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ABSTRACT This 114-item annotated bibliography identifies prior research relevant to the individual, group, and organizational factors involved in the introduction of women into work groups in traditionally male career fields. Most of the literature discovered in the search is concerned with identifying rather than alleviating problems that women experience in non-traditional careers. Arranged alphabetically by author, each entry includes bibliographical information and a paragraph describing the contents of the document. Nearly half of the citations were published after 1976. (MEK)

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INTRODUCTION OF WOMEN INTO WORK GROUPS IN TRADITIONALLY MALE CAREER FIELDS:
ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

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This technical report has been reviewed and is approved for publication.

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The purpose of this annotated bibliography is to identify prior research relevant to the individual, group, and organizational factors involved in the introduction of women into work groups in traditionally male career fields. This search revealed that most of the literature has been concerned with the problems that women experience rather than those methods which give insights to alleviating the problems of women in non-traditional careers.
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Introduction

For many years prior to 1972, the relatively small number of women in the military services were assigned to a limited number of traditionally female tasks, such as nursing and clerical work (Thomas, 1978). In recent years, however, changes in the military and in the American society in general have resulted in a climate increasingly conducive to the development of new roles for military women. In the Air Force, as in the other military services, the decision was made to expand the utilization of women to a wide range of occupational specialties, and many traditionally male jobs have been opened to women.

The purpose of the present project was to identify prior research that was relevant to the individual, group, and organizational factors involved in the introduction of women into work teams in traditionally male career fields. In order to identify potentially relevant literature, several approaches were used, including computerized searches, the Psychological Research Services (psychological literature), Sociological Abstracts (sociological literature), National Technical Information Service, and Government Printing Office (governmental reports and documents), and ABI/Inform (business and management literature). A non-computerized index of research on women, Women's Studies Index, was consulted, along with the pamphlet collection on women, at the McKeldin Library of the University of Maryland. References were also gathered from several bibliographies on women. Finally, researchers who had recently published relevant articles were contacted for information about current research.

A review of the literature that had been collected led to the conclusion that there has been little research on topics such as the characteristics of women who are successful in such careers, the behaviors and traits of women who are most effective and accepted in work groups, and the behaviors and traits of men who are most effective in working with and supervising women. However, a fairly large body of relevant research is available concerning the problems women have in traditionally male careers, the role of one individual in a group or job, women's integration into previously all-male colleges and military academies, and attitudes about women.

A review of the relevant research literature suggests several avenues for understanding and facilitating the introduction of women into traditionally male career fields. One method suggested by this literature is to focus primarily on performance measures, such as the physical strength and endurance requirements of basic training and certain military jobs. Another method is to study the more subtle
barriers which seem to center around resentment at the violation of the traditional sex roles and the effects of "feminine" characteristics on leadership and performance.

Most of the relevant literature concerns the problems women experience rather than those methods which give insights into alleviating the problems of women in non-traditional careers. Some research indicates that special programs for women, which reduce contact between women and their peers, tend to increase rather than decrease women's problems in these careers.

Finally, it appears necessary not only to eliminate discriminatory behavior toward women, but also to develop and employ methods that increase the successful introduction of women into non-traditional careers. A potentially useful strategy to reduce some of the problems women face in nontraditional fields may be to employ women in larger groups, thereby avoiding the problems of isolation and providing group support and role model opportunities.
ANOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY


   Military basic training appears to reinforce the masculine self image regarding competition and aggression, and the rejection of intimacy and warmth. It also fosters identification with the work team through division of labor and group punishment. Somewhat inconsistent with this, is the encouragement of competition within the team.


   Women in high-level professions tend to be motivated by needs for achievement and autonomy. They tend to be intelligent, independent, sensitive to the feelings of others, but often somewhat lower in ego-strength than male counterparts. Women tend to be less career committed, although the basis of this is unclear, and they serve a supportive, "stroking" function in the work environment.


   This test, based on Bass' theory of interpersonal behavior in organizations, consists of 27 forced-choice interest and opinion items. There are three scales in the test: Self-Orientation, Interactional-Orientation, and Task-Orientation.


   A survey of male managers' attitudes toward working women indicated that managers believed that different treatment was necessary. They responded unfavorably toward women's dependability and supervisory potential. They did not tend to discriminate on the basis of capabilities, life-style, emotionality, or lack of career orientation. Managers who interacted with female co-workers on other than a peer level had more negative reactions.

The authors analyzed the experiences of a woman manager using the paradigm of family interactions. The authors noted that she had little organizational support and could not control her staff who often vied for power. The conclusion was that her difficulties arose from lack of training and sex role behaviors inconsistent with female leadership.


The relationship of situational moderators (group cohesiveness, supervisor support, and autonomy) to four psychological strains (job dissatisfaction, life dissatisfaction, low self-esteem, and depressed mood) was investigated. Group cohesiveness had an inconsistent moderating influence on strain, and autonomous individuals showed a lower relationship between role ambiguity and psychological strain. Beehr cites brief measures of the moderators and strains.


Bem argues that sexual orientation should be considered independent of mental health. She proposes that masculinity and femininity are complementary domains of positive traits, and that an individual may be both masculine and feminine as the situation demands. In addition, a healthy gender identity is considered possible only when masculinity and femininity are appropriately blended.


This report indicates that subjects who were rated as more sex-stereotypic (low in androgyny) felt more discomfort performing sex-inappropriate behaviors and were less willing to be photographed at these tasks.


This study used scales to categorize subjects independently on dimensions of masculinity and femininity, resulting in four categories (high or low on each independent dimension). Ratings were shown to correlate with a variety of measures such as autonomy, suggesting that masculinity and femininity are independent dimensions rather than polar opposites.
A review of the history and current role of women in the military suggests that they are at least as competent as males at various white-collar jobs. While some women may have the requisite strength and endurance for battle-related jobs, perfection of measurement of physical attributes might be a necessary prior condition for opening up these jobs. Women have less difficulty integrating into groups when the proportion of males to females is less than 3:1.

A survey of 2,000 executives, half male and half female, indicated that men who work with women are more favorable to women executives. Male executives also indicated discomfort in being subordinate to women, and about half of the executives felt that women do not want authority positions.

Brandt administered the Jackson Personality Research Form and Bem Sex Role Inventory to women majoring in elementary education and the sciences. The science majors showed less feminine sex typing and were higher in autonomy, achievement and dominance. It was suggested that women who assume nontraditional roles show fuller, more flexible personality styles.

This review evaluates techniques for assessing attitudes in general and toward women in particular. Difficulties are pointed out in overly simplistic measures and biased self-reports, and an emphasis is laid on multifactorial measures and careful relation of the measures to observable behavior.

This paper describes the development of an 18-item Likert-scored job satisfaction scale, and reports a corrected reliability of .87 and evidence for concurrent validity.

In a nationwide survey of men and women in a variety of job types, respondents were asked to rate the relative importance of job attributes of high salary, security, short hours, advancement, and feelings of accomplishment. Correlations between male and female ratings ranged from .9 to 1.0, indicating no sex difference in preference for job attributes.


A review of the literature on fear of success as a motive in women suggests a situational rather than motivational interpretation of fear of success. Women appear to fear, not success, but the negative consequences of deviating from traditional sex roles in certain situations.


Constantinople reviews the theory and measurement of masculinity-femininity as a unidimensional bipolar concept. She concludes that evidence indicates the multidimensionality of the construct. Current scales are based on the unidimensional view of the construct, use sex differences in response as the primary criterion, and are therefore inadequate as measures of masculinity-femininity.


A self-esteem scale with high reliability and some rather unsystematic evidence of validity indicates that self-esteem is multidimensional. The emerging factors of self-esteem are: self-deprecation, leadership-popularity, family-parents, and assertiveness-anxiety.


This report discusses the areas of discrimination against women in the Navy. Coye cites the following as problems for Navy women: assignment to traditionally female jobs; assigning women into specialist rather than generalist positions; the absence of career development patterns; and underutilization of women line officers.

A questionnaire surveying male and female Naval Officers reveals that women are confident in their abilities but dissatisfied with unequal career opportunity. Men are more variable and inconsistent, tending to maintain negative attitudes based on stereotypes concerning women's abilities. That is, they felt women could be effective managers but not line officers.


The authors present survey results indicating that women are less satisfied and more underpaid in their jobs, partly as a result of differing childhood socialization. The authors feel that many stereotypes of working women are incorrect and result from generalizing group characteristics to individuals within the group.


Using a number of questionnaires, DeFleur and Gillman found that women cadets believed their supervision to be fair but to lack understanding, and that they were less accepted than male counterparts. The presence of an overwhelming male majority among peers and superiors, and emphasis on physical performance tend to reinforce these beliefs. Little interaction takes place between male and female cadets, especially for males with highly traditional attitude ratings.


After initial contact with women, male attitudes at the Air Force Academy become more rather than less traditional. Although training together, men and women were otherwise segregated, and the emphasis on physical strength led most women to perform at a lower level than the men, causing them to be cast in traditional roles as well as resented by male members of their squadron.

This is a 56 item scale having questions on equal ability and freedom of action for women, traditional social conduct for women, women's role in the family and women's legal and business ability.


A survey was conducted to determine the attitude differences between Navy women in traditional and non-traditional fields, and the effect of being a solo woman in the work group. Women in nontraditional jobs took a more liberal view of their role in the military and in society, and were more likely to perceive themselves as victims of discrimination. Solo status did not affect ratings.


Specially designed questionnaires were used to evaluate the integration of women into the Naval Academy. Results show upper classmen opposed to integration and resistant to the idea of women on shipboard, but plebes were more favorable, and the egalitarian attitude increased with association with the women. Women tended to favor greater equality including shipboard duty.


A survey of Navy enlisted men and women using an organizational diagnostic scale showed that at lower career grades, women perceive the organizational climate more favorably than do men. At higher grades, there is a change, and women see it as less favorable than do men.


This paper presents a modified version of the Janis-Field Feeling of Inadequacy Scale, and reports reasonable reliability and somewhat variable correlations with presumably related measures.

In three-person groups, the effect of sex on leadership behavior was studied. When women achieved the leader role rather than being appointed, they became intensely involved in the task as well as in emotional support. Both sexes were more directive when the rest of the group was the same sex. In mixed groups, two men would essentially ignore a woman leader, while a single male follower tended to challenge the leader in the presence of another female follower.


Evans suggests that overall job satisfaction is the product of satisfaction with different facets of the job and the importance of those facets. Furthermore, satisfaction with each facet of the job is a function of the importance of goals for that facet and the difference between goal aspiration and goal attainment. No sex differences were reported.


The study suggests that differences in group leadership performance between men and women are due less to differences in sex-role socialization than to organizationally imposed low legitimacy for women. Intervention techniques for backing up women as leaders are suggested.


This is a self-concept inventory which provides an overall self-esteem score and a complex self-concept profile. Reliability and validity are adequate to good, but social desirability aspects may be confounded in the inventory.


The Student Attitude Scale, a 65-item true-false questionnaire, was used to classify women as valuing intellectual achievement, the woman's role, or both. A projective achievement motivation test revealed higher achievement motivation when the task was relevant to that subject's values.

Two surveys on the role of women in the Navy were conducted. The surveys concerned reports of discrimination and attitudes toward Navy women. Opinions of women's abilities were found to be related to attitudes toward expanding the role of Navy women.


A 50-item self-report inventory on assertiveness was tested on college students, revealing males to be more assertive. Three dimensions of assertiveness appear: positive, negative, and self-denial. Reliability estimates are high, while concurrent validity is significant but low (.19).


This paper suggests that women in the service academies can compete successfully, and that sharing the same program will help them overcome initial hostility from their male counterparts. It is noted that less is expected of women officers, and their career aspirations are not always taken seriously.


A 40-item self-report scale on assertion was constructed, with responses indicating degree of discomfort and probability of a response to various situations. The scale appears to be reliable and valid, with women showing reduced discomfort following assertion training.


A survey of working women was undertaken. The results indicated that job satisfaction, as measured by the Cornell Job Description Index, was correlated with job involvement but unrelated to family commitment.

Three-person same-sex groups performed brainstorming and anagram solution tasks. Female subjects, high in self-monitoring, were likely to emerge as leaders. No relationship between self-monitoring and leadership was found for males.


A review of the role of women in the Armed Forces suggests a gradual increase in numbers and broadening of role for women as a result of all-volunteer service. While the military requires equal pay for equal work, women must search for equality based on functional equivalence without the opportunity for similarity of specialization.


Using a modified version of the Bem Sex-Role Inventory, Good et al. revealed that supervisors are rated higher on masculine attributes than subordinates, and subordinates are rated higher on feminine attributes than supervisors of the same sex. Experience in mixed sex groups results in higher ratings of each sex by the other.


A semantic differential scale for assessing women's self-image, female image of the feminine role, and women's perception of the male image of the feminine role shows that self-image predicts styles of coping with role conflict and is associated with satisfaction and happiness. Perception of male images was the best predictor of types of conflicts experienced.

A 480-item true-false inventory, about half of whose items come from the MMPI, the California Psychological Inventory contains several scales including self-esteem, and related concepts like dominance and sociability. Extensive reliability and validity data support the inventory, though it is best used when many variables are of interest rather than as a measure of self-esteem alone.


This instrument is an abbreviated version of Gough's California Psychological Inventory. It is comprised of three scales. The first scale, modernity, is a composite of the several CPI scales dealing with poise, self-assurance and interpersonal adequacy. The second scale, femininity, measures stereotyped feminine traits. The third scale, socialization, measures warmth, empathy, and self-confidence. The scale has primarily been used in studies of family planning.


A 300-item adjective checklist for obtaining several indices of self esteem is presented. The test shows somewhat low test-retest reliability and is related to measures of social desirability. While adjectives are very open to individual interpretation, this is an efficient scale for measuring several variables.


A reliable scale for assessing career salience was applied to both men and women, and career salience was related to congruence between self-image and occupational image for males but not females. The relationship between congruence and satisfaction did not differ as a function of career salience.


This study indicates that competent women are subject to discrimination in a situation where they interact with a man. Whereas when men only observed performance, no discrimination was evident. Competent women were more likely to be excluded from groups than competent men, while incompetent women were more likely to be included, by both male and female members.

This book presents a theoretical and empirical overview of career choice, career development, career outcomes, and career management. For the present research, the most relevant topic is career development. Hall concludes that the following are significant factors in career development and success: challenging initial jobs; supervisory coaching and support; and feedback about performance.


A measure of conflict from different sources indicates that career women have more conflict than homemakers, but also tend to have greater satisfaction. Home pressure was the greatest source of conflict for both groups, and part-time workers showed greatest conflict and least satisfaction.


This study provided subjects with differing explanations of success (luck, ability, task difficulty) for men and women, and found that organizational rewards (pay raises, promotions) tended to be regarded as appropriate as a function of the attribution of cause for success for both sexes.


In a joint decision-making situation, women tend to accept blame for failure but not credit for success when the partner is male, but these self-derogatory attributions disappear when the partner is female.

52. Helmreich, R., Stapp, J., & Ervin, C. The Texas social behavior inventory (TSBI): An objective measure of self-esteem or social competence. JSAS Catalog of Selected Documents in Psychology, 1974, 4, 79.

The Texas Social Behavior Inventory consists of 32 statements regarding social behavior to be rated for the degree to which they are characteristic of the individual. The scale is highly reliable, shows no overall sex differences, exhibits good construct validity, and is characterized by factors of confidence, dominance, and social competence.

Questionnaires concerning the degree of inter-role and intra-role conflict were administered to working men and women, revealing that inter-role conflict is a function of number of roles required, for both sexes. Intra-role conflict is a function of the task demands and is not related to the sex of the worker.


Differentiating a sample of women into one subset with careers and a second subset who viewed their work as a job, Holahan and Gilbert found that career women indicated greater commitment and higher aspirations, though no difference in work competence. Career women reported a higher degree of emotional support from their husbands, while the women having jobs reported greater role conflict.


A review of the literature on men and women in leadership roles indicates that male leaders are perceived as more able, and their performance is attributed to ability while success for women leaders is attributed to luck. However, those women who choose leadership roles show no differences from men, while there are sex differences when individuals are thrust into the role.


Differential responding to items on the Adult Self-Expression Scale suggests that men are more assertive in dealing with bosses and supervisors, stating opinions, and taking the initiative in social contact. Women are more assertive in expressing love, affection, and compliments, as well as in expressing anger.


One of the most carefully developed and frequently cited measures of job satisfaction, the JDI includes 5 scales, dealing with satisfaction with work, pay, promotion, co-workers and supervisors.
In an unstructured same-sex dyadic interaction, women showed greater involvement than men. Those classified as high on Snyder's Self-Monitoring Scale were more likely to initiate conversation, experienced difficulty interacting with low self-monitoring people, and perceived their own and partner's behavior in a manner consistent with the concept of self-monitoring.

In a group performance task in which the sex of the leaders and of the followers was randomly varied, female followers were evaluated more harshly than male followers, but male leaders more harshly than females. No differences in the enjoyment of leadership were evident.

Female confederates were made leaders in a dyadic task with a male subject, with leadership based on: their sex, chance, or success on a pretest. The latter more equitable method resulted in less blame from males after failure and more credit after success.

Combat support unit performance was as good in mixed-sex units as in all-male units. Although women started with lower performance ratings, they ended with ratings equal to or higher than their male counterparts. Some negative ratings of women appear to be connected with the greater physical labor required by enlisted men and NCOs when tasks are deemed too physically taxing for women.

The reaction of an individual to role conflict (incompatible expectations) and role ambiguity (unclear expectations) depends on personality predispositions and contemporaneous relations with the members of the role set.

Interviews with female and male salespersons in a heavily male environment reveal three pressures on women: increased visibility and scrutiny; people exaggerating male and female differences; and people treating all women as though they were alike.


In a case study of a multinational corporation, Kanter has identified some work problems of female clerical workers and female managers. Kanter concludes that many traits ascribed to women which are seen as causing ineffective work behavior, e.g., low aspirations, concern with social rewards, and overcontrol of subordinates, result from their position in the organization rather than from psychological characteristics of women.


Reviews work with 4 sex-role orientation scales, that conceive of masculinity and femininity as orthogonal dimensions. People high on both dimensions (androgynous) tend to have more effective behaviors, and masculine people do better than feminine or undifferentiated types. The advantage in androgyny may be related to greater social utility of masculine-typed behavior.

Surveys of sex-role orientation and self-esteem were given to career-oriented and home-oriented women. No differences in sex-role orientation or self-esteem occurred as a function of career orientation, but women with androgynous orientations had higher self-esteem.


A literature review suggests that women tend to have lower self-confidence, reducing performance and initiative. Situational variables such as sex-typing of the task, feedback, and comparison with others affects women's self-confidence.


The unique problems faced by the first women at Yale revolved around their conspicuousness—they were centers of attention with little time to support each other, and stressed because traditional sex roles seemed inappropriate. Men were somewhat wistful and unclear how to act, wishing to maintain the traditional notion of the Yale community.


In this study of adult development, Levinson, et al., identify the mentor as a significant figure in the work life of many young men. The mentor is an advisor, sponsor and friend who initiates the young man into the world of work, acquainting him with its norms and facilitating his advancement. The authors note that women's advancement is often hampered by the unavailability of mentors.


This is a comprehensive review of the theoretical and empirical literature on job satisfaction. Among the topics covered are: definitions of job satisfaction; models of job satisfaction; consequences of satisfaction; work attributes related to job satisfaction; and measures of job satisfaction.

This is an extensive review and annotated bibliography (updating an earlier Maccoby book) on sex differences. The literature most relevant for this research concerns: achievement motivation; self-esteem; dependency; cooperation and competition; dominance; and conformity.


Meeker and Weitzel-O'Neill found that sex differences in interpersonal behavior in task-oriented groups were not a function of the "instrumental" approach of men and "social" approach in women, but rather due to status differences. Since men have higher status, they are expected to be more competent and competitive behavior is more legitimate for them than for women.


Surveys of various organizations indicate that men have more friendship choices, greater access to the authority structure, and are accorded greater respect on their judgments. The surveys also indicated that job strain was greater for women with high level jobs and less when women are in low level jobs.


In an ROTC summer training camp, women cadets were rated lower by platoon officer evaluators as well as by both male and female peers. These ratings may be confounded with the combat-preparation orientation of the camp, since women are barred from combat roles.


This review concludes that women of equal qualifications are evaluated less positively for hiring, and causal attributions are less favorable. Actual performance results are mixed, but women tend to be more heavily penalized for sex-role incongruent behavior. Results suggest that competent women are underrated while less competent women are overrated; but historical trends suggest some changing of the imbalance.

Women who select non-traditional blue-collar jobs do so for challenge, independence, and sense of satisfaction and personal growth. While job satisfaction is higher for women who remain in non-traditional jobs than women in traditional jobs or men in either type of job, stress and lack of support due to being a minority are still evident barriers.

77. O'Leary, V. E. The acculturation of women into management. Unpublished manuscript, Oakland University, undated.

The difficulties facing women as a function of promotion into management include negative reactions from husband, added work, fear of lacking skills, awkward social situations with difficulty winning acceptance and discomfort working with men, and the political and role problems of being pulled in many directions.


In a verbal task, women with traditional sex-role attitudes perform better in cooperation with boyfriends than in competition, whereas the opposite pattern holds for those with non-traditional attitudes. Fear of success has less impact on performance except when combined with traditional sex-role attitudes.


A scale to evaluate attitudes toward women in management positions describes three contributing factors: a traditional sex role factor, a concern with feminine "barriers," such as pregnancy and menstruation, and a set of manager descriptive traits which are also attributed to males in general. The scale shows a corrected reliability of .91.

An analysis of the interpersonal interaction in four-person discussion groups reveals that in same-sex groups behavior tends toward traditional stereotypes (male-task oriented, female-socioemotional), but in mixed-sex groups they are less likely to indulge in stereotypic behavior.


A survey of West Point cadets prior to integration of female cadets indicated an overwhelmingly negative attitude toward integration. Priest suggests that interaction with female cadets along with cadets receiving information regarding the stringency of entrance requirements for women will alleviate some of this negativism.


Reviewing the research on the integration of women into West Point, Priest and Prince found that women's leadership ratings show the same pattern of correlations with other variables as do men's, but there are differences in preferred lifestyle after graduation from the Academy.


Dual career families are subject to stress on several dimensions including role overload taxing the energies of both members. Other significant sources of stress include sex role conflict vis-a-vis both the spouse and societal expectations, social obligations, and unequal career achievement.


A questionnaire administered to samples within an organization yielded two independent factors—role conflict and role ambiguity. Ambiguity surprisingly correlated more highly with satisfaction variables and both scales correlated negatively with need fulfillment and leadership behaviors.

Ruble and Higgins found that in small groups, subtle changes in group sex composition have dramatic effects, such that a single woman in a four-person group tends to choose "masculine" opinions, while the presence of two women leads to greater consideration of "feminine" opinions by both sexes.


Working wives with high work commitment were more satisfied with marriage, perceived themselves as prevailing in decision-making, giving in less often in disagreements, and generally possessing more freedom. Those with low work commitment generally perceive decisions and resolution of disagreement as a joint effort, and have a restricted amount of personal freedom. The most relevant part of this paper is the measure of work commitment.


Eight-hundred soldiers were given a questionnaire dealing with the appropriateness of Army jobs for women. Only one job was judged by a majority as inappropriate--rifle-carrying infantry foot soldier. All other jobs, including those involving potential danger and authority over men, were judged by a majority as appropriate.


This report indicates that the personal characteristics rated as important for a manager are perceived as being less likely to be possessed by women.


In a theoretical analysis of organizational politics, Schein describes power bases and methods for using power. She recommends further research on this unexplored area.
A literature review suggests that women are placed as managers according to sex role stereotypes concerning their probable effectiveness rather than based on their objective abilities. Also, they tend to be inadequately trained. Moreover, women managers tend to be excluded from the political network, limiting their acquisition and use of power.

This paper describes the development of a 20-item scale measuring attitudes toward feminism. The scale shows good reliability and correlates with activism in and identification with the women's movement.

A scale is developed for assessing self-monitoring of expressive behavior (i.e., the degree to which facial and vocal expression can be controlled to serve internal and situational demands). An internally consistent and temporally stable scale, it shows reasonable concurrent and discriminative validity in a variety of experimental situations.

Spence and Helmreich developed a 56-item scale for measuring attitudes toward women, and validated it on a large college age and parent population of males and females. Factor-analysis revealed loadings on attitudes about masculine superiority and the patriarchal family (in the male sample); equality of opportunity, and beliefs about social-sexual relationships.

The book summarizes research on several scales related to femininity including the Personal Attributes Questionnaire (PAQ), Attitudes toward Women Scale (AWS), and various measures of need for achievement. The Work and Family Orientation Questionnaire (WFOQ) was developed as a measure of achievement motivation and aspiration, revealing factors of work orientation, competitiveness, mastery, and personal unconcern.

A short form of the Spence-Helmreich (1972) Attitudes toward Women Scale correlated .95 with the long form. Results using the short form indicated that female students are more liberal in their attitudes than males, mothers more liberal than fathers, and students more liberal than parents.


A sample of CGSC class of 1978 students responded to a survey on attitudes toward women, indicating favorably egalitarian social beliefs, except with regard to combat and readiness, where more traditional beliefs were expressed. The issues of readiness and women in combat were strongly related to sex-role perceptions.


Female business students and alumnae completed an Attitudes toward Women Scale and a Performance Self-Esteem Scale (PSES). High PSES ratings were positively related to non-traditional sex role attitudes and negatively related to family involvement, while low PSES ratings were only weakly related to these variables.


Stein and Bailey review the literature on need for achievement in women, concluding that this need is channeled by sex role expectations into achievement in the social arena, but that this behavior is not a result of need for affiliation. The concept of achievement motivation as is usually defined is based on male sex role expectations and is inappropriate for describing female achievement behavior.


Taylor describes experimental research relevant to Kanter's discussion of the solo woman. Taylor reports the results of studies in which college students observed a group that differed in the degree of racial integration: all white; one black; or equal numbers of whites and blacks. The solo black received more attention. More of what he said is remembered and he was seen as more influential. The solo individual was seen as having a special, but not a leadership role.
A simulation of hiring and advancement practices revealed that, while women are equally likely to be hired as men, they are offered lower starting pay. Once hired, women tend to be assigned more routine tasks, and second year advancement tends to increase the gap between men's and women's salaries. Women's advancement is perceived to result from luck, whereas men are perceived to advance as a function of performance.

In a discussion of problems faced by women in the military, Naval wives revealed that they are concerned about their husbands serving with women. Also discussed was the problem of jobs and career advancement being blocked to women due to severely limited housing and the restrictive non-battle status for women.

Women appear to enlist in the Navy for roughly the same reasons as men, but the occupational values of the women are less appropriate for the non-traditional jobs to which they may be assigned. Women were more negative toward physical risk, monotony, and jobs dealing with materials or machines rather than people.

Thomas reviews research on the role of women in the military, focusing on whether society is ready for women in combat, whether women are physically capable of combat, and on the effect of integrating military units on their order and discipline. It is noted that previously little attention was paid to women's career behavior or interpersonal problems in cross-sex supervision and leadership, but the role of women in the military is currently being redefined more positively.

The role of women in the military. Hearings before the Subcommittee on Priorities and Economy in Government, 1975.

This research was undertaken to determine the attitudes of midlevel female Naval officers. In general, these women favored equal opportunity for Naval men and women, including competition for available billets. These women also reported that negative male attitudes interfered with their work.


There was little difference in the female role concepts of Navy wives and women in the Navy. Navy wives do not exhibit negative reactions to an integrated work environment, but Navy women express dissatisfaction over on-the-job relationships with Navy men.


This paper infers maladaptive styles of male response to female success, including stereotyping and hostile resistance.


This report states that later classes of women in the military academy are performing better than the first class, but stereotypes among male cadets persist, resulting in difficulty with fraternizing, occasional pranks and jokes, etc. The role of cadet leaders in encouraging women is seen as crucial.


Women enter the Academy with goals similar to their male counterparts, but differ in their physical aptitudes and attitudes toward the role of women. Negative attitudes among male cadets persist, especially upper classmen in units with no women. The generally lower physical aptitude of women contributes to the perception that they "do not belong," and in general women cadets are not accepted as peers.

Using Bakan's distinction between agency and communion to develop an adjective checklist scale, White found that women high in both agency and communion have advantages over those high in only one or neither characteristic.


Winter discusses the power motive in terms of a disposition to strive for certain goals (i.e., acquisition and use of power) or to be affected by certain incentives. He developed a scoring system for a set of TAT-like pictures, scoring response in terms of power imagery. Widely varying estimates of reliability are presented, and relations to other variables such as need to achieve are suggested.


Within small groups, T-groups or psychiatric work groups, a solo woman tended to be isolated and kept from power, either by ignoring the woman or labeling her behavior with an appropriate stereotype.

Women in the Army study. Prepared by the Office of Deputy Chief of Staff for Personnel, Department of the Army, Washington, DC, December 1976.

Problem areas for women in the military include basic and occupational specialty training records, the role of women officers, pregnancy, and attitudes of personnel to the use of women in the Army, especially regarding combat.


Zellman suggests that the work place is structured around male values and this results in barriers to full female participation. Those barriers include inflexibility regarding the home and child care, sex segregation in the work place, lack of on-the-job training opportunities, and differing background experiences such as the military.
This paper presents a self-esteem scale in which one must locate oneself relative to successful and less successful people. The scale shows reasonable reliability but questionable validity in that it does not correlate with other self-esteem measures.