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>26.9</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>208</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>16.2</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>47.7</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>26.2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>130</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

aData from the 1956 and 1960 surveys of the treatment and control sample, 338 pairs of husbands and wives.

bDue to rounding error.
there is a difference in the amount of goal agreement change between the treatment and control groups. The F obtained is 3.53 with 1 and 4 d.f. At the .05 level, F = 12.22 with 1 and 4 d.f. The obtained F of 3.53 is not significant.

Table 19 presents the frequency distribution of goal agreement change scores of husbands and wives according to the treatment and control counties; and Table 20 presents the frequency distribution of the goal agreement change scores of husbands and wives according to the treatment and control groups. A strong significant difference in the goal agreement change score of the treatment and control groups is not evident. For example the proportion of husbands and wives for both the treatment and control groups is quite similar in each of the goal agreement change score categories. The treatment and control groups have 6.3% and 6.2% respectively in the "1" category of goal agreement change. The proportion of husbands and wives for the treatment and control groups increases from the "1" to the "2", and from the "2" to the "3" goal agreement change score category. In the "3" category, the proportion of husbands and wives in the treatment group is 50.0% and the control group is 47.7%. A decrease from "3" to "5" is evident for both groups, with 7.2% (treatment) and 3.8% (control) in the "5" goal agreement change score category.

Although there is this similarity in the proportion of husbands and wives in the treatment and control groups in each
of the goal agreement change score categories, an examination of the individual counties in Table 19 indicates there is far more similarity among the treatment counties than the control counties within each of the goal agreement change categories. For example, among the treatment counties, in the "3" category of goal agreement change, the range in the proportion of husbands and wives for the treatment counties is from 43.9% to 59.5%, while in the control counties the range is from 25.9% to 80.0%.

Evidence is not sufficient to reject the null hypothesis.

**Involvement of learners and goal agreement change**

As previously discussed in the theoretical development of this study, the theory presented suggested there is an association between the husband's and wife's involvement in a program concerned with the formulation of goals, and their goal agreement change. In this study involvement in the formulation of goals is represented by participation in the farm and home development program, i.e., attendance at meetings, farm visits, time spent in farm visits by the Extension, and "other" contacts with Extension personnel relative to the farm and home development program (office and phone calls). Empirical Hypotheses 14 through 17 relate to the association between involvement and goal agreement change.

E. H. 14 The greater the number of group meetings attended by husbands and wives relative to the farm
Table 21. Distribution of husband-wife goal agreement change scores according to the number of group meetings attended.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Meetings attended</th>
<th>1</th>
<th></th>
<th>2</th>
<th></th>
<th>3</th>
<th></th>
<th>4</th>
<th></th>
<th>5</th>
<th></th>
<th>Total N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>48.4</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>27.4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>54.8</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>21.9</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>24</td>
<td>99.9b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>44.4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>99.9c</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7-8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>66.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9-10</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-12</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13-14</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

aData from the 1956 and 1960 survey of the treatment sample, based on 208 pairs of husbands and wives.

bDue to rounding error.

cDue to rounding error.
and home development program, the higher their positive goal agreement change score.

The hypothesis stated in the null form is: There is no difference in the goal agreement change score of husbands and wives according to the number of group meetings attended relative to the farm and home development program.

A coefficient of correlation was computed to determine whether or not a linear relationship existed between the goal agreement change score of husband and wife and the number of group meetings attended relative to the farm and home development program. The value of coefficient of correlation .0457 is not statistically significant at the .05 level.

Table 21 presents the frequency distribution in "1", "2", "3", "4", and "5" categories of husband-wife goal agreement change scores according to the number of group meetings attended. A linear relationship between these two factors is not evident. Analysis of the table is limited to those husbands and wives who attended no more than four meetings because of the fewness of husbands and wives who attended more. In each of the categories of goal agreement change, ranging from "1" to "5", with "5" representing the highest goal agreement change, a decided influence as to whether or not the husband and wife attended 0 meetings or were in the category of 1-2 meetings attended or 3-4, is not indicated. For example, the proportion of husbands in the "3" category of goal agreement change, who attended 0 meetings (48.4%) is similar to those
who attended 1-2 (54.8%) and those who attended 3-4 (50.0%).

The null hypothesis is not rejected.

E. H. 15 The greater the number of farm visits by Extension personnel relative to the farm and home development program, the higher will be the husband's and wife's positive goal agreement change score.

The hypothesis stated in null form is: There is no difference in the goal agreement change score of husbands and wives according to the number of farm visits by Extension personnel relative to the farm and home development program.

The coefficient of correlation computed to determine whether or not a linear relationship existed between the husband-wife goal agreement change score and the number of farm visits by Extension personnel relative to the farm and home development program is not significant at the .05 level. The value obtained is .1033-. 

Table 22 presents the frequency distribution in "1", "2", "3", "4", and "5" categories of husband-wife goal agreement change scores according to the number of farm visits by Extension personnel relative to the farm and home development program. A positive linear relationship between these two factors is not evident. An analysis of the categories in the table does not indicate that the higher the number of farm visits, the higher is the goal agreement score of husbands and wives.

Excluding the farm visit category of 0 farm visits and
Table 22. Distribution of husband-wife goal agreement change scores according to the number of farm visits by Extension personnel relative to the farm and home development program\textsuperscript{a}

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Farm visits</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12.7</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>46.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>54.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9-12</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>51.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13-16</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17-20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>66.6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-24</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\textsuperscript{a}Data from the 1956 and 1960 survey of the treatment sample, based on 208 pairs of husbands and wives.

\textsuperscript{b}Due to rounding error.
those over 13 farm visits because of the fewness in number, the proportion of those husbands and wives having 9-12 farm visits decreases in the high goal agreement change score category instead of increasing. For example, the proportion in the "3" goal agreement change score category is 51.6%, in the "4" goal agreement change score category is 32.3%, and in the "5" category it is 9.7%. The null hypothesis is not rejected.

E. H. 16 The greater the number of minutes spent in farm visits by Extension personnel relative to the farm and home development program, the higher will be the husband's and wife's positive goal agreement change score.

The hypothesis stated in null form is: There is no difference in the goal agreement change score of husbands and wives according to the number of minutes spent in farm visits by Extension personnel relative to the farm and home development program.

A coefficient of correlation was computed to determine whether or not a linear relationship existed between the goal agreement change score of husband and wife and the number of minutes spent in farm visits by Extension personnel relative to the farm and home development program. The value of coefficient of correlation .1120- is not significant at the .05 level.

Table 23 presents the frequency distribution in "1", "2", "3", "4", and "5" categories of husband-wife goal agreement change scores according to the number of minutes spent
Table 23. Distribution of husband-wife agreement change scores according to the number of minutes spent in farm visits by Extension personnel relative to the farm and home development program\(^a\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Minutes spent in farm visits</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-200</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>16.3</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>48.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>201-400</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>48.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>401-600</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>58.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>601-800</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>801-1,000</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,001-1,200</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>42.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,201-1,400</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,401-1,600</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^a\)Data from the 1956 and 1960 survey of the treatment sample, based on 208 pairs of husbands and wives.

\(^b\)Due to rounding error.
in farm visits by Extension personnel relative to the farm and home development program. A positive linear relationship between these two variables is not evident. In drawing conclusions from the table, the category of 0 and categories over 601 "minutes spent in farm visits" are excluded because of the fewness in number of respondents. Categories of 201-400, 401-600 and 601-800 indicate a similar trend. With the exception of the 201-400 "minutes spent in farm visits" category of goal agreement change scores, there is an increase from the "1" and "2" categories to the "3" goal agreement change score category, and in all three "minutes spent in farm visits" categories there is a decrease from the "3" to the "4" goal agreement change score categories, and from the "4" to the "5" category. This situation explains the negative coefficient correlation. The null hypothesis is not rejected.

E. H. 12 The greater the number of "other" Extension contacts by husband and wife relative to the farm and home development program, the higher will be the husband's and wife's positive change in goal agreement.

The hypothesis stated in null form is: There is no difference in the change of goal agreement among husbands and wives according to the number of "other" Extension contacts relative to the farm and home development program.

The coefficient of correlation computed to determine whether or not a linear relationship existed between the husband-wife goal agreement change score and the number of
Table 24. Distribution of change in husband-wife goal agreement scores according to the number of "other" Extension contacts relative to the farm and home development program.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of other contacts</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-10</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-20</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-30</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-50</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51-60</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61-70</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

^Data from the 1956 and 1960 survey of the treatment sample, 208 cases.
"other" Extension contacts relative to the farm and home development program is not significant at the .05 level. The value obtained is .0374+.

Table 24 presents the frequency distribution in "1", "2", "3", "4" and "5" categories (going from lowest to highest husband-wife goal agreement change scores) according to the number of "other" Extension contacts relative to the farm and home development program. A positive linear relationship between these two factors is not evident. In drawing conclusions from the table, the number of "other" contacts above 20 are excluded because of the fewness in numbers of the respondents in these categories. The proportion of husbands and wives having goal agreement change scores in the "3" and "4" categories are similar whether or not they had 0, 1-10, or 11-20 number of "other" contacts. For example, in these three categories, the proportion of husbands and wives in the "3" category of goal agreement change is 54.8%, 49.6% and 51.4% respectively, while the proportion of husbands and wives in the "4" category of goal agreement change is 22.6%, 24.4% and 29.7% respectively. The null hypothesis is not rejected.

Attitude of learners and goal agreement change

In the theoretical development of this study it was suggested there would be an association between the positive attitude of husband and wife, in a learning activity in which goals are formulated, and goal agreement change. The farm
and home development program focuses on management, and an integral part of management is problem definition, goal clarification and formulation. Extension service personnel who worked with the respondents in the treatment counties estimated each family's cooperation with the farm and home development program as very good, good, fair or poor. In this study it is assumed that very good or good cooperation represent a favorable attitude toward the program and a willingness on the part of the respondents to apply educational principles of management to their particular situation. The relation between the attitude of the husband and wife and goal agreement change are stated in the empirical hypothesis that follows.

**E. H. 18** The greater the degree of the husband's and wife's estimated cooperation with the farm and home development program, the higher will be the positive change in goal agreement.

The hypothesis stated in null form is: There is no difference in the change of goal agreement among husbands and wives according to the degree of their cooperation with the farm and home development program.

The coefficient of correlation computed to determine whether or not a linear relationship existed between the husband-wife goal agreement change score and the degree of the estimated cooperation of the husband and wife with the farm and home development program is not significant at the .05 level. The value obtained is .0584-.
Table 25. Distribution of change in husband-wife goal agreement scores, 1956-1960, according to the estimation of family cooperation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Estimation of family cooperation</th>
<th>Goal agreement change score</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very good</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Data from the 1956 and 1960 survey of the treatment sample, 208 cases.*

*bDue to rounding error.*

*cDue to rounding error.*
Table 25 presents the frequency distribution in "1", "2", "3", "4" and "5" categories (going from lowest to highest in husband-wife goal agreement change scores) according to the estimation of their cooperation. A positive linear relationship between these two factors is not evident. The proportion of husbands and wives in each of the goal agreement change score categories, is similar for each of the categories of estimated family cooperation. For example, the proportion of husbands and wives having a "3" goal agreement change score in the category estimated as having "very good" cooperation (51.4%) is similar to the proportion in the category estimated as having "good" cooperation (46.2%) or the category of "fair" cooperation (53.8%) or the category of "poor" cooperation (53.8%). The null hypothesis is not rejected.

Effectiveness of educators

The rationale for a relationship between the effectiveness of educators and positive goal agreement change was presented in the theoretical development of this study. The empirical measure for this proposition is the degree of goal agreement change in the five treatment counties. The association between the effectiveness of educators and positive goal agreement change is stated in the empirical hypothesis that follows.

\[ E. H. 12 \] There will be a difference among the five treatment counties in the amount of positive goal
Table 26. Distribution of change in husband-wife goal agreement scores, 1956-1960, according to the treatment counties\(^a\)

| Treatment counties | Goal agreement change score |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|--------------------|----------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|
|                    | 1 N | 1 % | 2 N | 2 % | 3 N | 3 % | 4 N | 4 % | 5 N | 5 % | Total N | Total % |
| Cherokee           | 4   | 8.9 | 3   | 6.7 | 23  | 51.0| 12  | 26.7| 3   | 6.7 | 45      | 100   |
| Chickasaw         | 5   | 12.2| 4   | 9.8 | 20  | 48.7| 10  | 24.4| 2   | 4.9 | 41      | 100   |
| Clinton           | 1   | 2.4 | 5   | 12.2| 18  | 43.9| 12  | 29.3| 5   | 12.2| 41      | 100   |
| Hamilton          | 1   | 2.3 | 4   | 9.1 | 21  | 47.7| 15  | 34.1| 3   | 6.8 | 44      | 100   |
| Marion            | 2   | 5.4 | 4   | 10.8| 22  | 59.5| 7   | 18.9| 2   | 5.4 | 37      | 100   |

\(^a\)Data from the 1956 and 1960 survey of the treatment sample, 208 cases.
agreement change by husbands and wives after having participated in the farm and home development program administered by different Extension personnel.

The hypothesis stated in null form is: There is no difference among the five treatment counties in the amount of goal agreement change by husbands and wives after having participated in the farm and home development program administered by different Extension personnel.

A chi square was computed to determine if a difference existed among the five treatment counties in the amount of goal agreement change by husbands and wives after having participated in the farm and home development program administered by different Extension personnel. A value of 5.38 was obtained, which is not significant. $X^2$ at the .05 level with 8 d.f. = 15.5.

Table 26 presents the frequency distribution in "1", "2", "3", "4" and "5" (going from lowest to highest in husband-wife goal agreement change scores) according to the treatment counties. A higher proportion of husbands and wives from all treatment counties fall in the goal agreement change categories "3" and "4" than in "1", "2", or "5". In the "3" category of goal agreement change the proportion of husbands and wives in the treatment counties ranges from 43.9% to 59.5%, while in the "4" category of goal agreement change the proportion of husbands and wives in the treatment counties range from 18.9% to 34.1%. The proportion of husbands and wives in these two categories are not highly similar, but the difference is not
great enough to be significant. The null hypothesis is not rejected.

Concepts Used for Future Prediction

As was discussed in the chapter on method and procedure, there are some general concepts for which no theoretical rationale was developed, but which are being used for exploratory purposes in making future predictions. These hypotheses are stated in the null form, and include Hypotheses 20 through 25.

N. H. 20 There is no difference in the goal agreement scores of husbands and wives in the different household types.

Chi square was computed to determine if a difference in goal agreement by husband and wife according to household type existed. A $X^2$ of 1.14 is not significant. $X^2$ at the .05 level with 3 d.f. = 7.8.

Table 27 presents the frequency distribution in the "high", "medium", and "low" categories of the goal agreement scores for husbands and wives according to household type. The lack of a strong positive linear relationship between household type and the goal agreement score is evident. For example, the proportion of those husbands and wives who were "couple only" who had a low agreement score (69.6%) was similar to the proportions with low agreement scores in the
Table 27. Distribution of husband-wife goal agreement scores according to household type\textsuperscript{a}

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Household type</th>
<th>Goal agreement score</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Low (1)</td>
<td>Medium (2)</td>
<td>High (3)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N  %</td>
<td>N  %</td>
<td>N  %</td>
<td>N  %</td>
<td>N  %</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Couple only</td>
<td>16 69.6</td>
<td>3 13.0</td>
<td>4 17.4</td>
<td>23 100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Couple and preschool children</td>
<td>91 65.0</td>
<td>31 22.1</td>
<td>18 12.9</td>
<td>140 100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Couple and school-age children</td>
<td>25 58.1</td>
<td>12 27.9</td>
<td>6 14.0</td>
<td>43 100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Couple and pre-school and school children</td>
<td>87 65.9</td>
<td>31 23.5</td>
<td>14 10.6</td>
<td>132 100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\textsuperscript{a}Data from the 1956 survey of the treatment and control sample, 338 pairs of husbands and wives.

category of "couple and preschool children" (65\%), however, the proportions with low agreement scores in the category of "couple and school-age children" evidenced greater difference (58.1\%), but the proportions with low agreement scores in the category of "couple and preschool and school children" was again very similar to the "couple only" proportions (65.9\%). The null hypothesis is not rejected.
There is no difference in the goal agreement scores of husbands and wives in the different socio-economic groups.

Table 28. Distribution of husband-wife goal agreement scores according to the socio-economic group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Socio-economic group</th>
<th>Goal agreement score</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Low (1)</td>
<td>Medium (2)</td>
<td>High (3)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>74 and below</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>66.7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>75-78</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>61.8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>26.5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>79-82</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>62.8</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>22.1</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>15.1</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>83-85</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>69.2</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>17.9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12.8</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>86-87</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>64.5</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>88-89</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>67.4</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>20.9</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>11.6</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90 and over</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>44.4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>44.4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

aData from the 1956 survey of the treatment and control sample, 338 pairs of husbands and wives.

bDue to rounding error.

cDue to rounding error.

dDue to rounding error.
The coefficient of correlation computed to determine the linear relationship between the husband-wife goal agreement scores and socio-economic status is not significant at the .05 level. The value obtained is .0075.

According to Table 28, the proportion of husbands and wives having low agreement is very similar for all socio-economic groups, ranging from 69.2% to 61.8% with the exception of the "90 and over" group (44.4%). A similar situation is found in the proportion of husbands and wives having high agreement, with the exception of the "74 and below" group which is 8.3%, the other groups range from 15.1% to 10.5%. The null hypothesis is not rejected.

N. H. 22 There is no difference in the goal agreement scores of husbands and wives according to yearly earnings of housewife from off-the-farm employment.

A correlation coefficient was computed to determine whether or not a linear relationship existed between the goal agreement score and the housewife's employment status. The value of coefficient of correlation .0228+ is not statistically significant at the .05 level.

Table 29 presents the frequency distribution in the "high", "medium", and "low" categories of the goal selection agreement scores for husbands and wives according to the housewife's employment status. A linear relationship between the housewife's employment status and goal agreement score is
Table 29. Distribution of husband-wife goal agreement scores by wife's income categories^a

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Housewife's yearly earnings from employment off farm</th>
<th>Goal agreement score</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Low (1)</td>
<td>Medium (2)</td>
<td>High (3)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$0</td>
<td>202 64.5</td>
<td>72 23.0</td>
<td>39 12.5</td>
<td>313 100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$1-199</td>
<td>6 85.7</td>
<td>1 14.3</td>
<td></td>
<td>7 100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$200-599</td>
<td>3 60.0</td>
<td>2 40.0</td>
<td></td>
<td>5 100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$600-1,999</td>
<td>4 66.7</td>
<td>1 16.6</td>
<td>1 16.6</td>
<td>6 99.9^b</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$2,000 or more</td>
<td>4 57.1</td>
<td>1 14.3</td>
<td>2 28.6</td>
<td>7 100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

^aData from the 1956 survey of the treatment and control sample, 338 pairs of husbands and wives.

^bDue to rounding error.

not evident. The goal agreement scores in the "low" category are irregular and do not evidence a higher proportion in the group of "0" wives employed off the farm (64.5%), decreasing so that there is a lower proportion in the group of wives who receive $2,000 or more in employment off the farm (57.1%). The proportion of husbands and wives having low agreement where wives receive $2,000 or more in employment off the farm (57.1%) is higher than the proportion of husbands and wives combined having "medium" and "high" agreement where the wife
receives $2,000 or more off the farm (42.9%). The null hypothesis is not rejected.

N. H. 23 There is no difference in the goal agreement scores of husbands and wives in the different net family income groups.

Table 30. Distribution of husband-wife goal agreement scores according to the net family incomea

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goal agreement score</th>
<th>Low (1)</th>
<th>Medium (2)</th>
<th>High (3)</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Net family income</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$ Net loss</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>86.2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-1,499</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>60.4</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>24.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,500-2,499</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>61.3</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>25.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2,500-3,499</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>56.3</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>33.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3,500-4,499</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>69.1</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>23.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4,500-7,999</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>70.0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8,000 or overb</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>61.1</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

aData from the 1956 survey of the treatment and control sample, 338 pairs of husbands and wives.

bFrom data collected, families were categorized into seven income groups and $100,000 was added to the total income to take care of minus net family incomes. In the above table, the $100,000 has been subtracted from each of the income groups.

The coefficient of correlation computed to determine the linear relationship between the goal agreement score and
net family income is not significant at the .05 level. The value obtained is .0526+.

Table 30 presents the frequency distribution in the "high", "medium", and "low" categories of the goal agreement scores for husbands and wives according to the net family income. A linear relationship between the net family income and goal agreement is not evident. For example, the proportion of those couples in the different income groups who had a "low" agreement score ranges from 86.2% to 56.3%. However, the decrease is not orderly, 85.2% represents the lowest net family income group of husbands and wives who had "low" agreement with 56.3% representing the fourth highest group, and 61.1% representing the seventh highest group. If a linear relationship existed between net family income and the agreement score, one would expect the proportion of husbands and wives in the highest net family income group having "low" agreement to be less than the proportion of husbands and wives in the highest net family income group having "medium" and "high" agreement. The frequency distribution does not support this expectation, and is 61.1% and 38.9% (combining "medium" and "high") respectively. The null hypothesis is not rejected.

N. H. 24 There is no difference in the goal agreement scores of husbands and wives grouped according to dollar value of household assets plus farm assets.

The coefficient of correlation computed to determine
Table 31. Distribution of husband-wife goal agreement scores according to household plus farm assets groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Household plus farm assets groupings</th>
<th>Goal agreement score</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$ 6,999 or less</td>
<td>11 45.8</td>
<td>10 41.7</td>
<td>3 12.5</td>
<td>24 100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7,000 - 10,999</td>
<td>36 67.9</td>
<td>13 24.5</td>
<td>4  7.5</td>
<td>53 99.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11,000 - 14,999</td>
<td>35 62.5</td>
<td>15 26.8</td>
<td>6 10.7</td>
<td>56 100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15,000 - 19,999</td>
<td>40 61.5</td>
<td>16 24.6</td>
<td>9 13.9</td>
<td>65 100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20,000 - 33,999</td>
<td>50 68.5</td>
<td>16 21.9</td>
<td>7  9.6</td>
<td>73 100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34,000 - 61,999</td>
<td>32 65.4</td>
<td>6 12.2</td>
<td>11 22.4</td>
<td>49 100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>62,000 or over</td>
<td>15 83.3</td>
<td>1  5.6</td>
<td>2 11.1</td>
<td>18 100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

aData from the 1956 survey of the treatment and control sample, 338 pairs of husbands and wives.

bDue to rounding error.

whether or not a linear relationship existed between the value of household assets plus farm assets and the goal agreement score indicated that there is not a significant association. The value obtained is 0.0260-.
Table 31 presents the frequency distribution in the "high", "medium", and "low" categories of the goal selection agreement scores for husbands and wives according to household plus farm assets. A linear association is not evident. Excluding the lowest and highest "household plus farm assets" group, the proportion of husbands and wives characterized as having low agreement ranges from 61.5% to 68.5% in the other five groups. The proportion of husbands and wives characterized as having low agreement in the highest "household plus farm assets" group ($62,000 or over) is 83.3%. This indicates a negative rather than a positive relationship. The null hypothesis is not rejected.

**N. H. 25** There is no difference in the goal agreement score according to whether or not husbands and/or wives get information from farm papers and magazines.

Chi square was computed to determine if a significant difference existed among those couples having "low", "medium" and "high" goal agreement as to whether or not husbands and/or wives get information from farm papers and magazines. At the .05 level with 2 d.f., $X^2 = 5.99$. $X^2$ obtained is 5.11 and is not significant.

Table 32 presents the frequency distribution in the "high", "medium" and "low" categories of the goal agreement scores for husbands and wives according to whether or not husbands and/or wives get information from farm papers and
Table 32. Distribution of husband-wife goal agreement scores according to whether or not husbands and/or wives get information from farm papers and magazines

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of information, farm magazines</th>
<th>Goal agreement score</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Low (1)</td>
<td>Medium (2)</td>
<td>High (3)</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neither read</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>75.0</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>18.1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Husband doesn't, wife does</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>42.8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Husband does, wife doesn't</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>61.3</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both read</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>68.1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>19.1</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

aData from the 1956 survey of the treatment and control sample, 338 pairs of husbands and wives.

magazines. The table does not give evidence that there is a difference in the agreement score according to whether or not husbands and/or wives get their information from farm papers and magazines. For example, the proportion of those husbands and wives where neither read farm papers and magazines who had a low agreement score (75.0%) was similar to the proportion with low agreement scores of couples where both read farm papers and magazines (68.1%).

However, a further relationship between goal agreement
and whether or not husbands and/or wives get information from farm papers and magazines is illustrated in Table 33. The proportion of husbands and wives (72.2%) with low goal agreement in which neither or the wife only gets information from farm papers and magazines is higher than the proportion of husbands and wives (62.2%) wherein both or husband only get information from farm papers and magazines. In contrast, the proportion of husbands and wives (13.5%) having high goal agreement wherein both or the husband only gets information from farm papers and magazines, is greater than the proportion of husbands and wives (8.8%) having high goal agreement wherein neither or the wife gets information from farm papers and magazines. These examples seem to indicate there is a difference in goal agreement according to whether or not husbands and/or wives get information from farm papers and magazines. At the .05 level with 2 d.f. $X^2 = 5.99$; however, 5.11 $X^2$ obtained approaches significance. It appears there are differences although not statistically significant. The null hypotheses is not rejected.

Summary of Tentative Conclusions

The null hypothesis, there will be no relationship between the decision-making "togetherness" score of husbands and wives and their goal agreement score, was rejected. The value of coefficient of correlation .1138 + with 338 d.f. is
Table 33. Distribution of husband-wife goal agreement scores according to whether neither or wife only, or both or husband only get information from farm papers and magazines.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of information, farm magazines and papers</th>
<th>Goal agreement score</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Low (1)</td>
<td>Medium (2)</td>
<td>High (3)</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neither or wife only</td>
<td>N  %</td>
<td>N  %</td>
<td>N  %</td>
<td>N  %</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>57 72.2</td>
<td>15 19.</td>
<td>7 8.8</td>
<td>79 100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both or husband only</td>
<td>162 62.2</td>
<td>62 24.3</td>
<td>35 13.5</td>
<td>259 100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

aData from the 1956 survey of the treatment and control sample, 338 pairs of husbands and wives.

statistically significant at the .05 level (non-directional test).

The null hypothesis, there is no difference in the goal agreement scores among husbands and wives who had educational training in the farm and home development program and husbands and wives who had no educational training in the farm and home development program, was not rejected. However, the treatment counties indicate a more consistent pattern of increase in goal agreement over the four year period than the control counties. The percentage change ranged from 7.4% + increase to 31.8% +, while the control counties ranged from
20.0% - increase to 32.1% + increase. Similar findings were obtained in testing the null hypothesis there is no difference in the goal agreement change score among husbands and wives who had educational training in the farm and home development program and husbands and wives who had no educational training in the farm and home development program. This hypothesis was not rejected. There is a similarity in the proportion of husbands and wives in the treatment and control groups in each of the goal agreement change score categories (see Table 20), but an examination of the individual counties in Table 19 indicates there is far more similarity among the treatment counties than the control counties within each of the goal agreement change categories. For example, among the treatment counties, in the "3" category of goal agreement change, the range in the proportion of husbands and wives for the treatment counties is from 43.9% to 59.5%, while in the control counties the range is from 25.9% to 80.0%.

The sum of means of goal agreement change also indicates the treatment counties made greater change in goal agreement than the control counties even though the difference is not significant. The sum of means for goal agreement change in the treatment counties is 2.5879, and the sum of means for the control counties was .4425.

The empirical hypothesis in relation to the length of time married was not rejected. The value of the coefficient
of correlation, .0422+, is not statistically significant at the .05 level. However, there is a suggestion from the data that age of wife, and presumably number of years couple has been married, may make some difference with regard to the degree of goal agreement of husband and wife. Couples in which the wife was in the youngest age category (24-26 years of age) and in the oldest age category included in this study (38 and over) were more likely to have low goal agreement scores than couples in other age categories. Among couples with high goal agreement scores, the lowest proportion was also in these two age categories (24-26 and 38 and over) with wives in the age group of 33-35 also in a lower proportion.

The null hypothesis there is no difference in the goal agreement score of husbands and wives according to the degree of their cooperation with the farm and home development program was not rejected. However, combining the husband-wife categories estimated as having poor and fair cooperation in one group and those estimated as having good or very good cooperation in another group suggested that the relationship was in the expected direction, that the greater the degree of the husband's and wife's cooperation with the farm and home development program, the higher will be their goal agreement score. There was a higher proportion of husbands and wives having high goal agreement whose cooperation was estimated as good or very good, and there was a higher proportion of
husbands and wives having low goal agreement whose cooperation was estimated as poor or fair. (See Table 18)

The null hypothesis there is no difference in the goal agreement scores according to whether or not husbands and/or wives get information from farm papers and magazines was not rejected. However, according to Table 33, there was a higher proportion of husbands and wives having low goal agreement wherein neither or wife only obtained information from farm papers and magazines, and a lower proportion of husbands and wives having high goal agreement wherein neither or wife only obtained information from farm papers and magazines. The reverse was true as far as both or husband only get information from farm magazines and papers. There was a lower proportion of husbands and wives having a low goal agreement wherein both or husbands only obtained information from farm magazines and papers, and among those couples having high goal agreement, there was a higher proportion of husbands and wives having high goal agreement wherein both or husband only obtained information from farm magazines and papers. It appears there are differences in goal agreement according to whether neither or wife only, or both, or husband only get information from farm papers and magazines, although the difference is not statistically significant.
DISCUSSION

In the following section a general discussion relative to the present study will be presented, along with implications for future research. Selected data included in the ANALYSIS OF DATA chapter of this thesis will form a basis for drawing conclusions.

An important finding of this study is the significant relationship between making decisions together and goal agreement. It was hypothesized: husbands and wives who jointly make decisions will exhibit greater goal agreement than those who do not make decisions jointly. A coefficient of correlation computed to determine whether or not a linear relationship existed between the goal agreement score and the couple's decision-making "togetherness" score was $0.1138^+$, with 338 d.f. this is statistically significant at the .05 level (data from the 1956 survey of the treatment and control samples, based on 338 pairs of husbands and wives). The significant coefficient of correlation confirms the hypothesis.

"Togetherness" in making decisions implies that communication has taken place and a discussion has been pursued until there is a consensus of feeling. Communication in exploring problems, formulating goals and "togetherness" in making decisions contributes to the shared feelings, meanings and understandings between husband and wife, each becoming
more fully aware of the alternatives the other knows about and their feelings relative to the alternatives so that even though the husband and wife separately list goals (as they did in this study) there is a higher probability of goal agreement.

The hypothesis that there is a linear relationship between husband-wife similarity of education and goal agreement is not statistically significant, nor was the hypothesis that among couples with the same number of years of education the greater the number of years of education, the higher the goal agreement score. Grades in school completed is the measure of education used in this study.

In accounting for a non-significant relationship between similarity and level of education and goal agreement it may be necessary to consider informal as well as formal education. As pointed out in the theoretical development of this study, values are the criteria by which goals are selected. Values are derived from the social and physical environment within the culture. A formal education is received within a particular culture, and applied in relation to the past experiences of the individual in that culture. Even though there is a similarity in formal grades accomplished the culture may impose a basis for dissimilar values. Informal education derived from the social and physical environment probably needs to be included in the measure of education in
testing the relationship between goal agreement and similarity of education. To measure informal education presents problems in social research.

It was hypothesized that the length of time married would be associated with the goal agreement score. The assumption was made that the age of the wife could be used as an indication of the length of time married. This hypothesis was not confirmed.

Collection of data may have a function in the non-significant relationship between length of time married and goal agreement in the kinds of probes received in listing goals. In the open-end response, it was indicated to the respondents:

A person of your age and experience often has a number of important things you are working toward--things you want to do. For example, things you would like to do in your own personal life, your farm, your household, your family and your community. (22)

And then they were asked, "As you see it now, what things seem to be most important in your life?" This probe provided the stimulus for the respondents to list goals.

In addition, goal selection was made through a forced-choice response from a list of fifteen goals printed on a card. It appears that the respondents in the open-end response were probed to list either short-term or intermediate goals. "As you see it now, what things seem to be most
important in your life?" would seem to indicate they were probed to list goals that were of paramount importance "now". The fifteen goals printed on the card seem to have the nature of short-term or intermediate goals. According to the Malones, long-term goals have these characteristics:

Important goals are at the highest level like landmarks on the horizon, giving us a sense of direction. One of these higher goals might be to have each member of the family develop a well-rounded personality... Or they may say that an important goal is for each member of the family to be a good citizen and live a useful life.

These are among the long-time or ultimate goals. If strongly held, they guide the setting of many intermediate goals that lead toward them. (29, p. 31)

In relation to intermediate goals, the Malones say:

When people are asked to list their important goals, many they set down may really be intermediate ones, important but often not of the highest level. Some common ones that fall in this group are:

To own a farm of our own
To provide a good education for our children
To prepare for old age and retirement
To be free from debt

While these goals are important to the individual, they are intermediate in nature. (29, p. 31)

A scrutiny of the fifteen goals listed on the card from which the respondents selected five (see page 96 of this study), reveal a similarity to the above intermediate-term goals listed by Malones. A similar study of the categories into which the listing of goals in the open-end response were
placed (see the appendix) reveals a high similarity to the intermediate-term goals listed by the Malones. According to the Malone's criteria, out of the fifty-one goal categories in the open-end response, probably six could be categorized as long-term goals (raising my children to be good citizens, raising my children to be good Christians, raise level and/or standard of living, security—financial and other, be a success as a person and/or parent, and gain and maintain the respect of people outside the family).

If we make the assumption that there are short, intermediate and long-term goals, the issue may be raised as to the relationship between the length of time married and goal agreement according to the type of goal. If the husband-wife pair had understood the meaning of and difference between short, intermediate and long term goals and had listed goals according to these three categories, would there have been a different relationship between goal agreement and length of time married? It would seem to the author of this research that if husband and wife were selecting long-term goals, agreement would be greater than if they were selecting short-term or intermediate goals because of role differentiation.

It is suggested by some authorities that husbands and wives may assume responsibilities in keeping with the concept each has of the role he occupies, and that each may make a separate contribution to a complementary whole. A contribution
made to a complementary whole is not the whole, so that in role differentiation goals selected probably have the nature of an intermediate-term goal, and the long-term or over-all goals probably include the intermediate-term goals and comprise the complementary whole.

According to Blood, role differentiation is acquired before marriage; from early childhood the bride and groom have observed the standardized model of their own parents and of parents generally--the model of traditional role differentiation along sex lines. Blood says,

In the process of being brought up, there has usually been explicit training--especially for the girl--for the tasks that she will perform when she becomes a wife and mother in her own right. So by both informal and formal socialization, the husband and wife have been prepared to enter marriage with similar expectations about how they will divide up their duties. (8, p. 69)

Role differentiation, according to Blood, is an aspect that also develops from the internal dynamics of family living--gradually the members become specialists along differentiated but complementary lines, and each person comes to perform those tasks for which he has the greatest skill and resources. The collaboration of young husbands and wives in household tasks stems not only from their need for assistance but their enjoyment of doing new things together. Eventually after competences have been tested and love has been tested and accepted, Blood says the married pair can express
their love through each one's separate contribution to a complementary whole. Husbands and wives tend to be specialists who complement rather than duplicate each other's work (8).

Role differentiation is also depicted by Kenkel (24) in his description of the developmental tasks of a husband and a wife. Kenkel suggests there are developmental tasks associated with their life as a married pair, and at the same time developmental tasks concerned with the homemaker as an individual, and the husband as an individual:

. . . .Special demands are placed on the woman as a mother, apart from the broad tasks as a parent she shares with her husband. She is also a homemaker. She has a responsibility to herself to grow as an individual. (24, p. 374)

The developmental tasks of the man of the family, apart from the broad tasks he shares with his wife are described by Kenkel as:

The man of the family has several selves. He is the father to his children, the husband to his wife, and the one who has the primary responsibility for obtaining the family income. He has a role in the family as homemaker in that almost always he is expected to assume responsibility for some work around the home. The man also has developmental tasks associated with continuing to develop himself as an individual. (24, p. 377)

The assumption may be made that individuals are predominantly concerned with the immediate or near immediate
situation. In a listing or selection of goals by husband and wife, the goals generally represented the short-term or intermediate-term goals rather than the long-term goals described by Malone (29, p. 31). It may be anticipated that the husband and wife spontaneously listing or selecting goals would do so in keeping with their near future or immediate concerns as represented by their differentiated roles, so that while the goals selected or listed may complement, agreement on the goals per se may not be high. Complementarity in goal selection does not represent incompatibility between the husband and wife--they may be in high agreement as to the long-term goals.

It may be that the ultimate in goal agreement is not high goal agreement on short-term or intermediate-term goals if we think of the contribution that can be made to family living through specialization along differentiated but complementary lines. The ultimate in goal agreement may be concerned with the over-all or long-term goals wherein maximum goal agreement is to be desired realizing that long-term goals are comprised of short-term and intermediate goals. The allocation of resources is probably of more concern in a situation of differentiated roles than in a situation where "all" decisions in a family are made jointly. However, the husband and wife may still list short-term and intermediate-term goals realizing that certain priorities take precedence.
Another factor to consider in the non-significant relationship between length of time married and goal agreement is the operational definition of length of time married used in this study. It was assumed that the age of the wife could be used as a measure. The ages of the wives were categorized into seven groups: wives 23 years of age and below (omitted because there were no respondents in this category in this study), the next four groups each included a span of three years (24-26, 27-29, 30-32, and 33-35), and the sixth group included a span of two years (36-37) with the seventh group including wives 38 years of age and over (this group included 21 women). It seems that in order to make a valid test as to length of time married in relation to goal agreement between husband and wife, there needs to be a greater time span than two or three years in each category, and that the categories need to cover a greater portion of the married life than is covered by this study.

Collaboration between husbands and wives in joint decision-making and carrying out plans probably varies, and husbands and wives probably vary in the extent of role differentiation and specialization. It also seems highly probable that the husband and wife may make joint decisions and then assume differentiated roles in carrying out plans. Future research in this area would be worthwhile. It may be that in the farm and home development program, couples who received
training in the management program may have identified problems and formulated goals that were intermediate in nature. This was a training program in which supposedly differentiated roles may have been at a minimum in the formulation of goals but the situation reversed in the carrying out of plans. In addition, there may still have been differentiated roles aside from the farm and home development program in which the husband and wife still assumed responsibility and made separate decisions which involved goals of a short-term and intermediate nature.

Reinforcing the differentiated roles of husband and wife, are the numerous alternatives available. Change is an aspect of contemporary living, in an affluent society with numerous choices available. With the availability of many choices, the probability of goal agreement is less than if the choices were fewer.

It seems that future research concerned with these problems and questions would make a valuable contribution to family living.

Statistical tests concerned with the Influence of Training on Goal Agreement and Goal Agreement Change were not statistically significant. As was pointed out earlier, the farm and home development program focuses on management; and clarification and understanding of family goals is a function of management. In this study educational training in the farm
and home development program is considered an empirical measure of training in the joint formulation of goals. Analysis of variance computed to test whether or not there was a difference in the goal agreement scores of husbands and wives who had educational training in the farm and home development program and husbands and wives who had no educational training in the farm and home development program was not statistically significant, as was the analysis of variance test as to whether there was a difference in goal agreement change. Coefficients of correlation computed for testing the linear relationship between goal agreement and goal agreement change and involvement of learners in and their attitude towards an educational program concerned with clarification and formulation of family goals were negative. Chi square and analysis of variance tests computed for testing whether or not a difference existed in goal agreement and goal agreement change among the treatment counties as administered by different educators were also negative.

Even though statistical tests concerned with the Influence of Training on Goal Agreement and Goal Agreement Change were not statistically significant, yet it seems to the author of this research there is still an important finding and an indication that an educational program which focuses on a joint formulation of goals can result in greater goal agreement and greater change in goal agreement between husband and
wife. This hypothesis is confirmed by the fact that in all of the treatment counties there was an over-all positive percentage change in goal agreement between 1956 and 1960. Two of the control counties were negative in goal agreement change between 1956 and 1960, while all five of the treatment counties were positive. The highest positive change occurred in a control county, 32.1 per cent, as compared with the next highest positive change in a treatment county of 31.8 per cent. However, in the treatment counties goal agreement between husband and wife ranged from a positive 7.4 per cent increase between 1956 and 1960 to a positive 31.8 per cent increase, while the control counties ranged from a negative 20.0 per cent increase to a positive 32.1 per cent increase.

In testing for whether or not a significant difference existed in goal agreement among the counties, the procedure followed in the computation of the analysis of variance was to find the difference in goal agreement between 1956 and 1960 for each husband-wife pair, algebraically add the difference, and divide by the total husband-wife pairs to derive a mean. This procedure was followed for each of the three communities for both treatment and control counties. After these means were derived the analysis of variance was computed. The means for the treatment counties were all positive (.4231, .0962, .9494, 1.0358 and .0834) while three of the control counties had negative means (-.8888, -.2000, 0.2500, 1.2000,
.9917 and -.6945). The sum of means for all treatment counties was 2.5879, and the sum of means for the control counties was .4425. The means indicate the treatment counties made greater change in goal agreement than the control counties even though the difference is not significant.

In addition to the treatment counties making greater change, the change made in goal agreement is more consistent among the five treatment counties than among the five control counties. This is evidenced in the positive agreement change in the treatment counties from 1956 to 1960 (7.4 per cent positive increase to 31.8 per cent positive increase) as compared with the agreement change in the control counties (20.0 per cent minus increase to 32.1 per cent positive increase). Evidence is also contained in Table 19 which indicates that among the treatment counties, in the "3" category of goal agreement change, the range in the proportion of husbands and wives for the treatment counties is from 43.9 per cent to 59.5 per cent, while in the control counties the range is from 25.9 per cent to 80.0 per cent.

Other data in this study suggest there is a positive relationship between training and involvement in the management process and goal agreement. The test of the empirical hypothesis husbands and wives who had educational training in the farm and home development program will be higher agreement on goals than husbands and wives who had no
educational training in the farm and home development program did not yield statistically significant results. However, combining the husband-wife categories estimated as having poor and fair cooperation with the farm and home development program in one group and those estimated as having good or very good cooperation in another group suggested that the relationship was in the expected direction. There was a higher proportion of husbands and wives having high goal agreement whose cooperation with the farm and home development program was estimated as good or very good (12.5%) than husbands and wives whose cooperation was estimated as poor or fair (8.8%). And there was a higher proportion of husbands and wives having low goal agreement whose cooperation was estimated as poor or fair (56.0%) than husbands and wives whose cooperation was estimated good or very good (44.5%). (See Table 18.)

Cooperation of respondents categorized as good or very good suggests that these husbands and wives were involved to a greater extent in the farm and home development program and in training in the management process than husbands and wives who were categorized as having poor and fair cooperation. The fact that a higher proportion of husbands and wives categorized as having high goal agreement were categorized as having good or very good cooperation suggests that training and involvement in the management process is related to goal agreement.
The findings just reported are not statistically significant, yet it seems there is a result not entirely due to chance which is sufficient to warrant future research in connection with General Hypothesis 2: husbands and wives who have had training and involvement in the management process will have higher goal agreement than husbands and wives who have had little or no training in the management process.

If future research concerned with the management process wherein families receive help in formulation of joint goals is to be valid and meaningful, it would seem that more effective controls should be utilized with the treatment and control groups. In the Iowa Agriculture and Home Economics Experiment Station Project No. 1278 from which data for this study were taken, controls were exercised in the determination and selection of counties appropriate for the survey. Those counties which had no farm and home development programs and would probably not initiate extensive farm and home development programs within the next four years were the potential for the control counties. However, the Extension Service educators who administered the traditional Extension program in the control counties may have been a source of contamination in the study. Extension Service educators are generally aware of the farm and home development program, and many have been actively engaged in its promotion. Today more college classes are being taught in management. While
Extension workers in the control counties did not initiate farm and home development programs, the thinking of these educators may have been oriented to management so that in their educational programs and personal contacts the control families may have been influenced.

Husbands and wives in treatment and control groups generally increased in goal agreement between 1956 and 1960. While this may be a normal development, the coefficient of correlation between length of time married and goal agreement was not significant. Increased goal agreement in both treatment and control groups may indicate a contamination of the control sample.

Change in goal agreement in both treatment and control counties may partially be accounted for by the informal training received through participation in the selection and listing of goals by husbands and wives in the survey questionnaire (open-end and forced-choice response). In this situation, formal training in goal formulation was not purposive. However, focusing on their goals to the extent of listing them may have been sufficient for husbands and wives in both the treatment and control counties afterwards to discuss the goals they listed and selected with one another. This could have been followed by an informal analysis of goals toward which they as a family were most concerned in achieving so that after a four year period when the same questionnaire and
procedure was administered again, the husband-wife pairs could have been in greater goal agreement.

The question may be raised as to how well the Extension personnel in the treatment counties were prepared to administer the farm and home development program. The traditional Extension method is subject matter oriented with emphasis on demonstrations, while the farm and home development program is "family centered", with some of the work being accomplished in groups. Working with families in helping them to identify problems, to consider their goals, needs and wants, and, from among alternatives available to them, to develop a family program of an integrated kind, requires skills on the part of an educator that is not required in the traditional Extension approach.

Also, the question may be asked, "Did the Extension Service educators consistently follow through on a program that would implement the objectives of the Farm and Home Development program?" Were they aware of the method to use that would most effectively accomplish the seven-part sequence as delineated by Beal:

However, the farm and home development approach has three specific objectives. These are: to educate the family:

1. to set family goals
2. to make full use of talents and opportunities
3. to manage well
G. To implement these objectives, the farm and home development idea proposes that the county will initiate a seven part sequence. This sequence will be used to teach families how to:

1. consider their goals, needs and wants
2. appraise their resources and opportunities
3. analyze alternatives available to them
4. select the most appropriate choice among the alternatives
5. develop a family program and plan of an integrated kind:
   a. a farming plan
   b. a homemaking plan
   c. a family development plan
   d. a family security plan
6. select and use the combination of practices and ideas needed to put the plan into use
7. evaluate and adjust the plan (5, p. 6-7)

There is no evidence of consistent intensive training in the farm and home development program. The wide variation in the number of group meetings attended, farm visits, minutes spent in farm visits and other contacts indicate there was not a logical, sequential organization in accomplishing farm and home development objectives. In the farm and home development method, small group meetings are an integral part in helping husband-wife pairs to analyze problems, to take a look at their needs, wants and objectives, and to formulate goals. Ninety-five pairs of husbands and wives attended no group meetings, and this ranged up to 2 pairs of husbands and wives attending 13-14 total group meetings. The fact that one half of the husband-wife pairs
attended no meetings provides a basis for questioning the effectiveness of the training received in the farm and home development method.

Seventy-three pairs of husbands and wives received between 0 and 4 total farm visits, while 92 husband-wife pairs received between 5-8 total farm visits. These farm visits took place over a period of four years (1956-1960), so that 73 husband-wife pairs received an average of one farm visit per year at the most, and 92 husband-wife pairs received an average of two farm visits a year at the most. One is led to question whether or not this much contact would have an influence in changing patterns of behavior on the part of the learnee. As far as goal agreement is concerned, a greater number of farm visits did not have a profound effect. Three husband-wife pairs received between 17 and 20 farm visits, two of these husband-wife pairs were categorized as having low goal agreement. Were these visits part of a specific organized plan of the educators for accomplishing the objectives of the farm and home development program in which evaluation was an integral on-going part in determining whether or not their goals were being attained?

One to 200 minutes were spent in total farm visits with 86 of the husband-wife pairs. Translating minutes to hours, the maximum of 200 minutes represents three and one third hours at the most spent with almost half of the respondents.
Over a period of four years how effective could this be in changing patterns and ways of doing things on the part of the respondents? Data obtained on the number of "other" contacts referred to telephone and office calls to the county Extension office relative to the farm and home development program. Thirty had no other contacts, and 119 had between 1-10 contacts. Again, in looking at the long-range situation, how effective is even the maximum number of contacts in effecting respondent change?

The question is also raised as to whether or not the husband and wife were both involved in the various contacts Extension Service had with the family relative to the farm and home development program. It was hypothesized: Husbands and wives who had management training will have higher goal agreement and higher positive goal agreement change than husbands and wives who received no such training. In order for the hypothesis to be valid, both husband and wife would have to be involved in the management training process wherein goals are jointly formulated. In understanding why the coefficients of correlation were not significant as to the relationship between training and involvement and goal agreement, one may find an explanation in the differential degree of participation of both husbands and wives in the farm and home development program.

The null hypothesis there is no difference in the goal
agreement score according to whether or not husbands and/or wives get information from farm papers and magazines was not rejected. However, according to Table 33 there was a higher proportion of husbands and wives having low goal agreement wherein neither or wife only obtained information from farm papers and magazines, and a lower proportion of husbands and wives having high goal agreement wherein neither or wife only obtained information from farm papers and magazines. The reverse was true as far as both or husband only get information from farm magazines and papers. There was a lower proportion of husbands and wives having a low goal agreement wherein both or husbands only obtained information from farm magazines and papers, and among those couples having high goal agreement, there was a higher proportion of husbands and wives having high goal agreement wherein both or husband only obtained information from farm magazines and papers. It appears there are differences in goal agreement according to whether neither or wife only, or both or husband only get information from farm papers and magazines although the difference is not statistically significant.

This suggests an area for further study, i.e., as to how the husband and wife get their information in relation to goal
agreement. Does the manner in which the husband and wife get information have a relationship to their goal agreement?

With regard to the gathering of data for this study, a question may be raised as to the validity of the method of listing or selecting goals. Placing a list of goals before the respondents from which they selected five in an order of importance to them, is a structured situation. By what criteria can one determine whether or not the most vital and important goals towards which families strive were included and can be incorporated in a list of fifteen? Or, how much influence would the order of listing and presentation have on the respondents? It would seem that the method in which the respondents spontaneously indicated those things most important to them, would result in a more valid selection of goals. However, it seems that a spontaneous listing of goals would include those things which quickly came to mind and may not include less tangible and long-term goals.

In the chapter on Theory and Hypotheses it was stated that ends or goals are selected in the context of a situation. It may be questioned also whether or not husbands and wives would list or select the same goals in an artificial situation that they would in an actual situation.
SUMMARY

The objectives in undertaking this study were: (1) to study goal agreement between husbands and wives in relation to selected characteristics and to training received in clarification and formulation of goals; (2) to construct a possible rationale or logic for goal agreement and goal agreement change between husbands and wives; (3) to develop an instrument for measuring goal agreement; (4) and to test the validity of the constructed rationale for goal agreement and change in goal agreement by analyzing goal agreement and goal agreement change according to selected variables.

Data for this study were taken from the Iowa Agriculture and Home Economics Experiment Station Project No. 1278, Evaluation of the Iowa Extension Farm Family Development Program. The purpose of the project was to evaluate the relative effectiveness of the farm and home development educational approach when compared with the traditional Extension educational approach. The dependent variable of the present study, goal agreement between husband and wife, is essentially a post-factum variable.

Data were collected from five representative farm areas in Iowa. Within each type of farming area a treatment county (randomly drawn) was paired with a control county (randomly drawn) so that the two counties were as nearly alike as possible. Two home surveys (one in 1956 and a later one in
1960) were made by trained interviewers with farm families randomly drawn from the designated counties. Only farm families which consisted of an operator and a homemaker who were husband and wife and in which the operator was under 38 years of age were used. In this study, the sample includes those respondents in the treatment and control counties in which both husband and wife selected goals (by both open-end and forced-choice responses) in 1956 and 1960. The sample for this study in its totality includes 338 pairs of husbands and wives, 208 pairs from the treatment counties. Respondents in the treatment counties received the farm and home development program, and respondents in the control counties received the traditional Extension educational approach.

Values are the antecedent of goals, they represent a compelling force and are the motivation for those things which are imperative and necessary that an individual do. Values are developed through interaction with the variables in the environment and are affected by one's socialization in a particular society. The values of an individual may be thought of as having a position on a continuum and a place in the hierarchy of his values. Values have a dynamic impact upon the actions of the individual, and serve as a reference point or guide for his action. Values are the criteria by which goals are selected.

In keeping with his values and in the context of a
situation, the individual strives towards ends, objectives or goals. Some goals may be described as being broad, comprehensive and sought after over a long period of time and as a consequence are ever present, while some goals are specific, of short duration, recur frequently and are immediately attainable. Because goals have these characteristics, some authorities hold that goals can be classified according to different levels of ultimate importance, and they make the designations of long-run, intermediate and short-run goals—goals on lower levels are stepping stones to more important goals.

To visualize their goals in an order or a hierarchy or to categorize their goals as long, intermediate and short-run may be difficult or impossible for a family without particular attention and reflective study. The family lives in an environment which provides motivation for a change in goals; in addition, factors inherent within the family also provide the motivation for change in the objectives pursued. Goal agreement between two individuals indicates a similarity in the kinds of goals selected and a priority of importance of one goal to the other.

Taking the attitude of another individual toward himself or taking the generalized attitude of the group so that he himself plays his role according to expectations are means of deriving or assimilating values. In so far as the individual
takes the attitude of the other and allows the attitude of the other to guide his conduct, he adopts the standpoint of the other and develops values. As the individual takes or assumes the organized social attitudes of the given social group or community (or sub-section thereof) to which he belongs or to which he relates, allowing the organized attitude of the group to guide his conduct, he adopts or develops values of that group. An individual not only has values which he holds in common with the social group or society to which he belongs and with other individuals, but because he is different from everyone else he holds values peculiar to himself.

The extent to which the values of a husband and wife vary is influenced by the similarity or difference of the cultures or sub-cultures of the family in which they were reared. With values as the criteria by which goals are selected in a particular situation, a husband and wife from different families, or from families of different cultures and sub-cultures, may be expected to select goals which differ in varying proportions.

This study was concerned with selected variables that would seem to affect the similarity of the value system of the spouses, and would thus have an influence on goals selected and the extent of goal agreement between husband and wife. Independent variables selected for study in relation
to goal agreement between husband and wife were: (1) personal characteristics (similarity of education, similarity and level of education, length of time married and whether or not husbands and wives make decisions together); and (2) training received in clarification and formulation of goals (educational training in management, involvement of learners, attitude of learners, and effectiveness of educators).

Similarity in education contributes to common verbal ability and communication skills, and common verbal ability is a means of increased common meanings, understandings and shared feelings between husband and wife. Similarity in education also contributes to common experience, whereby interaction and communication is facilitated. Higher levels of similar education usually result in higher levels of ability in self-expression and communication. With increased facility of expression and communication, the husband and wife have the tools for increased thinking and exploring of alternatives.

In this study personality is viewed as a process, capable of modification. Behavior is modifiable through interaction with the physical and social environment, but within limits of individual consistency. Values change by the same process that values are acquired originally. Theory presented in this study suggests that among compatible spouses the processes of identification, empathy, social rewards, and striving toward
consonance would produce over time a similarity of beliefs and values of husband and wife. While individual differences among people may contaminate the relationship between the passage of time and the development of similarity of values, it is assumed that the passage of time and the interaction thereby made possible are strong factors in the production of value-similarity between spouses.

Theory presented in this study suggested that joint selection of goals suggests either original agreement on goals or the development of some degree of agreement through the selection process. Joint husband-wife decision-making would seem to provide an opportunity for the spouses to share opinions, make projections into the future, bring past experiences to bear and make a decision concerned with the present and future. In the event of differing opinions, the process of jointly making a decision, provides the opportunity to air different and possibly contradictory goals, make compromises or effect conversions, and to arrive at a stage of consensus.

Management is a function of social units and institutions, and within the different areas in which it takes place, some of the common denominators are: goals or objectives, resources, and the decision-making process. Goal clarification is a starting point in management. Management wherein goals and their attainment is the focus of attention, would
render assistance to husbands and wives in an increased awareness of goals they consider to be most important, and the relationship of other goals to these.

The farm and home development program focuses on management. It was assumed in this study that respondents who participated in the farm and home development program received training in management.

Hypotheses derived from the theoretical development of this study are:

Over-all general hypothesis: there will be varying degrees of agreement in the goals selected by husbands and wives.

General Hypothesis 1: husbands and wives who have high agreement on goals will have certain characteristics that differentiate them from husbands and wives with low agreement on goals.

General Hypothesis 2: husbands and wives who have had training and involvement in the management process will have higher goal agreement than husbands and wives who have had little or no training in the management process.

General Hypothesis 3: husbands and wives who have had training and involvement in the management process will have made higher positive change in goal agreement than husbands and wives who have had little or no training in the management process.

In a study concerned with goal agreement between husband and wife, an instrument for measuring goal agreement was needed. According to the knowledge of the author of this study, no such instrument has been developed. In arriving at an instrument that would be valid in measuring goal
agreement when goals were selected by the forced-choice response (from a list of fifteen goals respondents selected five in an order of importance to them), three instruments were developed, "A", "B", and "C". The statistical test to determine whether or not the three instruments were similar in their measurement was the product moment coefficient of correlation. Correlations indicate that the instruments are comparable in their measurement of agreement, with a high degree of comparability in the measurement of goal agreement by the instruments that take into account both the goals that appeared on lists of husbands and wives and the order of choice.

The measurement of goal agreement based on goals elicited in response to the open-end response presented a different situation. The total number of goals a pair could list was unlimited, and no rank order was obtained for the goals named in response to the open-end question. In the development of this instrument, it was recognized that the greater the number of goals listed, the greater the probability that husband and wife would list similar goals. The number of agreed-upon goals was divided by the total number of goals listed by husband and wife. Percentages of agreement were categorized and designated as "excellent", "average", and "poor" agreement, and assigned scores of "3", "2" and "1" respectively.

In each of the two surveys, goals were solicited from
each of the husbands and wives both by an open-end response, and a forced-choice response. In the interest of keeping this study from becoming involved and unwieldy, goal selection by the open-end response was utilized as the means of studying goal agreement and goal agreement change.

In this study the assumption was made that a linear relationship exists between goal agreement and certain selected variables. The goal agreement score of husband and wife in the open-end response is on a continuum. Independent variables paired with the agreement scores are also on continua, i.e., similarity of education, level of education, length of time married and the numerical score reflecting "togetherness" in making decisions. Variables used to test for the effect of training and involvement in the management process are also on continua, i.e., participation in the farm and home development program as represented by attendance at group meetings, farm visits, time spent in farm visits, and "other" contacts with Extension personnel. To test the assumption that a linear relationship exists between goal agreement and certain selected variables, it is felt the product moment coefficient correlation was an appropriate statistical instrument to use.

In this study there was an interest in the association between the agreement score of husbands and wives and independent variables which are not on a continuum, such as whether or not a difference existed in goal agreement between
husband and wife among the treatment and control counties. It was felt that chi square was an appropriate statistical measure to use wherein the observations are independent and are not on a continuum.

In this study it was hypothesized that there would be a significant treatment effect, that respondents who received training and were involved in the management process would have higher goal agreement and a higher positive goal agreement change. It was believed analysis of variance was an appropriate instrument to use in testing the significance of the difference between treatment and control counties.

The respondents were all scored as to goal agreement and goal agreement change. Tables were set up whereby goal agreement according to selected variables are depicted. The distribution of goal agreement scores and goal agreement change scores according to certain characteristics were available in the tables for scrutiny, and supplemented the statistical measures of correlation, chi square and analysis of variance.

General null hypothesis 1, there is no difference in the goal agreement of husbands and wives having certain characteristics that differentiate them from other husbands and wives and the goal agreement of husbands and wives not having those characteristics, involved five specific hypotheses. The null hypothesis there will be no relationship between the
decision-making "togetherness" score of husbands and wives and their goal agreement score was rejected. Null hypotheses in relation to goal agreement between husbands and wives and the characteristics of similar education, level of education and length of time married were not rejected.

General null hypothesis 2, there is no difference in goal agreement among husbands and wives who have had training and involvement in the management process and husbands and wives who have had little or no training and involvement in the management process, involved seven specific hypotheses pertaining to goal agreement between husbands and wives in relation to their participation in the farm and home development program: whether or not husband and wife had educational training in the farm and home development program, group meetings attended, farm visits by Extension personnel, number of "other" contacts (office and telephone calls to the Extension office), estimation of husband-wife cooperation, and effectiveness of the farm and home development program administered by different Extension personnel. None of the seven null hypotheses was rejected. However, there was a positive increase in goal agreement between husbands and wives in all treatment counties between 1956 and 1960, while in the control counties there was a negative increase in goal agreement in two of the counties and the other three showed a positive increase. Computing the difference in goal
agreement between 1956 and 1960 for the treatment and control counties, the sum of means 2.5879 was obtained for the treat­
ment counties and the sum of means .4425 was obtained for the control counties. As indicated by the analysis of variance, 
there was not a significant difference among the counties 
according to treatment yet the figures derived from goal 
agreement scores computed in both treatment and control 
counties indicate the treatment counties made greater change 
in goal agreement than the control counties.

The null hypothesis there is no difference in the goal 
agreement score of husbands and wives according to the degree 
of their cooperation with the farm and home development pro­
gram was not rejected. However, combining the husband-wife 
categories estimated as having good or very good cooperation 
in another group suggested that the relationship was in the 
expected direction (see Table 18).

General null hypothesis 3, there is no difference in the 
positive goal agreement change of husbands and wives who have 
had training and involvement in the management process and 
husbands and wives who have had little or no training in the 
management process, involved seven specific hypotheses pert­
taining to the farm and home development program in relation 
to goal agreement change between husband and wife: whether 
or not husband and wife had educational training in the farm 
and home development program, group meetings attended, farm
visits by Extension personnel, number of minutes spent in farm visits by Extension personnel, number of "other" contacts (office and telephone calls to the Extension office), estimation of husband-wife cooperation, and effectiveness of the farm and home development program administered by different Extension personnel. None of the null hypotheses was rejected. However, the change in goal agreement scores between husbands and wives were more consistent among the treatment counties than among the control counties. For example, among the treatment counties, in the "3" category of goal agreement change, the range in the proportion of husbands and wives is from 43.9 per cent to 59.5 per cent, while in the control counties the range is from 25.9 per cent to 80. per cent (see Table 19).

General concepts for which no theoretical rationale was developed and which were used for exploratory purposes in making future predictions, involved six null hypotheses pertaining to goal agreement between husband and wife and the following variables: household type, socio-economic group, housewife's yearly earnings from employment off the farm, net family income, household plus farm assets, and whether or not husbands and wives get information from farm papers and magazines. None of the six null hypotheses was rejected.

The null hypothesis, there is no difference in the goal agreement score according to whether or not husbands and/or
wives get information from farm papers and magazines, was not rejected. However, there was a higher proportion of husbands and wives having low goal agreement wherein neither or wife only obtained information from farm papers and magazines, and there was a higher proportion of husbands and wives having high goal agreement wherein both or husband only obtained information from farm magazines and papers. It appears that there are differences in goal agreement according to whether neither or wife only, or both or husband only get information from farm papers and magazines although the difference is not statistically significant.
LITERATURE CITED


46. Wilkening, E. A. Adoption of improved farm practices as related to family factors. Wisconsin Agricultural Experiment Station Research Bulletin No. 183. 1953.


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The Categorization of Open-End Response Goals

Goals were solicited by both forced-choice and open-end response in the surveys conducted in 1956 and 1960 in the Iowa Agriculture and Home Economics Experiment Station Project No. 1278. A jury panel of six people categorized the goals obtained through the open-end response into a fifty-five item list. This list, which provided the key for coding goals listed by husbands and wives in the open-end response, are as follows:

February 27, 1963
Project 1278
Farm Family Goals
Key for coding open-end questions
of Farm and Home Development data

CHILDREN (Class A):
1. Raising my family
2. Raising my children to be good citizens
3. Raising my children to be healthy
4. Raising my children to be good Christians
5. Formal education for children
6. Special training or lessons for children (Music, sports, etc)

FAMILY (Class B):
7. Expand family
8. Happiness for family members
9. Maintain or improve family relations
10. Health maintenance or improvement (not specifying child rearing)
11. Doing things together as a family
12. Vacation
13. Travel
14. Raise level and/or standard of living
15. Keep "head above water" or "make a living".
16. Security -- financial and other
17. Making or maintaining a home
18. Increase in specific aspects of household production
19. Buy a car, airplane or boat

FARM (Class C):
20. Increase in rented or owned acreage
21. Increase in machinery and mechanization of farm (increase/or improvement)
22. Add to or improve farm buildings and/or fixed farm equipment
23. Increase in livestock (Increase/or improvement)
24. Improve or increase quality or productivity of farm enterprise(s)
25. Change in enterprise combination
26. Increase in use of labor

HOUSE (Class D):
27. Build or buy a house
28. Improve present house or fixed household equipment
29. Add to, improve, or replace movable home furnishing and equipment
30. Improve appearance of farmstead, including house exterior and surroundings of house and farm buildings

OCCUPATION (Class E):

31. Being successful in my business
32. Add or increase scale of supplementary occupation
33. Change in occupation
34. Selection of career
35. Advancement in position or rank on paid job.

PERSONAL (Class F):

36. Keep up to date on farming and/or homemaking
37. Change or improvement management of business or household
38. Personal improvement in knowledge, skills, appreciations, etc.
39. Be a success as a person and/or parent
40. Improve my ability as a husband (wife) and/or parent
41. Have more "social life" -- i.e., entertaining, parties, etc.
42. Have more leisure time and/or improve use of leisure
43. Gain and maintain the respect of people outside the family
44. Participation in organized group(s) -- i.e., church, school, farm organizations
45. Realization of community improvements, facilities, and other community concerns (not including statement about personal participation)

PROPERTY AND SAVINGS (Class G):

46. Increase money income
47. Reduce debts
48. Increase savings
49. Buy a farm
50. Save or prepare for retirement
51. Transfer property or savings to children or others (now or in future)

UNCLASSIFIED:
52. Apparent inability to express goal(s)
53. Extraneous statement
54. No reply given
55. No suitable code listed

Coding of Selected Data Gathered in the 1956 Survey

In this study general concepts for which no rationale was developed in the theoretical section, are used in an exploratory manner for the purpose of making future predictions as to their relation to goal agreement between husband and wife.

Data for these concepts were gathered in the 1956 survey (Iowa Agriculture and Home Economics Experiment Station Project No. 1278). Data collected for each of the concepts were divided into categories and assigned numerical ratings as follows:

Household type (From schedule, Women's Section)
0 - Couple only
1 - Couple and pre-school children
2 - Couple and school age children
3 - Couple and pre-school and school children
(21, p. 70)
Socio-Economic Score (From Card 23, cols. 51-52)

0 - 74 and below
1 - 75 to 78
2 - 79 to 82
3 - 83 to 85
4 - 86 to 87
5 - 88 to 89
6 - 90 and over

(21, p. 72)

Housewife's work Off Farm (From work sheet p. 1, item 12)

0 - $ 0
1 - 1 - $ 199
2 - 200 - 599
3 - 600 - 1,999
4 - 2,000 or more

(21, p. 75)

Net Family Income (From work sheet p. 2, item IV)

1 - $ 99,999 or less
2 - 100,000 - $101,499
3 - 101,500 - 103,499
4 - 103,500 - 104,499
5 - 104,500 - 107,999
6 - 108,000 or over

(21, p. 75)

Sources of Information

In the following, code blank if the source was not mentioned and code 1 if the source was mentioned in question 1

Farm papers and magazines (open-end women)
Farm papers and magazines (open-end men)

(21, p. 24 and 23)