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The Relationship of Competency as Part of the Self-Concept to Occupational Role: A Comparison Study of Females in Three Occupational Roles

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THE RELATIONSHIP OF COMPETENCY AS PART OF THE SELF-CONCEPT TO OCCUPATIONAL ROLE: A COMPARISON STUDY OF FEMALES IN THREE OCCUPATIONAL ROLES

by

Merry Carson Pattison

A Dissertation Submitted to the Faculty of The Graduate College in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Education Department of Counseling and Personnel

Western Michigan University Kalamazoo, Michigan April 1982
THE RELATIONSHIP OF COMPETENCY AS PART OF THE SELF-CONCEPT TO OCCUPATIONAL ROLE: A COMPARISON STUDY OF FEMALES IN THREE OCCUPATIONAL ROLES

Merry Carson Pattison, Ed.D.
Western Michigan University, 1982

It was the purpose of this study to examine the relationship between women's perception of self as being competent to occupational role.

Based on a review of the literature and research it was hypothesized that a relationship between occupational role and competency self-perceptions did exist. Also, it was hypothesized that there is a relationship between occupational role and the difference between perception of self and view of ideal self in competency. Finally, it was hypothesized that there is a relationship between occupational role and the discrepancy between perception of self and perception of typical women in competency skills.

The sample of this study was a group of 133 women in Kalamazoo County, Michigan, between the ages of 24 and 45 who represented three occupational roles of homemaking, clerical, and professional. The subjects responded to a demographic questionnaire and the Broverman Sex-Role Stereotype Questionnaire. The competency cluster items

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on the Broverman Sex-Role Stereotype Questionnaire were used as the basis for evaluating the subjects' self-perceptions related to competency.

Results of the study were that there was no evidence to indicate that occupational role has an influence on self-perceptions of competency. There was also no evidence to indicate that occupational role influences the discrepancy between ideal and real self-competency perceptions. There was, however, evidence to support that occupational role does have an influence on the discrepancy between women's perception of self as being competent and women's perception of the typical female's competency skills. Professional women saw themselves as more competent than typical women to a greater extent than the other two groups of subjects.

Conclusions and recommendations for future research were made.
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This study is dedicated to
Evelyn Blue Carson
whose awareness and struggle
to use her own strengths greatly
influenced the writing of this study.

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Merry Carson Pattison
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CHAPTER I

The Problem and Its Background

Women in the United States are experiencing demands and expanding options related to how they express themselves through work (Levitan, Mangum, & Marshall, 1972). There are various factors that have influenced the development of these options. Hoffman (1974) asserts that one of these factors is the development of improved birth control methods and population/ecological concerns. Secondly, technological advances have influenced the amount of time women expend in care of children and home (Rivers, Barnett, & Baruch, 1979). Thirdly, the life expectancy for women has dramatically increased in the last 46 years. Lastly, Levitan et al. (1972) conclude that economic necessity forces women into the labor force.

Hoffman (1974) suggests that following World War II, an expanding economy made larger families feasible and created greater job opportunities for women. At the same time, technological advances such as biomedical discoveries were changing the role of homemaker and making it less time demanding. An example of this change was the development of penicillin. In the past, a child with a streptococcus infection might be in quarantine for weeks, but with the development of antibiotics, a child could be
back in school within 2 or 3 days. Hoffman (1974) goes on to say that women responded to these social changes with either increasing numbers of children or paid employment and fewer children.

The Life Insurance Fact Book (1978) addresses the life expectancy issue for women. In 1930 women's average life expectancy was 61.6 years. By 1976 the average life expectancy for women had increased to 76.7 years of age. This added an average of 15 more years of potential economic need to women's lives.

Last of all, the United States Department of Labor statistics (1976) suggest that in 1975 46% of all women 16 years of age and over were in the labor force. It may be assumed that a large percentage of the remaining women were homemakers. In 1977 nearly two-thirds of women in the labor force worked to support themselves and their families or supplement family incomes of $10,000 or less. These statistics also suggested that the three major occupational roles for women included homemaking, clerical workers, and professional workers.

These changes in demands and options for women all indicate that the traditional work experience of homemaking is becoming less demanding on women's time and energy and economic necessity is forcing many women into the labor force. These societal pressures and changes interface with women's internal development and influence
women's changing values, beliefs, and behaviors (Miller, 1976).

Barnett and Baruch (1978), Connoly and Brunner (1974), and White (1959) all note the psychological need for individuals to develop and use skills within their social world. It is the development and use of skills that facilitates a person's self-esteem, a sense of mastery and competency. Competency has been recognized in the literature as the ability to interact effectively with the environment (White, 1959). According to Connoly and Bruner (1974), in any society there is a set of skills which is essential for coping with existing realities. White (1959) believes that human beings are characterized by a motivation to be competent. White calls this the effectance motive and feelings derived from the response to this motive are feelings of efficacy.

Wiggins, Renner, Clore, and Rose (1971) define competence as the skills needed to have power in one's world and incompetence at the extreme as a state of helplessness in which human beings are dependent on chance and whims of others.

Wiggins et al. (1971) write that the ability to perceive oneself as competent is a higher order process that is affected by both genotype and experience. The use of native intelligence to perceive, think, and act is interrelated with experiences within a person's world in the
development of competence. Wiggins et al. (1971) also assert that a part of the development of competence within the self-concept is learning what aspects of the environment one can be instrumental in controlling. Becoming competent is developing an "instrumentality of the self" (p. 411). The feelings, attitudes, and behaviors of competency are therefore dependent on one's efforts.

Barnett and Baruch (1978) and Wiggins et al. (1971) write that there is a relative nature to perceived competence. Competency skills are often subjective skills and not easily measured. Perception of competency involves social comparisons. Often there are not absolute standards and thus there is room for unreliability in competency judgments of the self. Furthermore, Wiggins et al. (1971) write that the context in which competency is being evaluated can change. There can be a movement from a less demanding environment to a more demanding environment. The perception of competency can be dependent on context and the ability to adapt.

Wiggins et al. assert that power influences the development of a perception of self as competent. People who feel power over others are capable of behaving in ways that produce certain outcomes. Less powerful people feel little control over their own rewards or punishments. Miller (1976) expands on the relationship of competency and power by labeling competency as the "capacity to
implement" (p. 116). Miller asserts that through the expression of this capacity to implement, power is obtained for the self and to influence others.

Even though the perception of self as being competent is a relative process that involves making social comparisons and resulting cognitions about one's skills, White (1959), Baruch (1973), and Rosenkrantz, Vogel, Bee, Broverman, and Broverman (1968) all suggest that this perception of self forms a basis for a sense of self-esteem. People who believe that they have skills necessary to be competent will also perceive themselves as worthwhile and powerful. People who perceive themselves as incompetent will also perceive themselves as helpless and weak. Wiggins et al. (1971) say that a lack of trust in one's competency is learned helplessness.

Rogers (1951) theorizes that perceptions of self evolve from external messages that have been integrated into the self-concept throughout the person's development. According to Rogers (1951), "As a result of interaction with the environment and particularly as a result of evaluational interaction with others, the structure of the self is formed" (p. 498).

Phenomenologists such as Maslow (1954), Rogers (1951), and Snygg and Combs (1949) as well as cognitive theorists such as Ellis (1962) agree that how human beings perceive and decode the world around them influences their
reality. People perceive their world differently and thus there will be variability in their reality and the behaviors that follow that reality. Thus, it is possible that in the case of competency the quality of the messages acquired and the form of competency that is reinforced are not adequate for the development of an inner sense of competency.

Rivers et al. (1979) assert that as women develop a sense of meaning in their lives there are confusing and conflicting messages as to what it means to be effective or competent. The physiological fact of women as child bearers is significant to their development of warmth and caretaking skills. Rivers et al. state that, "Girls often come out of the growing-up process with invaluable interpersonal skills, concern for others and a capacity for intimacy that is crucial in a time when alienation seems to be a national disease" (p. 19). However, these warmth-nurturant skills are not always valued as indicated by the social and economic status given homemakers, teachers of young children, and nurses.

Women also receive conflicting messages related to other skills besides the warmth-nurturant skills. Levitan et al. (1972) suggest that disparity in earnings between employed men and women and maldistribution of occupations by sex are symptomatic of social discrimination that influence the way women see themselves. In
1971, women's overall earnings ratio was two-thirds that of men and the majority of women were in jobs that had lower levels of responsibility and pay.

There has been a great deal of research to support differences in the development of young girls and boys. Hoffman (1972) suggests that very young and adolescent female children will have fewer models and less encouragement in their development of independence, competence, and self-confidence than will boys. Rosenkrantz et al. (1968) support these differences in their research on sex-role stereotypes and self-concepts in college students. Women have been consistently viewed as having less competency skills than men. Broverman, Broverman, Vogel, Clarkson, and Rosenkrantz (1970) later found that mental health workers saw women as less competent, more nurturing, and less mentally healthy than men. Rivers et al. (1979) conclude that the development of an instrumentality of the self in women may be conflictual. The conflict is between seeing themselves as competent and their own sexual identity.

According to O'Leary (1974), the conflicts related to competency may be expressed in fear of success and its accompanying fear of failure, sex-role conflict, and perceived consequences of occupational success as being negative. Within these conflicts women may sabotage their development of a self-perception of competency.
Attribution theory is also relevant to these conflicts. According to Deaux and Emnssiller (1974), women attribute successful experiences to external unstable causes such as luck or others' attraction to them. On the other hand, women attribute failures to internal stable causes such as lack of ability. Clance and Imes (1979) suggest that even when women are succeeding in their use of skills they may carry with them a sense of being imposters and that if others really knew, they would be aware of the lack of skills in these successful women. It can be concluded from this that a bias in women's perception, or a perceptual set, defends them against a more realistic appraisal of strengths and weaknesses and the ensuing self-understanding. Women can and often do create a no-win situation for themselves facilitated by the social discrimination of the society in which they live. They may not allow themselves feelings of efficacy and the related self-esteem that is part of a sense of competency.

In summary, in the area of female development there is a lack of understanding of how women integrate a sense of competency with their warmth-nurturant skills. While there is literature and research that is relevant to the background of this problem, there has been little research that assesses self-perceptions of competency in women who have made divergent choices in occupational roles. It is
the purpose of this study to explore self-perceptions of competency in relationship to occupational role.

Review of Related Research and Literature

Research and literature pertinent to this study are concerned with the following areas: definition and development of self-concept, definition and development of competency as part of the self-concept, women's development of competency as part of the self-concept, and occupational role and its relationship to competency as part of the self-concept.

Definition and development of self-concept. Phenomenologists have developed a framework in which to examine the development of a self-concept. Snygg and Combs (1949) wrote that each person lives in a private world "phenomenal field" that includes all that is experienced consciously by that person. Those experiences and the individual's reactions to them create a reality for the person. The person responds to that reality with attitudes, feelings, and behaviors. Those responses in turn influence and modify the perceived reality and this reality includes attitudes and feelings about the self. Thus, it follows that self-concepts are attitudes and beliefs about one's self.
Rogers (1951) and Snygg and Combs (1949) assert that individuals are creating and changing a reality that is moving toward independence and greater self-sufficiency. Rogers (1951) describes this movement in the following writing:

I find that the urge for a greater degree of independence, the desire for a self-determined integration, the tendency to strive, even through much pain, toward a socialized maturity, is as strong as--no, is stronger than--authority for assurance. . . . Clinically I find it to be true that though an individual may remain dependent because he has always been so, or may drift into dependence without realizing what he is doing, or may temporarily wish to be dependent because his situation appears desperate, I have yet to find the individual who, when he examines his situation deeply, and feels that he perceives it clearly, deliberately chooses dependence, deliberately to have the integrated direction of himself undertaken by another. When all the elements are clearly perceived, the balance seems invariably in the direction of the painful but ultimately rewarding path of self-actualization or growth. (p. 490)

Other theorists support this concept. Goldstein (1939) labeled this striving as self-actualization and Maslow (1954) went on to build a theory of development around the process of self-actualization using the individual's level of need as a basis for the ability to move forward. Sullivan (1953) seems to support this process when he writes of the organism's direction as moving forward.

Rogers (1951) hypothesizes that behavior is basically the goal-directed attempt of individuals to satisfy their
needs as perceived in their phenomenal fields. Rogers asserts that emotions facilitate the attainment of this goal-directed behavior. Feelings of hurt, anger, fear, joy, and sadness move the person toward behaviors and attitudes that encourage growth. Thus, it can be concluded that the movement toward self-actualization is expressed through behaviors but motivated by feelings.

Rogers writes that a portion of this phenomenal field gradually becomes defined as the self. This self-concept is the result of interaction with the environment, and particularly as a result of evaluational interaction with others. Along with this evaluational interaction come values placed on the self. Some of these values are realistic appraisals of the self and some may be distorted as they are received in the developing child. Rogers describes this process by theorizing that the person responds to an experience in one of three ways: (a) symbolizes, perceives, and organizes it into some relationship to the self; (b) ignores it because there is no perceived relationship to the self-structure; or (c) denies symbolization or the experience is given a distorted symbolization because the experience is inconsistent with the structure of the self. The person then goes on to behave in ways that are consistent with the concept of the self.
Rogers (1951) believes that psychological tensions exist when persons are unable to integrate experiences into their own concepts of self. This creates conflict between what is actually happening in the person's world and the individual's perception of what is happening. Unless these tensions are confronted, understood, and resolved in some manner the individual is unable to integrate the experiences and move toward growth.

Another aspect of this growth toward self-actualization is addressed by cognitive-developmental theorists such as Piaget (1929) and Kohlberg (1969). These theorists believe that children from birth on have impressions of sights, smells, noises, and activity. At birth, these impressions are merely confused and meaningless but with maturation children develop cognitive abilities to organize these impressions in meaningful and logical ways. One gathers from this perspective that there needs to be a recognition of the importance of physiological/intellectual growth as individuals attempt to create self-concepts.

The social learning theorists focus on another aspect of this development of self when they describe methods of learning that facilitate the development of the self-concept. Bandura (1968), Mischel (1966), and Bandura and Walters (1963) describe a process of learning based on rewarded or punished experimentation on the part of the
developing child. This concept seems consistent with Rogers's (1951) "evaluational interaction with others" (p. 498). Bandura and Walters (1963) especially address the role of models as important to the developing person's experimentation and resulting cognitions about the self.

In summary, theorists generally agree that self-concepts are formed through a process of physiological development that allows individuals to cognitively perceive a perception of self based on their past experiences. Furthermore, it becomes important for the purposes of this study to explore the integration of competency into the development of a perception of self.

**Definition and development of competency as part of self-concept.** The definition of competency that will be used for this study is consistent with the writings of White (1959). White describes a biological process which he labels effectance motivation. This is the satisfying ability to explore and actively manipulate objects in the environment which can lead to feelings of efficacy. White (1959) asserts that studies of animals and humans support the notion of exploratory behavior being satisfying in itself and separate from tension reduction or results of the exploration. White believes that these studies show a neurological basis for effectance.
motivation. White writes that the cumulative result of successful interactions with the environment is a state of competency. The definition of competency ascribed to White and used in this study is the ability to interact effectively with the environment.

Other theorists using a variety of labels support White's (1959) theory of effectance motivation. Mittelmann (1954) describes this motivation using the word motility. Mittelmann believes that motility is expressed typically in locomotion and manipulation and is an urge in its own right. Mittelmann (1954) sees this urge as significant in the development of the ego. Erickson (1950) uses the phrase industry to describe the initiative taken by a developing child to explore, manipulate, and master. Wiggins et al. (1971) use the phrase "instrumentality of the self" (p. 411). Miller (1976) writes of the capacity to implement.

White (1959) addresses biological influence on effectance motivation by connecting it to intelligence. Cognitive-developmental theorists such as Piaget (1929) and Kohlberg (1969) support White's concept of biological influence through their studies on intelligence. Intelligence is defined by them as an activity that is stage sequential in growth from a sensorimotor period to more formal and complex levels of mental functioning. Data from twin-family studies, foster reared children, and
laboratory animals leave little doubt that genotype contributes to the development of intelligence.

White (1959) describes the use of postnatal experiences as an influence in the development of feelings of efficacy when he writes of acquiring competency. White writes as follows:

Reality is not passively received, it does not imprint itself on the mind. It is slowly constructed through active, varied and persistent exploration, and what is learned about it is how to deal with it: what actions produce what effects on what objects. (p. 186)

Hebb (1949) supports environmental influence in his studies which stress the importance of postnatal environments that allow for exploration and the development of intelligence and feelings of mastery. Dollard and Miller (1950) believe competency to be a general character of human functioning learned through rewarded and punished behaviors. White (1959) agrees that it is a learning process but describes that process from a more developmental mindset. White (1959) is impressed by the length of the process as it begins with the infant's slow faltering experimentation leading to more complex task focus and successes. White describes infants as having little innate knowledge and much that has to be learned to survive in their world.

Bandura (1969) believes that this process of learning can be greatly influenced by observing the behaviors...
of others who are skillful. The opportunity to observe skillful task performance, the feedback from a model, and the encouragement that can be part of the modeling can all be influential in the learning process. Bandura and Mischel (1965) assert that this is not only beneficial for the learning of tasks but that models also improve a subject's ability to delay gratification and tolerate longer learning periods.

Wiggins et al. (1971) address the process of integrating a sense of competency into self-concept by presenting a framework in which individuals use learning to find out what parts of the environment they can control. This integration process starts when the individual begins to develop a sense of his or her own skills based on social comparisons and cognitions. Wiggins et al. (1971) write:

An individual's cognitive structures provide not only the dimensions of reasoning, planning and expectation but also a set of concepts for viewing one's self. Self consists of the conscious views a person has of his instrumentality. These views, or dimensions, indicate to him where he will fail. These dimensions provide for the conscious choices and decisions he makes and for his sense of self-direction and personal freedom. (p. 410)

An important cognitive function that is part of the development of self-perceptions related to competency is the way individuals assign causality in understanding their successes and failures (Frieze, 1975). This is
called the attributional process. Weiner, Heckhausen, Meyer, and Cook (1972) cite four causes of success or failure at a task. The causes are ability, effort, luck, and task ease or difficulty. These four causes differ along two dimensions. Ability and effort are internal to an individual. Luck and task ease or difficulty are external to the control of an individual. The internal causes carry with them greater potency of feelings for individuals. These causes have been correlated with greater pride in success and greater shame in failure (Rosenbaum, 1972; Weiner et al., 1972).

A second dimension that orders ability, effort, luck, and task ease or difficulty is their stability. Frieze (1975) asserts that abilities and skills do change over a period of time but this change is very slow, especially experimentally, in relationship to potential luck or effort changes. This stability concept does have an influence on the way a person perceives continued success or failure. If success occurred because of high ability or task ease, it would be expected that continued success would occur. Lefcourt (1966), in summarizing laboratory research on mastery, writes that individuals will perform more actively and adequately when they believe that actions can affect results than when they feel no control over the results. The attributional process is an integral part of development of an individual's self-concept.
that assumes helplessness or competency.

Wiggins et al. (1971) write that perception of power influences the development of a self-perception of competence. The power may be in the form of age, size, money, ability, status, or political power. With any of these forms of power an individual will produce desired outcomes more easily than without their influence. Strodtbeck (1958) supports this conclusion with research on mastery as it relates to socioeconomic class. Strodtbeck's research indicates that middle and upper-class families were more mastery-believing and more conducive to the development of competency in their families. In lower-class families there is less opportunity for positive feedback and competency behaviors may be extinguished by the immediate environment. What may be left are non-socially-acceptable competency behaviors.

Miller (1976) expands on the issue of power and its relationship to competency. Miller describes two components of power as capacity to implement for oneself and power to control or restrict others. Miller (1976) states: "There is an important distinction between the ability to influence others and the power to control and restrict them" (p. 116).

In summary, self-concept development that integrates a sense of competency demands adequate cognitive ability to assess strengths and weaknesses based on social
comparisons. Ability to attribute strengths to internal and stable causes is also required as is an awareness of the influence of power on one's self-perception.

**Female development of competency as part of self-concept.** Although Freud (cited in Strause, 1974) acknowledged his lack of understanding of female development, psychoanalytic thought has nonetheless been extremely influential in the psychological understanding of female development. Freud (cited in Strause, 1974) believed that the genesis of development evolved from the human's sexual development. To traverse Freud's stages of sexual development a girl was to go through three stages. First, she must stop using her clitoris for sexual gratification and change her sexual zone to her vagina. Secondly, she must change her active sexuality to a passive sexuality with its accompanying repression of sexual activity. Lastly, she must change the gender of her sexual attachment by renouncing her initial primary attachment to her mother and wish to be close to her father and in time transfer this desire to other men. Freud believed that the path through these changes could result in three development outcomes for a woman. One outcome would be sexual frigidity and a general inhibition of other active personality strivings. The second possible outcome was that the female could refuse to
stop clitoral masturbation and continue to be assertive in other ways, thereby, revealing her hopeless desire to have a penis and be a man. This outcome Freud called the masculinity complex. The third possibility was what Freud believed to be a normal feminine attitude. Here the female does not renounce her sexuality but instead acknowledges her organic inferiority and switches from an active sexuality to a passive sexuality, rejects her mother, and turns to a father figure to get a baby—preferably, a boy that has a penis. This third choice carries with it the motivation of penis envy and the woman has permanent feelings of shame, inferiority, and jealousy.

Horney (1967) represents the neo-Freudians when she redefines penis envy as social rather than anatomical. According to Horney, a woman does not wish to have a penis specifically but wishes to have the status and power that accompanies males within western society. Horney does, however, continue to relate health in women to passivity and dependence, although she acknowledges the tendency for females to be masochistic. She defines masochism as a process of coping with anxiety by needing to be loved. The masochist needs constant signs of reassurance and affection, although this pattern never allows the person to feel loved enough to cope with anxiety. Horney (1967) writes:
He feels inferior, absolutely unloveable and unworthy of love. On the other hand, just this lack of self-confidence makes him feel that appealing to pity by having and displaying inferiority feelings, weakness, and suffering is the only means by which he can win the affection he needs. One sees that the deterioration of his self-esteem lies rooted in his paralysis of what may be termed "adequate aggressiveness." By this I mean the capacities for work, including the following attributes; taking initiative; making efforts; carrying things through to completion; attaining success; insisting upon one's rights; defending oneself when attacked; forming and expressing autonomous views; recognizing one's goals and being able to plan one's life according to them. (p. 228)

Although Horney includes this material in a book on feminine psychology and within a chapter on the problem of feminine masochism, this need for "adequate aggressiveness" is written in masculine pronouns and is never directly tied to female development. Horney's (1967) inability to equate directly the healthy female with "adequate aggressiveness" seems to be symptomatic of expressed beliefs in a later quote.

The question then is how far analytic psychology also, when its researchers have women for their object, is under the spell of this way of thinking, insofar as it has not yet wholly left behind the stage in which frankly and as a matter of course masculine development only was considered. In other words, how far has the evolution of women, as depicted to us today by analysis been measured by masculine standards and how far therefore does this picture fail to present quite accurately the real nature of women. (p. 57)

Erickson (1950) addresses the issue of competence in his stage of development called industry vs. inferiority.
It is in this stage that he sees the developing child go beyond mere playful expression of organ modes or function of the limbs to an eager and absorbed unit of a productive situation. The danger in this stage lies in developing a sense of inadequacy and inferiority within the world of work and withdrawing into a sense of self as being mediocre or mutilated.

Erickson (1959) addresses female development when he writes that there must be a shift in emphasis from the Freudian perspective of a loss of an external organ to a sense of vital inner potential. Erickson believes that the anatomy of reproduction makes men and women different. The male's penis orients him aggressively toward overcoming the external world; the female's "inner space" orients her passively toward nurturing the internal world of children, family, and interpersonal relationships. Erickson writes:

This, of course, is only the psychosexual aspect of her identity, and she may go far in postponing its closure while training herself as a worker and a citizen and while developing as a person within the role possibilities of her time. A true moratorium must have a term and a conclusion; womanhood arrives when attractiveness and experience have succeeded in selecting what is to be admitted to the welcome of the inner space "for keeps." (p. 283)

Levinson (1978) expands on Erickson's (1959) theory in studying male adult development. He labels the ages between 22 and 45 as the early adult era with the age 30
transition leading to a settling down period. Stewart (1977), a co-worker of Levinson, relates this period to female development when she studies women between the ages of 20 and 40. She hypothesized that female development has similar qualities to male development up to the late teens and early twenties. But there is considerable divergence in the twenties and thirties when both sexes have the ability and opportunity to reassess life structures. Women must come to terms with the issues of parenting in both a qualitatively and quantitatively different way than is the case for men. Thus, the tasks of breaking away from the family of origin, creating a dream with the potential of being mentored, and finding a special man may be more complex for the woman than the man.

This preceding review of psychoanalytic thought includes Freudian thought on women's sense of inferiority. This psychoanalytic summary expresses a female conflictual process of identification with any other area besides child bearing and a lack of clear process to self-esteem. This summary serves as a backdrop to an understanding of women's conflicts over feelings of efficacy and competency.

Another perspective on the female development of competence is that of the cognitive-developmental theorists. Piaget (1952), the originator of cognitive-developmental theory, believed that a child develops the ability to
organize perceptions in a logical way. A child is not born with this ability. The perceptions about self and others come with biological maturation, a child's effort, or motivation, and experiences in the world. It is through these three efforts that the self-concept is formed.

Kohlberg (1966) has applied Piaget's work to the development of sexual identity and personality characteristics. Kohlberg believes that once a child can understand the physical constancies of human bodies a child can connect the behaviors and emotions with those physical characteristics. By the age of 4, a child can either connect behaviors and emotions of being male with his male body or of being female with her body. There is also the process of identification with the parents. Kohlberg believes that sexual identification is the product of cognitive growth not of sexual attachments and is in three stages: gender identity, sex typing, and parental identification.

Although Kohlberg's (1966) theory is in male terms, and like Freud's theory, female development appears to become an afterthought, Kohlberg studies both boys and girls. He believes that girls go through the same cognitive process as boys. For example, a girl by age 2 associates the label "girl" to herself and by age 3 is realizing that everyone is either boy or girl. By 4 or 5 she realizes that gender is based on anatomy but believes
that gender can be changed. By 6 or 7 she realizes that once a girl always a girl and that genitals are the basic criterion for determining femaleness. A girl wishes to do the things that are female once she realizes she is female. Kohlberg believes that these female things are determined by "universal gender stereotypes, partly based on non-genital body imagery" (p. 103). It is at this point that Kohlberg's theory becomes divergent for males and females. He moves toward cross-cultural roles to define being female and determines that being female means child bearing and nurturing. He also defines being female as being a lack of whatever it means to be male— that is, a relative lack of activity, competence, power, and aggression.

Kohlberg (1966) deals with the question of whether being female as defined by the universal body image is highly valued by the girl. At the same time that a female is aware of her femaleness she is also becoming aware of power, prestige, and competence. Thus, a conflict: does she wish to imitate mother because it is satisfying to be like mother or does she wish to imitate father who is more powerful? Kohlberg attempts to resolve this conflict by several assumptions. One is that he believes that during the period of 5 to 8 years of age a female is identifying with the father and complimentary modeling takes place. A girl contrasts herself to the masculine
stereotype and learns to interact with males in feminine ways. With this assumption Kohlberg reverses his theory of how boys respond at the same age. Kohlberg's second assumption is that as a girl realizes her lack of power and her mother's lack of power in comparison to her father's power, she may feel ambivalent about being like mother. At the same time, she is recognizing that mother has more power than she does as a young girl and that being like mother may be more advantageous than realized at times. Kohlberg's third assumption about a girl's ambivalence about being more like mother suggests that there is a subtle form of prestige in the female stereotype called "niceness." He believes that this niceness carries with it some power of influence in a girl's development and she wishes to be nice in contrast to being bad or aggressive. In general, Kohlberg has developed universal models for males and females that include power, prestige, and competence for males and nurturance and dependence for females. The cause of these images may be divergent from the psychoanalytic perspective, but the resulting images are the same.

Still another perspective on female development and its relationship to competency evolves out of the behaviorist school of thought which conceptualizes women and competency skills. The hypothesis that learning is the tool with which a person thinks, feels, and acts is the
basis of social learning theory (Rohrbaugh, 1979).
Bandura and Walters (1963) assert that children observe and experiment with behaviors that surround them. If the behaviors are rewarded a child continues the behavior. If the behaviors are punished he or she does not continue the behavior. Gradually a child develops a "habit hierarchy" through differential reinforcement. Habit hierarchies will change over time and within different situations. The responses will generalize to different situations or there will be discriminations made when responses do not fit a situation. Thus, even though the emphasis in social learning theory is on the external world and its influence on children, they are not viewed as passive empty shells being reinforced and punished but rather as thinking, feeling persons that are in a process and generalizing and discriminating among habitual responses. These responses are not always overt behaviors; they may also be emotions, an attitude, or situational interpretation.

An important difference in this theoretical view from the previous two theoretical positions is that when women behave in certain ways it is because they have learned to perform those behaviors from the external world and the behaviors are not symbolic of innate drive and images. Bandura and Walters's (1964) principal of discrimination is relevant to this point. Learning is dependent on
women's ability to observe. Performance is dependent on what behaviors get reinforced or punished. Females observe a variety of behaviors and they perform only those that are reinforced in the world around them. Bandura (1969) also stresses the importance of modeling and significant others in the process of learning.

Hoffman (1972) contributes to theoretical perspectives on female development by discussing the development of competence in relationship to gender and independence strivings. Hoffman writes that all infants are dependent but as they mature, independence strivings increase. As noted previously, White (1960) calls these independence strivings the effectance motive or a child's need to have an effect upon the environment. Theorists (Hoffman, 1972; White, 1960) believe that it is this striving through which a child develops abilities and a sense of self as being competent. The tasks that are undertaken by children get increasingly more challenging and mean separating more from their parent figures. It is hypothesized by some theorists that the years between 1 and 4 are critical for the development of a mindset of competence and independence (Erickson, 1959; Stendler, 1963; Veroff, 1969; White, 1960). Hoffman (1972) defines critical period by the belief that at this point of development competence orientations are more efficiently learned. Some of the events that may hinder the development of
competence orientation include lack of nurturance, premature pushing toward independence, emotional or physical rejection, lack of parental encouragement and guidance, lack of opportunities to experiment with effecting the environment, parental over-protection, and lack of optimal level of task difficulty.

Hoffman (1972) hypothesizes that females may have a number of disadvantages in the development of a sense of competence. She supports this hypothesis with some empirical findings related to sex differences in children's independence training as follows:

Studies of neonates suggest a higher activity level on the part of the male, while females demonstrate greater tactile sensitivity and a lower pain threshold (Garai and Scheinfeld, 1968). From these predispositions alone we could expect more exploratory behavior on the part of male infants, but to compound the matter, observations of mothers with neonates show that even controlling for the differences in activity levels, mothers handle and stimulate males more than females (Moss, 1967). And a study by Rubenstein (1967) suggests that such maternal attentiveness facilitates exploratory behavior. (p. 137)

Another of Moss's (1967) mother-infant interaction findings was important to Hoffman's hypotheses on sex differences. Moss found that mothers significantly responded to the female babies' cries for help to a greater degree than the mothers responded to male babies. The mothers did not attend to the female infants more than the males (less in fact) but their attention was more
closely linked to the infant's state of need as expressed by crying. Hoffman (1972) believes that this finding may be representative of an interaction pattern that could be continued later into development and that this pattern reinforces girls' dependency on their mothers and inhibits separation and exploratory behavior.

Hoffman (1972) hypothesizes that parents give less ambivalent messages to boys about their independence strivings. Even though female infants are sturdier and more mature than male infants, parents think of them as more fragile (Garai & Scheinfeld, 1968). It is possible that parents exhibit more "over help" behavior with female children. Competency requires the ability to tolerate frustration. Hoffman suggests that the tendency to withdraw from a difficult task rather than tackle the problem and tolerate temporary frustration seems to characterize females more than males.

Hoffman (1972) hypothesizes that same sex caretaking may hinder the establishment of a separate self in a young girl. A male child needs to identify with his father or other men to establish a sense of self. A female child may maintain an identity with her mother and thus not separate or individuate as completely as a male. If early coping with the environment is important to a sense of competence, then a male may have an advantage in having to form a separate identity from his mother. Hoffman
writes that there are no studies that directly test this hypothesis but there is indirect evidence that may be relevant. There are studies that relate "overly feminine" females to lower achievement related measures (Kagan & Kogan, 1970; Maccoby, 1966).

Hoffman (1972) believes that parent child conflict may also be facilitative of the establishment of learning to cope with the environment. Sex differences in aggressive behavior are solidly established (Kagan, 1964; Oetzel, 1966) and there is some evidence that aggressive behavior is constitutionally based (Bardwick, 1971). There is also reason to believe that males are more motorically active (Garai & Scheinfeld, 1968; Goldberg & Lewis, 1969; Moss, 1967). With more differences and more aggression in males, a male child may be more apt to come in conflict with his parent figure. These encounters may facilitate greater separation of the self from authority and more independence.

Hoffman (1972) interprets this last hypothesis to mean that girls may need some maternal rejection to become independently competent. It is concluded from most recent reviews that high achieving females had hostile mothers while high achieving males had warm ones (Bardwick, 1971; Garai & Scheinfeld, 1968; Maccoby, 1966; Silverman, 1970). Maternal hostility is correlated normally with rejection. It is possible that this only
means that there is an absence of "smother love" (Hoffman, 1972).

Baumrind and Black (1967) conducted detailed studies of interactions between parents and preschool children with the objective of identifying parental attitudes and behaviors associated with dimensions of competent behavior in children. In general, they found that general independence granting and verbal give and take, on one hand, and enforced demands and consistent discipline, on the other hand, were associated with stable, assertive behavior in the child. Baumrind and Black found that warmth was not an important predictor of child behavior in this study. An optimal level of parental punitive behavior, paternal consistent discipline, maternal maturity demands, parents' willingness to offer justification for directives and to listen to the child, and the ability to grant sufficient independence were all associated with competent behavior on the part of the female preschooler. The researchers concluded that optimal levels of tension can produce self-assertion in girls and the ability to separate and become more self-sufficient.

Fagot (1977) recently completed a study of parental reinforcing contingencies in toddler children. Fagot found that when parents were asked what kind of behaviors were appropriate for girls and boys, the parents had non-stereotyped responses. Fagot then spent a great deal of
time observing the interaction between parents and their children. The researcher found that parents' behavior did not always match their stated attitudes. For example, parents said that asking for help was an appropriate behavior for either sex child, but they were more likely to react positively when daughters asked for help than when sons asked for help. Fagot's results indicated that parents are not fully aware of the methods they use to teach independence to their children.

Parsons (1976) believed that preschool children do not link incompetence with failure at a task. If they fail at a task they will continue to perform. But as children enter school age, and if they are incorporating sex-role stereotypes, there is an expectation that young girls will develop lower estimates of themselves as being competent than will young boys. Parsons (1976) also did a study of children from kindergarten through fifth grade and found that girls perceived their ability on cognitive tasks as lower than boys even though the girls actually out performed the boys.

Crandall and Rabson (1960) found in their research that grade school girls in free play were more likely than boys to withdraw from threatening situations and look for adult help. Socialization related to girls' lack of power in physical activities and actual lack of physical strength may have been important variables in
Lever (1976) did research on sex differences in the games children play. Lever studied 181 fifth-grade children predominantly white and middle class. The researcher chose this group because of a need to simplify such exploratory research. Lever used observation, interviews, written questionnaires, and diaries kept by the children. Lever's data showed striking differences between boys and girls play, and he concluded that these differences lead to successful performance in the roles that children may play in later years. Rivers et al. (1979) conclude from Lever's study:

The boys' games foster independence, they encourage the development of skills necessary to organize activities involving many people. They also offer experience in resolving the disputes that arise when so many people are involved in an activity. They have to learn how to play on a team, and how to relate in a competitive situation to a number of people. Girls, on the other hand, take part most often in games that may help them develop a fine-tuned sensitivity to the moods and emotions of others. (p. 107)

Baruch (1975) replicated studies of parental perception of ages for independent behaviors for children. Baruch found that parents did not give different ages for boys and girls, but she hypothesized that although parental attitudes are changing there still may not be a congruence with their actual behaviors. One result of the Baruch study was that women who described themselves
as independently competent people were the most likely to value those traits in their daughters and to grant them independence at an early age.

Rivers et al. (1979) address the issue of adolescence and the females' development of competence. They found that females have a dropping back effect during adolescence. Barnett (1975) gave 2,500 boys and girls from ages 9 to 17 a list of 15 occupations from which to choose. She found that for the boys the prestige of an occupation was a positive influence. For girls, at every age between 9 and 17 the prestige of an occupation was a negative influence.

Condry and Dyer (1977) set up a test involving 61 students from fifth, seventh, and ninth grades. These students were given a test in which they were to unscramble a group of scrambled words. Boys and girls were seated opposite each other to take the test. When they had finished part one, the test partners were pulled aside and told privately that he or she had done better or the test than their partner. The results of the second test showed that within the fifth graders both partners increased their scores. Within the seventh grade group the boys increased their score but 80% of the girls dropped their score and half of the ninth grade girls dropped their scores on the second test. When the children were asked about their performance, the seventh grade and ninth
grade girls who had dropped their scores owned their con-
flicts in beating boys in competition. Condry and Dyer
suggest that in light of their results it is important to
look at the effect of mixed-sex competition on females'
and males' developing sense of self and behaviors.

Frieze (1975) summarized material related to the
attributional process that was addressed earlier in this
paper. Frieze asserts that women assign causality to
their successes and failures in a different way than
males. Rotter (1966) found women college students had a
more external locus of control. This is supported by
several studies that have shown women to rely more upon
luck as a causal explanation for success than men (Bar-
Tel & Frieze, 1973; Feather, 1969; McMahan, 1972).

These attributional findings are related to achieve-
ment within traditionally masculine tasks such as academic
achievement. In more traditional female tasks women seem
to attribute their successes to more internal causes such
as ability and effort. This process of attributing suc-
cess in certain areas to luck and failure to lack of abil-
ity encourages a debilitating approach to skills outside
the range of what is traditionally feminine. Women appear
to have an attributional process that results from or
creates lower self-esteem (Frieze, 1975). It is concluded
from this material that women's patterns of attribution
may sabotage their ability to integrate a sense of self
as being competent in areas other than homemaking.

Baruch (1973), using the Broverman Sex-Role Stereotype Questionnaire, examined the relationship between self-esteem and self-ratings of competence for 71 college women. Self-esteem was measured by Coopersmith's (1968) Self-Esteem Inventory. The competency self-assessment was measured using the competency scores on the Broverman questionnaire. Baruch hypothesized that those subjects who rated themselves high on competence related skills would also score high on self-esteem and higher scores on competence were expected for subjects whose mothers worked or subjects whose mothers desired a career. The findings were that maternal preference for a career did have a positive effect upon subject's self-esteem and evaluations of their competency; maternal employment did not have a relationship to self-esteem and competency scores.

Rosenkrantz et al. (1968) developed the Sex-Role Stereotype Questionnaire used by Baruch (1973). Rosenkrantz et al. were interested in exploring gender identity issues in relationship to current sex-role standards and personality adjustment. About 1,000 men and women with a wide variation in age, class, educational level, and marital status were given the questionnaire with instructions to indicate the extent to which each item characterized an adult man, an adult woman, and themselves. The order of presentation of masculinity and femininity instructions
were reversed for approximately half the subjects within each sample; however, the self-instructions were always given last in order to obtain self-descriptions within a masculinity-femininity context.

The social desirability of the characteristics designated as masculine or feminine by the questionnaire responses follow the same pattern present in other literature and research (Dinitz, Dynes, & Clarke, 1954; Fernberger, 1948; McKee & Sherriffs, 1957; Smith, 1939; White, 1950). The masculine poles of the various items were more often considered to be socially desirable than the feminine poles. This differential valuation of sex-related characteristics was observed in several studies and there was a high agreement among men and women about which poles were socially desirable ($r$ between men and women = .96).

Broverman, Broverman, Vogel, Clarkson, and Rosenkrantz (1972) reported the following broad conclusions from their use of the questionnaire: A strong consensus about the differing characteristics of men and women exists across groups which differ in sex, age, religion, marital status, and educational level. Characteristics ascribed to men are positively valued more often than characteristics ascribed to women. The positively-valued masculine traits form a competency cluster. The positively-valued female traits form a cluster called
warmth-nurturance. The sex-role definitions are implicitly and uncritically accepted to the extent that they are incorporated into self-concepts of both men and women. These sex-role differences are considered desirable by college students, healthy by mental health professionals, and seen as ideal by both men and women. Individual differences in sex-role self-concepts are associated with (a) certain sex-role relevant behaviors and attitudes such as actual and desired family size, and (b) certain antecedent conditions such as mother's employment history.

The preceding summary of research and literature suggests that for women a perception of self as being competent will be associated with traditionally female tasks such as homemaking and will have ambivalence when the competency is in stereotypically male tasks such as academic achievement. At the same time, male-valued competency skills will be held more socially desirable by both men and women. Literature and research that addresses these preceding issues in relationship to occupational role is summarized in the following material.

separates a theory of competency from the need for achievement by suggesting that the need for achievement is a narrower disposition that is more tied to external standards and social comparison. Hanlon's method of study was labeled constant comparative method of qualitative analysis. The use of this method was based on a premise that there is needed exploratory research to contribute to a theory of competence in women. With this method Hanlon interviewed 24 female subjects about situations where they had felt effective or ineffective. All of Hanlon's subjects were adult married women who had children. They were white, middle class, and working outside the home or full-time homemakers. Hanlon began her interviews with traditional homemakers and through the process proceeded to interview women in traditionally female occupations and women in nontraditional female occupations.

Hanlon found three qualities that were consistent in women's experiences of perceiving their own competence. The three qualities included a sense of inner control, an optimal level of challenge, and a feeling of being immersed in the task. Hanlon also found four dimensions important to the experiences expressed by the subjects. These dimensions included: an object of mastery, the resource employed to effect the environment, a source of evidence that one has been competent, and a recipient of
Hanlon (1978) found that traditional homemakers were more apt to use a mode of helping others for their personal expression of competence. Working mothers and women in occupations that were not traditional for women became more self or mixed oriented in the mode of competence expression. These differences showed in resources used by the women. Traditional homemakers and traditional working women used interpersonal skills, whereas, women in nontraditional occupations were more apt to use organizational or intellectual skills. Hanlon found that an attempt to understand modes and methods in inefficacy experiences was a more complex process and theoretical hunches were not as apparent. Surprisingly, Hanlon's data did not show external feedback as a major source of evidence for experienced efficacy in any of the subjects in contrast to stereotypes of women as needing external reinforcement.

Hanlon addresses the pitfalls of the two modes of competence: self and other. In the self mode there may be a need for a greater tolerance of aloneness and the ability to cope with aloneness. There also may be more of an adversary's position through competition which may relate to Horner's (1972) studies on fear of success in women. The other mode of competency may mean a greater dependence on the presence of others whose actions and
modes one perceives as evidence of one's effectiveness and loss of this person may strongly affect self-esteem and depression. There may be a greater blurring of the boundaries between self and other and less ability to realistically appraise one's influence over others.

In conclusion, Hanlon (1978) found that within a variety of roles, women expressed incidents of effectiveness and competency but the major differences were in the self or other oriented competency and resources used by the subjects to obtain competency. She also concludes that there is a need to examine other socioeconomic groups, different life stages, and more examination of mastery issues in women's lives. Hanlon also recognized the limitations of the study in its small sample size, volunteer nature of the subjects, the possible bias in choice of subjects and interviewing process, and the judgments in selection and analysis of materials.

Birnbaum (1975) selected a group of college educated middle-class women who had graduated with honors as subjects for her research. Some of these subjects were employed as professionals and others were homemakers. Results of this study indicated that professional women had a higher sense of self-esteem and expressed more satisfaction in their lives. Also, the homemakers expressed a lower sense of competence even at child care than the professional women. Wright (1978) supported these results.
in a study in which it was found that homemakers who preferred not to work felt comfortable with their choice, but homemakers who had experienced higher educational level and more success in their work world felt very dissatisfied with full-time homemaking.

Gralewski (1978) studied a group of women who represented three work roles: lawyers, teachers, and full-time homemakers. All these women were married, college educated with at least one child under high school age. Homemakers in this group expressed being in a temporary period and did not seem to be highly traditional in their sex roles. The three groups showed no difference in perceived competence in role-salient and non-role-salient areas.

Ferree (1976), on the other hand, interviewed 135 married women with a median age of 36 and an average of 3.4 children who were post preschool age. It was concluded from Ferree's data that although homemaking was not considered menial or degrading by these women, it did not lead to a sense of competence, social connectedness, or self-determination equal to those feelings produced by paid employment.

Haussmann (1981) in research on women's roles and vulnerability to depression hypothesized that occupational role would have an influence on a woman's sense of mastery. Haussmann collected a random sampling of responses
to a Mastery/Powerlessness Scale (Frank, Hoehn-Saric, Imber, Liberman, & Stone, 1978) from four occupational roles: professional women, clerical personnel, semi-unskilled workers, and full-time homemakers. Based on the results, it was concluded that among employed women, a sense of mastery was highest with professional women. Homemakers scored higher than clerical and semi-unskilled workers but lower than professional women. Haussman suggested that this population of homemakers may have been slightly advantaged. Their average income was not significantly but slightly higher than the professional women's average income.

In summary, there are confusing results in the literature as to the relationship between occupational role and competency self-perceptions. Haussmann (1981), Ferree (1976), and Birnbaum (1975) all indicate in the results of their research that occupational role is related to a sense of competency. Gralewski (1978) found no differences in self-perception of competency in her sample of women subjects who were all married and with one child under high school age. Hanlon (1978) found that women in a wide range of occupations still had feelings of efficacy but the competency mode varied across the range of occupations. Except for Gralewski's (1978) work, it would seem appropriate to hypothesize a relationship between occupational role and a self-perception of...
competency in adult women.

**Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this study is to explore whether women's self-concept as being competent will vary as a function of occupational role.

**Research Hypotheses**

Based upon the preceding review of the literature, three research hypotheses are proposed: It is hypothesized that women's self-concept as being competent will vary as a function of occupational role. Also it is hypothesized that the discrepancy between women's perception of real self and ideal self in competency skills will vary as a function of occupational role. Finally, it is hypothesized that the discrepancy between women's perception of self as competent and their perception of typical women as competent will vary as a function of occupational role.
CHAPTER II

Method

Population and Sample

The population for this study is defined as all women in Kalamazoo County, Michigan, between the ages of 24 and 45 who represented three occupational roles of homemaker, secretary, and professional. In order to acquire a sample from this population the 1979 Kalamazoo City Directory and 1980 Kalamazoo City Telephone Book were used as a sampling frame. The city directory consists of 702 pages of inhabitants of Kalamazoo County. These names were collected in a door-to-door campaign by the publishing company, R. L. Polk and Company. Adults were listed in alphabetical order by last name with occupations and addresses. Thus the sample was limited to those women who were registered in the city directory and were accessible by phone.

The sample of the study consisted of 133 women. All subjects were between the ages of 24 and 45 and represented one of three full-time occupational roles of homemaker, clerical, and professional, and who completed all experimental requirements.
Selection of the Sample

Every fifth page within the city directory was assigned one of three occupational roles. Secondly, to obtain more subjects every 17th page within the city directory was assigned an occupational role. From each of these pages was taken the first woman's name that fit the occupational role assigned that page. To find subjects that fit the three occupational roles in the Kalamazoo City Directory the following method was used. If a homemaker was needed from a certain page a woman's name was used that was listed next to her husband's name and who had no separate listing in the directory. If the researcher was seeking a secretary, names were used that had an occupation listed as secretary or clerk. The professional category consisted of women who were listed in the following occupations: educational administrators, educational consultants, professors and teachers within universities and colleges, scientists, mental health workers with graduate training, librarians, architect, business administrators, accountants, lawyers, employment counselor, and audiologist. These occupations were used because of the graduate training involved, responsibility of the work, and subject availability.

The potential subject's name was then correlated with a phone number in the Kalamazoo City Telephone Book.
or Michigan Bell's Directory Assistance. If no telephone number was found the next woman's name on the same page was then correlated with a telephone number until a woman who fit the occupational role and could be contacted by phone was found.

Next, a phone call was made to this potential subject. The content of the phone call is described in Appendix A. After the researcher introduced herself, questions were asked related to subject criteria in the study. The criteria included whether the potential subject worked 1 year full time in the occupational role listed in the city directory and whether the subject was between the ages of 24 and 45. If the potential subject did not meet one or both of these two criteria the phone conversation was terminated. If the potential subject did meet the two criteria the study was described and the researcher requested the potential subject's participation in the study.

If the researcher was unable to reach a potential subject by phone, five more attempts were made at a variety of times. The phone attempts were recorded by time to assure that the five phone attempts were spaced throughout morning, afternoon, and evening. If these phone attempts were unsuccessful then a new potential subject was chosen from that page in the city directory and correlated with a phone listing.
The researcher made a total of 731 phone calls; 321 of these were in the homemaker category, 263 were in the clerical category, and 147 in the professional category. As a result of these phone calls, 78 homemakers, 73 clerical workers, and 62 professionals were identified who met the criteria established for subjects. Of this initial group of subjects, 18 homemakers, 13 clerical workers, and 2 professionals refused to participate in the study leaving 60 subjects for each of the three occupational groups. As a result of failure to complete all requirements satisfactorily 14 homemakers, 14 clerical workers, and 19 professionals were excluded from the final sample. Thus, 59% of the homemaker group, 63% of the clerical group, and 66% of the professional group subjects became the final sample for this study. Full addresses were obtained for these subjects and questionnaires were mailed to them. If within a 3-week period questionnaires were not returned a second call was made to encourage return of the questionnaire and/or send another questionnaire. No further follow up was done after this second call.

Tables 1, 2, and 3 show the number of phone contacts made in each occupational category and the rationale for potential subjects being unable to participate in the study.
Table 1
Total Phone Contacts—Homemakers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agreed to participate</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Refused to participate</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not meeting criteria for subjects:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not full-time homemakers</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moved</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 45 years of age</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Could not be reached in five calls</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Illness</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total not meeting criteria for subjects</td>
<td>243</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

^aPercentages based on total phone contacts of 321 homemakers.

The results of the phone contacts in these tables facilitate awareness of similarities and differences in the three occupational groups. There was a low percentage of refusals to participate in all three categories. A potential subject's inability to participate was mostly based on not meeting criteria or an inability to reach the potential subject through a phone contact.

Potential subjects who appeared to be homemakers in the
city directory often were working part time or full time when reached by phone. On the other hand, it was easier to discriminate professional women in the directory and in 41% of the contacts they fit the criteria and agreed to participate.

Table 2
Total Phone Contacts--Clerical Workers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agreed to participate</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Refused to participate</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not meeting criteria for subjects:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not located at listed work place</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 45 years of age</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phone numbers inoperable</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moved</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Under 24 years of age</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part-time employment</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vacation</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promoted within company</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total not meeting criteria for subjects</td>
<td>190</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Percentages based on total phone contacts of 263 clerical workers.
Table 3
Total Phone Contacts--Professionals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agreed to participate</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Refused to participate</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not meeting criteria for subjects:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 45 years of age</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not working at listed profession</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moved</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listing did not fit professional criteria</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phone numbers inoperable</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part-time employment</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vacation</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total not meeting criteria for subjects</td>
<td>85</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

aPercentages based on total phone contacts of 147 professionals.

Criteria Instruments

The materials mailed to each subject included a cover letter, an Informed Consent Form, a Demographic Questionnaire, and the Broverman Sex-Role Stereotype Questionnaire (BSRSQ). Copies of these materials are located in Appendix B.
The Demographic Questionnaire. This questionnaire asked participants to record data related to age, workrole, lifestyle, education, parent's workrole, and number of children under 20 years of age. These data were to be used to better know the nature of the sample in this study. The results of these data are in Appendix C.

The Broverman Sex-Role Stereotype Questionnaire (BSRSQ). This instrument was developed in the mid sixties to assess individual perceptions of "typical" female and "typical" male behaviors or skills. The authors, Rosenkrantz, Vogel, Bee, Broverman, and Broverman (1968), were exploring gender identity issues in relationship to current sex-role standards and personality adjustment. The authors began the development of the questionnaire by asking 74 men and 80 women enrolled in three undergraduate psychology classes to list all the characteristics, attributes, and behaviors in which the students thought men and women differ. From these listings, all the items which occurred at least twice (N = 122) were selected for inclusion in the questionnaire. The 122 items were put into bipolar forms with the two poles separated by 60 points. The students were then asked to complete the instrument three times, once for each of the following concepts: average adult male, average adult female, and self. Correlated t tests were
performed and the difference between the ratings assigned to the average adult male and the average adult female were significant at the .001 level for 41 of the stereotypic items. From the remaining items, correlated t tests were performed to determine the significance of difference for 48 items. These 48 items were called differentiating items and there was a significant difference at the .05 level. The remaining items beyond the stereotypic and differentiating items were called nondifferentiating.

Since this initial use of the questionnaire the authors have used the BSRSQ with approximately 1,000 men and women representing a wide variation in age, class, educational level, and marital status. In these studies (Broverman et al., 1970; Vogel, Broverman, Broverman, Clarkson, & Rosenkrantz, 1970; Vogel, Rosenkrantz, Broverman, Broverman, & Clarkson, 1975), subjects were asked to indicate the extent to which each item characterized an adult male, an adult female, and themselves. The order of presentation of masculinity and femininity instructions were reversed for approximately half the subjects within each sample. However, the self instructions were always given last in order to obtain self-descriptions within a masculinity-femininity context.

The valuation, or social desirability, of the characteristics designated as masculine or feminine in
responses follows the same pattern as other literature and research (Dinitz et al., 1954; Fernberger, 1948; White, 1950). Men and women showed high agreement in studies asking them to rate the most socially desirable pole (r between men and women = .96). The majority response was consistently that the masculine pole was the more socially desirable. These responses were called the male valued items. Upon inspection of these items the authors labeled them the competency cluster because they represented skills needed to interact effectively with the environment. Those items that were labeled female valued were considered part of a warmth-nurturance cluster.

Broverman et al. (1972) have developed conclusions from the studies done using the questionnaire. First, there is strong consensus about differing characteristics of men and women across groups that represent differences in sex, age, religion, marital status, and educational level. Secondly, the sex-role definitions are implicitly and uncritically accepted to the extent that they are incorporated into self-concepts of both men and women and are seen as desirable by college students, healthy by mental health professionals, and ideal by both men and women.

The 122-item questionnaire through studies and examination of high consensuality among items has been reduced
to an 82-item and a 36-item questionnaire. In this study the 82-item questionnaire was used. The bipolar adjectives that represent the competency cluster on the 82-item questionnaire are in Appendix D. Broverman et al. (1972) includes within their instructions for the 82-item questionnaire some of their perceptions concerning validity of the instrument. Since the purpose of the instrument is to tap current attitudes and perceptions rather than a measurement of a trait, they have not concerned themselves with questions of validity. The authors believe that the instrument taps meaningful concepts and support this belief with figures that show the high consistency of responses with respect to how subjects perceive men and women. The correlation between college women and college men who rated the average adult males was .960; the correlation between college women and college men who rated the average adult female was .950 (Rosenkrantz et al., 1968). Broverman (1980) has also found that the competency cluster seems to reflect a fairly unitary dimension. Correlations of the odd with the even items is .81 for male responses, .83 for female responses, and .89 for self-responses for 150 subjects given the instrument.

Broverman et al. (1972) address the issue of construct validity in results from two studies. In one study Catholic mothers of male college students who
perceived themselves with higher competency self-concepts were found to have significantly fewer children (Clarkson, Vogel, Broverman, Broverman, and Rosenkrantz, 1970). In another study (Vogel et al., 1970), men and women whose mothers were never employed and men and women whose mothers were currently employed responded to the questionnaire. Daughters of employed mothers perceived significantly smaller differences between men and women than did daughters of homemakers. Daughters of employed mothers perceived competency characteristics as less negative than daughters of homemakers. Thus, the researchers found that there were relationships between responses and other variables such as mother's employment, number of children, and plan to combine employment with child rearing.

Canty (1977) addressed the reliability of the instrument. The instrument was administered to 77 college women on two occasions with a 3-month interval between test and retest. Canty found that of eight measures defined for the results of perceptions of typical male, typical female, and self (24 test-retest reliability coefficients) only three of the coefficients exceeded .70; the median test-retest reliability was .56.

Criteria Measurements

The Demographic Questionnaire and Broverman Sex-Role Stereotype Questionnaire were sent to a total of 180
women representing three work roles. They were asked to fill out the Demographic Questionnaire and given instructions as to the completion of the BSRSQ. These instructions included taking the self-administered questionnaire four times. The first instruction was to rate the typical male on the 82 items. The second instruction was to rate the typical female on the items. The third instruction was to rate themselves, and the final instruction was to rate their ideal self on the items.

For purposes of this study two additional measurements were devised. One was a discrepancy score between the subject's perception of self as being competent and perception of the subject's ideal self as measured on the BSRSQ. This measurement was termed the Self-Ideal Discrepancy Score for Competency Skills. The second measurement was a discrepancy score between the subject's perception of the typical woman as having competency skills and the subject's perception of self as being competent as measured on the BSRSQ. This measurement was termed the Female-Self Discrepancy Score for Competency Skills.

Procedures

After creating an initial format for the questionnaires the researcher requested 12 women who represented the three occupational roles to respond to the questionnaire and create an evaluation of the format. These
subject's responses helped confirm the applicability of the study as well as data on how the format could be changed to facilitate the response rate within the sample. After this process, a completed format was developed for the questionnaires and the process of creating a sample was begun.

Once a target sample had been created, the materials were mailed to the subjects. These materials included a cover letter, an Informed Consent Form, a Demographic Questionnaire, the BSRSQ, and a stamped envelope for returning the data. Each subject was asked to sign the Informed Consent Form which gave their written consent to participate in the study. They were given an opportunity to ask for results of the study on the document returned to the researcher. One hundred and forty-one of the 180 subjects returned the questionnaire but only 132 of those were completed sufficiently to use for analysis. The data were coded and placed on computer mark sense sheets. Both the coding and recording of data on the sense sheets were checked by the researcher or research assistant to assure accuracy. The code book is located in Appendix E. These were then transferred to a computer film for data analysis.
Statistical Hypotheses

In order to facilitate statistical treatment of the data the following hypotheses were formulated in null form.

Hypothesis One. There will be no difference between the competency mean scores as measured on the BSRSQ for each occupational role.

Hypothesis Two. There will be no difference between the means of the ideal-self discrepancy scores in competency skills as measured on the BSRSQ for each occupational role.

Hypothesis Three. There will be no difference between the means of the typical female-self discrepancy scores in competency skills as measured on the BSRSQ for each occupational role.

Statistical Analysis

Variables used in this study represent data accumulated from the Demographic Questionnaire and the competency scores on the BSRSQ. The demographic data were arranged in cross-tabulations that allowed the researcher to better understand the nature of the sample. These data are located in Appendix C.
The competency scores were obtained in the following manner. The BSRSQ's were scored by computing standard scores for each subject for the typical female, self, and ideal self on the 52 items that represent competency skills. Those items that had the competency response at the low point of the poles were reflected so that a high score represented the competency end of the continuum. These scores were summed and averaged for each subject so that there was a competency score for the typical female, self, and ideal self for each subject. The subjects' mean scores in each occupational role were then combined and a competency mean was established for each occupational role in each of the three areas: typical female, self, and ideal self.

Each of the three hypotheses was tested through the use of a one-way analysis of variance. Hypothesis One used the analysis of variance of the competency mean scores for each occupational role. Hypothesis Two used the difference between the self competency mean scores and the ideal competency mean scores as an ideal-self discrepancy score. Then an analysis of variance was done using the ideal-self discrepancy scores with occupational role as the breakdown variable. Hypothesis Three used the difference between the typical female competency mean scores and the self competency mean scores as typical female-self discrepancy scores. An analysis of variance
was done using the typical female-self discrepancy scores with occupational role as the breakdown variable. A probability of .05 for committing Type I error was used. The statistical package for the Social Sciences Version 8I was used in the computer analysis of the results.
CHAPTER III

Results

The purpose of this study was to examine the question of relationship between female perception of self as being competent and occupational role. The data gathered for the purpose of testing the hypotheses that were developed from this question, their analysis, and a discussion of the results are presented in this chapter.

Hypothesis One

There will be no difference between the competency mean scores as measured on the BSRSQ and the subject's occupational role.

In order to test Hypothesis One, an analysis of variance was used with the competency self-scores for each occupational group. These scores were the means of the groups' competency self-scores. Tables 4 and 5 summarize the data for this analysis.

As indicated in Table 4 and Table 5 there was no significant difference in mean competency self-scores as measured on the BSRSQ between the three occupational roles. The null hypothesis of no difference among the means may not be rejected. There is no indication in the results that the research hypothesis of a relationship
between occupational role and competency self-perceptions can be accepted.

Table 4
Means and Standard Deviations for the Three Occupational Roles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupational role</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Homemakers</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>4.245</td>
<td>.480</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clerical</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>4.281</td>
<td>.475</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>4.448</td>
<td>.543</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5
An Analysis of Variance of Mean Competency Scores on the BSRSQ and the Three Occupational Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Mean squares</th>
<th>F-ratio</th>
<th>F-prob.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.499</td>
<td>2.259</td>
<td>.109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within groups</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>.221</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>132</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hypothesis Two

There will be no difference between the ideal-self discrepancy means in competency skills as measured on the BSRSQ and the subject's occupational role.
In order to test this hypothesis, a one-way analysis of variance was performed on the discrepancy scores using occupational role as the breakdown variable. Table 6 and Table 7 summarize the data and show the results of this analysis. The results indicate that there was no significant difference between the three groups on their ideal-self discrepancy scores as indicated in their responses to the BSRSQ competency items. Thus it is indicated that the null hypothesis may not be rejected. And there is no evidence to indicate that there is a relationship between ideal-self discrepancy and occupational role.

Table 6
Means and Standard Deviations for the Three Occupational Roles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupational role</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Homemakers</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>.906</td>
<td>.647</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clerical</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>.833</td>
<td>.866</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>.969</td>
<td>1.027</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 7
An Analysis of Variance of Mean Ideal-Self Discrepancy Scores with Occupational Role as the Breakdown Variable

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Mean squares</th>
<th>F-ratio</th>
<th>F-prob.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.201</td>
<td>.275</td>
<td>.760</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within groups</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>.729</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>132</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hypothesis Three

There will be no difference between the female-self discrepancy mean scores in competency skills as measured on the BSRSQ and the subject's occupational role.

In order to test this null hypothesis, a one-way analysis of variance was performed using the discrepancy scores and occupational role as the breakdown variable. Tables 8 and 9 summarize the data and show the results of this analysis.

As indicated, there was a significant difference between the three groups. Thus, it is indicated that the null hypothesis should be rejected.
Table 8
Means and Standard Deviation for the Three Occupational Roles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupational role</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Homemakers</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>-.169</td>
<td>.710</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clerical</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>-.144</td>
<td>.565</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>-.553</td>
<td>.636</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9
An Analysis of Variance of Mean Female-Self Discrepancy Scores with Occupational Role as the Breakdown Variable

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Mean squares</th>
<th>F-ratio</th>
<th>F-prob.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.235</td>
<td>5.461</td>
<td>.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within groups</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>.409</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>132</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discussion

Hypothesis One could not be rejected because there was no significant difference found between the three occupational roles in their mean competency scores on the BSRSQ. For each subject the mean competency self-score was derived from the responses to a collection of 52 competency items on the BSRSQ. Each subject's score was
averaged into the scores that represented averages of subject's competency scores that were in the same occupational role.

After obtaining the average scores for each occupational role, an analysis of variance was done on each of the 52 competency items for all of the subjects. Again, for each of the competency items, work role was used as the breakdown variable. In this more focused analysis, 10 of the competency items were found to have significant differences in the three occupational roles (see Appendix F). Professional subjects rated themselves significantly more aggressive, dominant, active, worldly, intelligent, intellectual, and as acting more as a leader. The homemakers rated themselves to be significantly less independent than the other two groups and the clerical subjects perceived themselves as more skilled in business and with logic than the homemakers. It is possible that when averaging various competency items on the BSRSQ there is not a significant difference in the occupational roles but there may be certain self-perceptions that may have a relationship to personality styles and other variables that are relevant to a certain occupational role. For example, professional women may see themselves as more intelligent based on the fact that educational level was significantly higher than the other two groups. The clerical subjects may have more opportunities to develop
business skills and thus their self-perception may be very consistent with their work opportunities. The economic dependence of the homemaker may have significant influence on a perception of self as being dependent. Even though this item by item analysis of the competency cluster contributes to the examination of the research question the validity and reliability of these items has not been addressed within this study. Thus this material can only be used as a catalyst for further questions related to occupational role and competency self-perceptions of women.

The results of Hypothesis One are similar to Gralewski's (1978) findings. Gralewski studied a group of women who represented three work roles: lawyers, teachers, and full-time homemakers. All these women were married, college educated with at least one child under high school age. These subjects expressed no differences in perceptions of themselves as being competent in role-salient and non-role-salient areas. The homemakers in Gralewski's study expressed being in a temporary period of their life and were not highly traditional in sex-role attitudes. Gralewski felt there was little variety in her subjects and that the issue of perceived competence needed further research.

Hanlon (1978) using exploratory research with interviewing as the methodology found that across various
occupational roles women consistently expressed self-perceptions of competency but that the mode of competency changed for women in various occupational roles. One mode was "other focused" and was found most commonly in the sample as a whole, particularly among homemakers. "Self-focused" competency mode was more often found in atypically employed women such as scientists and mathematicians. Hanlon (1978) like this present study found women to be expressing feelings of efficacy and competency across the range of occupational roles.

The limitations of this study are important to a discussion of the results. The 52 items on the BSRSQ may not represent the theoretical concept of competency as clearly as is possible since subjects may interpret the skills differently in light of their own environment and background. Also, the results may be influenced by the social desirability of the competency cluster.

The nature of this study's sample may contribute bias to interpretation of the results. Wallace (1954) found in a study of the nature of individuals who respond to mailed questionnaires that there was a marked tendency for them to be higher educated but did not seem to differ greatly in socioeconomic status. Within this study, 38% of the potential subjects refused taking part in the study or else did not complete the necessary data collection instruments required for inclusion in the final
sample. It is possible that the results may have been different if the inherent problems with self-selection by subjects, as found by Wallace (1954), could have been controlled. Certainly the subjects might have represented a wider range of the female population and this might have resulted in more variability within the data.

Hypothesis Two was not rejected. In each of the three occupational roles it was found that ideal scores were similarly above the self ratings. This might indicate that subjects within the three occupational roles wished to see themselves using more of the 52 competency items on the BSRSQ. This result is very consistent with Broverman's (1972) findings of high agreement between both men and women as to the social desirability of the male-valued competency skills on the questionnaire. These skills were consistently more highly valued than the female-valued warmth-nurturant skills on the BSRSQ. This is also consistent with other literature that indicates that men and masculine characteristics are more highly valued than are women and feminine characteristics (Dinitz et al., 1954; Fernberger, 1948; McKee & Sherriffs, 1957; White, 1950).

Understanding how people respond to the BSRSQ has relevance to the results of Hypothesis Two. Kerlinger (1964) supports the use of summated rating scales, or Likert-type scales, by recognizing that they allow for an
intensity to be expressed by the subject that may allow for greater variance. But Kerlinger also asserts that individuals have differential tendencies to use certain types of responses: extreme responses, neutral responses, agree responses, disagree responses. This response variance can confound the attitude or personality variance that is being measured. It is possible that this phenomenon may have had an influence on the similar range in rating ideal competency scores for each occupational group in this study.

Null Hypothesis Three was rejected because a significant difference was found within the three occupational groups in their typical-female-self discrepancy scores. Subjects in the professional group saw themselves as significantly different from the typical female more so than did the clerical workers and the homemakers. This result existed even though the three groups did not have significant differences in their perception of self as being competent as measured on the BSRSQ.

In examining these data it appears possible that major differences in life choices may have had an important influence on the professional subjects' perception of self as being different than typical women. Some of these influences may have been educational level, number of children, and life style status.
The educational level varied for the three groups. This was most clearly seen in the area of graduate training. Six percent of the homemakers had a graduate degree, 2% of the clerical workers held a graduate degree, and 80% of the professional women had graduate training. The number of children under 20 living in the homes of the subjects differed for each occupational role. The homemakers had an average of 1.72 children per subject living in their home. The clerical women had an average of .91 children per subject and the professional women had an average of .85 children per subject. As for lifestyle, the homemakers were all married and living with their spouses. Thirty percent of the clerical women were single and 46% of the professional women were single.

It may be these variables that influence professional women seeing themselves as different than typical women. Yet, like Hanlon's (1978) subjects, the subjects of this study perceive themselves as competent no matter what is their work role.
CHAPTER IV

Conclusions and Recommendations

White (1959) proposes the concept of effectance motivation as being inherent in all individuals. This motivation facilitates movement toward effective interaction with the environment. The resulting feelings of efficacy from such interaction leads to a perception of self as being competent. The process of developing a perception of self as being competent begins very early in one's life and is influenced by both genotype and experiences in living. This process of integration of competency requires an individual to have a degree of intelligence, the ability to make social comparisons, the use of forms of power, and the ability to recognize causality in success and failures at tasks. The perception of being able to interact effectively with the environment counteracts feelings of helplessness and hopelessness.

Rivers et al. (1979) believe White's (1979) integration of competency may correspond with physiological and social tendencies toward affiliation and nurturance within female development. But the physical and social reality of our times demands that women, also, develop competencies that allow for emotional and physical self-sustaining. It has been documented within the review of
the literature of this present study that women may be less encouraged and given fewer opportunities to experiment and develop a sense of competency (Hoffman, 1972).

It is with this background that the present study concerning the relationship between women's occupational role and a self-perception of competency is meaningful. There was no evidence to indicate that there was a relationship between occupational role and self-perception of competency. The results of this study indicate that there seems to be no significant differences in women's perception of self as being competent across three occupational roles. Wiggins et al. (1971) would interpret this result to mean that independent of a person's occupational role there is an ability to see oneself as competent. At the same time, these results were close enough to a significant level of difference that it may be possible in future and more controlled studies to find significant differences; thus, conclusions related to Hypothesis One must be very cautious. In a more focused analysis of some specific components of the construct of competency, some significant differences were found. For example, clerical women expressed seeing themselves as significantly more skilled in business than professional women or full-time homemakers. Professional women perceived themselves as more aggressive, dominant, active, worldly, acting as leaders, intelligent, and intellectual.
than clerical women and full-time homemakers. Homemakers rated themselves as significantly less independent than professional women and clerical women. These data indicate the need for future studies that might answer questions related to these differences.

The results of Hypothesis Two of the present study all indicate that competency skills were positively valued by women to a similar degree across all three occupational roles. Also, it was found that professional women saw themselves as being different in competency than did typical women even though they rated their own competency skills similarly to the other two occupational groups. This last finding may have been influenced by variables within the professional women's lives that were choices not made by typical women. These choices included a single lifestyle, higher educational level, and fewer children.

**Recommendations for Future Research**

The questions asked in this study touch only a small part of the knowledge related to female development and, specifically, an integration of competency within self-concept. Following are some areas of study related to the integration of competency into the self-concept of women that would be meaningful contributions in future research.
There needs to be a greater understanding of the process of developing a sense of competency at the various life stages. A review of literature points out that there is a greater amount of information about the development of competency within the self-concept in infancy and childhood than in later stages of life. This indicates a need for developing research related to adult female development.

Research is also needed to explore the relationship between a sense of competency in the so-called male valued skills and a perception of self as being nurturing and expressive. Since the warmth-nurturant skills are the traditionally valued female skills, there is a need to understand the integration of the warmth-nurturant skills and competency skills. For example, aggressiveness and competitive skills may appear to be in conflict with nurturing skills. Therefore, it might be possible to develop a belief system that allows for appropriate skills to be used in situations where they are effective.

The issue of how a sense of competence or effectiveness relates to women's primary relationships in their roles of mother, wife, and friend needs additional study. It is important to explore how the integration of both stereotypically female and male valued skills within women influences their ability to be close and what is the nature of that closeness. Within this study the
homemakers' response of seeing themselves as less independent is relevant to this issue. The professional women, on the other hand, rated themselves as more dominant and aggressive. Another study might better address this issue.

Another area for further study is the relationship between a sense of competency and depression. It is well documented that women express feeling greater depression than men (Weissman & Kerman, 1977). Theorists are presently addressing relationships between aggression, assertiveness, skills of affiliation, and depression. Scarf (1980) along with acknowledging some physiological influences on depression in women stresses the significance of women's struggle to separate from their families and trust their own ability to physically and emotionally be self-sustaining. A perception of self as being competent could have an important impact on women developing emotional sustenance and counteracting feelings of hopelessness.

Finally there has been research that explores women's fears of success (Horner, 1972; O'Leary, 1974) but there is a need for more understanding of how women develop and express their conflicts with their own strengths.
Recommendations for Therapy

Kohlberg (1966) writes, "The child's sexual identity is maintained by a motivated adaption to physical-social reality and by the need to preserve a stable and positive self-image" (p. 88). The physical-social reality of our times places greater emphasis on women developing the ability to care for themselves physically and emotionally. Human development demands of the individual a movement from the dependency of infancy through stages of growing independence to death. Thus, women need to integrate the ability to interact effectively with the environment with the ability to nurture and care for others.

Unconsciously and consciously women work at this process of integration and struggle with conflicts connected to the process. The conflict can become expressed through depression, anxiety expressed in substance abuse and eating disorders, through behaviorally undermining their own sense of effectiveness, and forms of relationships that are neurotically dependent and damaging to themselves and others. These symptoms and their potent corresponding feelings account for bringing many women to therapy.

The therapist must be aware of the mixed messages women receive in relationship to their sexual identity. Not only may women be learning about what it means to
care for others but they will need to learn how to judge their own actions and how they are benefited by those actions. The therapist may need to accept anger that may be on the surface of this conflict and allow it to be a mobilizer to more authentic action. The therapist, like the good parent, will need to encourage, guide in determining task difficulty or ease, not overly protect, assist women to look at their perceptions of causality in their successes and failures, assist them in understanding why they suffer, and teach them how not to undermine their strengths as they grow from that suffering.

Finally, there needs to be more research on variables that effect women's perception of self as being competent. This study suggests that there may not be major differences based on the women's chosen occupation. But there are enough questions raised in the results that meaningful studies can yet be done on female development, competency, and occupational role choice.
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Baruch, G. K., & Barnett, R. Implications and applications of recent research on feminine development. Psychiatry, 1975, 38, 318-327.


Broverman, I. Directions for the short form of the sex-role questionnaire (82 items). Psychology Training and Research, Inc., Worcester State Hospital, Psychology Department, Worcester, MD 01604.


Clance, P. R., & Imes, S. A. The imposter phenomenon in high achieving women: Dynamics and therapeutic intervention. Unpublished manuscript, Georgia State University, 1978.


O'Leary, V. Some attitudinal barriers to occupational aspirations in women. Psychological Bulletin, 1974, 81, 809-826.


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Wiggins, J. S., Renner, K. E., Clore, G. L., & Rose, R. J.  
The psychology of personality.  Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley, 1971.
Appendix A

Initial Phone Contact
The researcher introduced herself as a doctoral candidate currently doing dissertation research at Western Michigan University. A potential subject was told that her name was randomly chosen from the Kalamazoo City Directory in hopes that she might meet several criteria required of potential subjects. She was then asked if she was a female between the ages of 24 and 45 and whether she had been full time for the last year in one of the three work roles represented in this study. If the response was negative to any of these criteria, a polite thank you concluded the phone conversation.

If subjects responded positively to the criteria, they were then told that the study was related to women's perceptions of their own skills and were informed that a packet of material would be sent to them with a stamped return envelope. The packet would include a cover letter giving directions, a method for contacting the researcher, and information about the nature of the study. The packet also would include an Informed Consent Document that assured confidentiality, directions for requesting results of the study, and two questionnaires that would take about an hour to complete. Potential subjects were then asked whether they would participate in the study. If they responded negatively, a thank you concluded the conversation, and if they responded positively, the researcher gathered data for sending the materials.
The phone conversation concluded with the researcher asking if there were any questions. It was emphasized again how she could be contacted if there were any questions once the packet was received.
Appendix B

Materials Mailed to Subjects
Request for Research Results

This form is to be completed if you are interested in information related to results of research and wish to meet with women similar to yourself to receive that information.

Name ______________________

Telephone Number _________

Opportune time for reaching you by phone ____________

Dates available for a 60-minute meeting

January 31 9:00 a.m.
January 31 1:00 p.m.
February 7 9:00 a.m.
February 7 1:00 p.m.

Informed Consent Document

I hereby agree to participate in a study of Women's Self-Perceptions by Merry Pattison, Doctoral Candidate, Western Michigan University. I understand that any information will be used confidentially. In case I have any questions, I have been notified that my questions will be answered.

Signature ___________________

Demographic Questionnaire

Birthdate _____________________

School Status: Less than High School ______
High School Degree ______
Post High School ______
Bachelor's Degree ______
Master's Degree ______
Post Master's ______
Ph.D., Ed.D., M.D. ______
Work Role Information

Homemaker: Full Time _____ Part Time _____
Job Outside the Home ____________________________
       Full Time _____ Part Time _____

How many years have you been a full-time Homemaker _____
How many years have you worked full time outside the home ______
Did you choose to work outside your home or did you feel forced into that decision?
Honors achieved related to your work role

Life Style Information

Life Style Status: Married ________
               Never Married ______
               Separated ______
               Divorced ______
               Widowed ______
               Remarried ______
               Living with Significant Person ______

If living with children, record the number of children in each age bracket:
Birth to five years of age ______
7 years to 10 years of age ______
11 to 15 years of age ______
16 to 20 years of age ______

Occupation of Significant Other if you are living with that person ______________________________
Occupation of Mother ____________________________
Did your mother work outside the home during the following years of your life? Full-time Part-time No
Birth to five years of age ______ ______ ______
6 years to 10 years of age ______ ______ ______
11 to 15 years of age ______ ______ ______
16 to 20 years of age ______ ______ ______
21 to 30 years of age ______ ______ ______
31 to 40 years of age ______ ______ ______

Occupation of Father ______________________________
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A. We would like to know something about what people expect other people to be like. Imagine that you are going to meet someone for the first time, and the only thing that you know in advance is that he is an adult male. What sort of things would you expect? For example, what would you expect about his liking or disliking of the color red? On each scale, please put a slash (/) and the letter "M" above the slash according to what you think an adult male is like.

For example:

Strong dislike for the color red 1........2........3........4........5........6........7 Strong liking for the color red

Continue on the back of this page...

Copyright 1974, Psychology Training & Research, Inc.
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
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<td>1-2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Very practical</td>
<td>1-2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Not at all independent</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Not at all consistent</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Very emotional</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Very realistic</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Not at all idealistic</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Does not hide emotions at all</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Very subjective</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Mainly interested in details</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Always thinks before acting</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Not at all easily influenced</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Very impractical</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>5.</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>7.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Not at all realistic</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Very idealistic</td>
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<td>10.</td>
<td>Almost always hides emotions</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Very objective</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Mainly interested in generalities</td>
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<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Never thinks before acting</td>
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</tr>
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<td>14.</td>
<td>Very easily influenced</td>
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<th>Rating</th>
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<tr>
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<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Not at all talkative</td>
<td>1.</td>
<td>2.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Very grateful</td>
<td>1.</td>
<td>2.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Doesn't mind at all when things are not clear</td>
<td>1.</td>
<td>2.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Very dominant</td>
<td>1.</td>
<td>2.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Dislikes math and science very much</td>
<td>1.</td>
<td>2.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Not at all reckless</td>
<td>1.</td>
<td>2.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Not at all excitable in a major crisis</td>
<td>1.</td>
<td>2.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Not at all excitable in a minor crisis</td>
<td>1.</td>
<td>2.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Not at all strict</td>
<td>1.</td>
<td>2.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. Very weak personality</td>
<td>1.</td>
<td>2.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. Very active</td>
<td>1.</td>
<td>2.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. Not at all able to devote self completely to others</td>
<td>1.</td>
<td>2.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. Very blunt</td>
<td>1.</td>
<td>2.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Continue on the back of this page
27. Very gentle .......................... 1........2........3........4........5........6........7
28. Very helpful to others .................. 1........2........3........4........5........6........7
29. Not at all competitive .................... 1........2........3........4........5........6........7
30. Very logical .................................. 1........2........3........4........5........6........7
31. Not at all competent ....................... 1........2........3........4........5........6........7
32. Very worldly .................................. 1........2........3........4........5........6........7
33. Not at all skilled in business .............. 1........2........3........4........5........6........7
34. Very direct .................................. 1........2........3........4........5........6........7
35. Knows the way of the world .............. 1........2........3........4........5........6........7
36. Not at all kind .................................. 1........2........3........4........5........6........7
37. Not at all willing to accept change ....... 1........2........3........4........5........6........7
38. Feelings not easily hurt ................. 1........2........3........4........5........6........7
39. Not at all adventurous ...................... 1........2........3........4........5........6........7

4. Very rough ............................... 35
Not at all helpful to others ................. 41
Very competitive ............................ 47
Very illogical .................................. 53
Very competent .................................. 59
Very home oriented ........................... 65
Very skilled in business ....................... 71
Very sneaky ................................... CD 4
Does not know the way of the world ........ 17
Very kind ....................................... 23
Very willing to accept change ............... 29
Feelings easily hurt ........................... 35
Very adventurous .............................. 41

100
40. Very aware of the feelings of others 1......2......3......4......5......6......7
41. Not at all religious 1......2......3......4......5......6......7
42. Not at all intelligent 1......2......3......4......5......6......7
43. Not at all interested in own appearance 1......2......3......4......5......6......7
44. Can make decisions easily 1......2......3......4......5......6......7
45. Gives up very easily 1......2......3......4......5......6......7
46. Very shy 1......2......3......4......5......6......7
47. Always does things without being told 1......2......3......4......5......6......7
48. Never cries 1......2......3......4......5......6......7
49. Almost never acts as a leader 1......2......3......4......5......6......7
50. Never worried 1......2......3......4......5......6......7
51. Very neat in habits 1......2......3......4......5......6......7
52. Very quiet 1......2......3......4......5......6......7

Not at all aware of the feelings of others 47
Very religious 53
Very intelligent 59
Very interested in own appearance 65
Has difficulty making decisions 71
Never gives up easily 11
Very outgoing 17
Never does things without being told 23
Cries very easily 29
Almost always acts as a leader 35
Always worried 41
Very sloppy in habits 47
Very loud 53

Continue on the back of this page.
<p>| 53. Not at all intellectual | 1...2...3...4...5...6...7 | Very intellectual | 59 |
| 54. Very careful | 1...2...3...4...5...6...7 | Very careless | 65 |
| 55. Not at all self-confident | 1...2...3...4...5...6...7 | Very self-confident | 71 |
| 56. Feels very superior | 1...2...3...4...5...6...7 | Feels very inferior | CD 6 |
| 57. Always sees self as running the show | 1...2...3...4...5...6...7 | Never sees self as running the show | 11 |
| 58. Not at all uncomfortable about being aggressive | 1...2...3...4...5...6...7 | Very uncomfortable about being aggressive | 23 |
| 59. Very good sense of humor | 1...2...3...4...5...6...7 | Very poor sense of humor | 29 |
| 60. Not at all understanding of others | 1...2...3...4...5...6...7 | Very understanding of others | 35 |
| 61. Very warm in relations with others | 1...2...3...4...5...6...7 | Very cold in relations with others | 41 |
| 62. Doesn't care about being in a group | 1...2...3...4...5...6...7 | Greatly prefers being in a group | 47 |
| 63. Very little need for security | 1...2...3...4...5...6...7 | Very strong need for security | 53 |
| 64. Not at all ambitious | 1...2...3...4...5...6...7 | Very ambitious | 59 |
| 65. Very rarely takes extreme positions | 1...2...3...4...5...6...7 | Very frequently takes extreme positions | 65 |</p>
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<tr>
<td>66.</td>
<td>Able to separate feelings from ideas</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>67.</td>
<td>Not at all dependent</td>
<td>1-7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>68.</td>
<td>Does not enjoy art and literature at all</td>
<td>1-7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>69.</td>
<td>Seeks out new experiences</td>
<td>1-7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70.</td>
<td>Not at all restless</td>
<td>1-7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>71.</td>
<td>Very uncomfortable when people express emotions</td>
<td>1-7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>72.</td>
<td>Easily expresses tender feelings</td>
<td>1-7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>73.</td>
<td>Very conceited about appearance</td>
<td>1-7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>74.</td>
<td>Retiring</td>
<td>1-7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>75.</td>
<td>Thinks men are superior to women</td>
<td>1-7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>76.</td>
<td>Very sociable</td>
<td>1-7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>77.</td>
<td>Very affectionate</td>
<td>1-7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>78.</td>
<td>Very conventional</td>
<td>1-7</td>
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</tbody>
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Unable to separate feelings from ideas

Very dependent

Enjoys art and literature very much

Avoids new experiences

Very restless

Not at all uncomfortable when people express emotions

Does not express tender feelings easily

Never conceited about appearance

Forward

Does not think men are superior to women

Not at all sociable

Not at all affectionate

Not at all conventional

Continue on the back of this page...
<table>
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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Very masculine</th>
<th>Not at all masculine</th>
<th></th>
<th>Very feminine</th>
<th>Not at all feminine</th>
<th></th>
<th>Very assertive</th>
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<th>Very impulsive</th>
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<td>79</td>
<td>1....2....3....4....5....6....7</td>
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<td>29</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>1....2....3....4....5....6....7</td>
<td>35</td>
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</table>

B. Now we would like you to go through these same scales for a second time. Again, imagine that you are meeting a person for the first time and the only information you have is that she is an adult female. This time, please put a slash on each scale according to what you would expect an adult female to be like. Put the letter "F" above your second slash on each scale.

PLEASE BE SURE TO MARK EVERY ITEM.

C. Next, please go through these same scales for a third time, placing a slash on each scale according to what you are like. Put an "S" above the third slash on each scale.

D. Last of all, please go through these same scales for a fourth time placing a slash on each scale according to what you would consider to be the Ideal Woman. Put an "I" above the fourth and last slash.
1. Age

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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>34.5</td>
<td>24-45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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2. Educational Level of Subjects

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<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
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3. Choice to Work Outside the Home

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Appendix D

Competency Items on the Broverman
Sex-Role Stereotype
Questionnaire
Not at all aggressive
Very irrational
Very impractical
Not at all independent
Not at all consistent
Not at all realistic
Very subjective
Mainly interested in details

Never thinks before acting
Very easily influenced
Doesn't mind at all when things are not clear
Very submissive
Dislikes math and science very much
Very excitable in a major crisis
Very excitable in a minor crisis
Not at all strict
Very weak personality
Very passive
Not at all competitive
Very illogical
Not at all competent
Very home oriented
Not at all skilled in business
Very sneaky
Does not know the ways of the world
Not at all willing to accept change
Feelings easily hurt
Not at all adventurous
Not at all intelligent
Has difficulty making decisions
Gives up very easily
Very shy
Never does things without being told
Cries very easily
Always worried
Not at all intellectual
Not at all self-confident
Feels very inferior
Very uncomfortable about being aggressive

Very aggressive
Very rational
Very practical
Very independent
Very consistent
Very realistic
Very objective
Mainly interested in generalities

Always thinks before acting
Not at all easily influenced
Minds very much when things are not clear
Very dominant
Likes math and science very much
Not at all excitable in a major crisis
Not at all excitable in a minor crisis
Very strict
Very strong personality
Very active
Very competitive
Very logical
Very competent
Very worldly
Very skilled in business

Very direct
Knows the ways of the world
Very willing to accept change
Feelings not easily hurt
Very adventurous
Very intelligent
Makes decisions easily

Never gives up easily
Very outgoing
Always does things without being told
Never cries
Never worried
Very intellectual
Very self-confident
Feels very superior
Not at all uncomfortable about being aggressive

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| Very poor sense of humor | Very good sense of humor |
| Greatly prefers being in a group | Doesn't care about being in a group |
| Very strong need for security | Very little need for security |
| Not at all ambitious | Very ambitious |
| Very rarely takes extreme positions | Very frequently takes extreme positions |
| Unable to separate feelings from ideas | Able to separate feelings from ideas |
| Very dependent | Not at all dependent |
| Avoids new experiences | Seeks out new experiences |
| Not at all restless | Very restless |
| Very conceited about appearance | Never conceited about appearance |
| Retiring | Forward |
| Very conventional | Not at all conventional |
| Not at all assertive | Very assertive |
Appendix E

Computer Code Book
A Comparison Study of Women in Three Work Roles in Relationship to Perception of Self as Being Competent

Researcher: Merry Pattison  
Telephone #: 343-3890  
4109 S. Rose  
Kalamazoo 49001

**File Name:** COMPW  
**Computer Number:**  
**Coder:** Merry Pattison  
**Data Storage:**  
**Format:**  
**Date Completed:**

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**Typical Male Scores**

- Warmth Expressive scores: 51-52, 54, 57, 60-61, 68, 71-72, 76-77, 82
- Separate scores: 75, 79-80

**Typical Female Scores**

- Same as Typical Male Scores in Coding

**Real Self Scores**

- Same as Typical Male Scores in Coding

**Ideal Self Scores**

- Same as Typical Male Scores in Coding
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Appendix F

Results of the Specific Competency Items That Were Significantly Different Within the Three Occupational Roles
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<td>4.67 (2)</td>
<td>4.18 (3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>Logical</td>
<td>.0529</td>
<td>4.74 (2)</td>
<td>5.27 (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>Worldly</td>
<td>.0189</td>
<td>2.75 (3)</td>
<td>3.08 (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>Skilled in Business</td>
<td>.0002</td>
<td>3.84 (3)</td>
<td>4.91 (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42</td>
<td>Intelligence</td>
<td>.0291</td>
<td>4.93 (2)</td>
<td>4.78 (3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49</td>
<td>Acts as a Leader</td>
<td>.0216</td>
<td>4.20 (2)</td>
<td>4.02 (3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>53</td>
<td>Intellectual</td>
<td>.0001</td>
<td>4.58 (2)</td>
<td>4.34 (3)</td>
</tr>
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