

PROFESSIONAL WOMEN TODAY:
THE RELATIONSHIP OF THEIR SEX-ROLE IDENTITIES TO
ANXIETY, DEPRESSION, HOSTILITY,
AND SELECTED DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

By

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Carolyn B. Reed

To Robert and Joyce,
Bob,
and
Sharon

Know the strength of man,
But keep a woman's care!
Be the stream of the universe!
Being the stream of the universe,
Ever true and unswerving,
Become as a little child once more.

Know the white,
But keep the black!

Twenty-Eight
Tao Te Ching, Lao Tzu

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Carolyn B. Reed

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A review of research on professional women determined that women are working in a wide variety of professional positions at growing rates across the country. The research indicated that the complex responsibilities regarding home and work would tend toward high personal stress and family disruption. While no empirical research was found on professional women and sex-role identity, it was concluded from the literature that they would experience confusions because of conflict in feminine role stereotyping during adolescence and the requirements for masculine-related characteristics in the work world. Three hypotheses were set to investigate the relationship of professional women's sex-role identities to anxiety, depression, hostility, and demographic variables.

Of the 501 professional women surveyed in Hillsborough County, Florida, during December, 1978, and January, 1979, 335 or 67 percent responded by completing a Demographic Information Questionnaire, Bem Sex-Role Inventory (Bem), and Multiple Affect Adjective Checklist (MAACL). Follow-up interviews were held with fifteen respondents.

Factor analyses, discriminant analyses, and Chi-square tests were employed in testing the null hypotheses. The results of the analytical process follow.

Hypothesis 1. There is no relationship between professional women's sex-role identities and their psychological well-being as measured by scores of anxiety, depression, and hostility.

Hypothesis 2. There is no relationship between professional women's sex-role identities and selected demographic variables: occupation, marital status, age, times married and divorced, children, educational level, career interruptions, career stage, career pattern, and self-report of job satisfaction and home satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3. There is no relationship between professional women's psychological well-being (anxiety, depression, hostility scores) and the selected demographic variables.

Hypothesis 1 and 3 failed to be rejected. Hypothesis 2 was rejected in part. One pair of variables within that hypothesis was determined to have a statistically significant relationship: career stage and anxiety. As movement

through career stages occurred, anxiety decreased. The more advanced stage persons described themselves as occupying, the less anxious they also described themselves.

Equal numbers of women responded from the three occupational categories: science, business, and education. Additional classifications of demographic data formed groups of fairly equal size. Over 77 percent described themselves as "somewhat" to "completely" satisfied with their jobs; over 83 percent responded "somewhat" to "completely" satisfied concerning home satisfaction. Scores on the MAACL indicated that respondents were significantly lower on the anxiety scale than a norming population of average women; and they were less, though not significantly, hostile and depressed. The Bem characterized respondents: 48 percent, Androgynous; 24 percent, Masculine; 18 percent, Feminine; and 10 percent, Undifferentiated.

An absence of stereotypical disaccord across demographic groupings was reported. Professional women today are well trained, highly responsive, and satisfied with home and career. Specifically, there is a need to examine further this newly growing force of professionals. Suggestions for further research include the following: 1) a longitudinal study to evaluate changes over time; 2) the examination of female adaptability and/or tolerance; 3) the addition of demographic data such as relation and cultural background, parental attitudes, and income level; and 4) a replication of the present research study.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

From her first faint struggles toward freedom and justice, to her present valiant efforts toward full economic and political equality, each step has been termed unfeminine; and resented as an intrusion upon man's place and power. Woman's natural work as a female is that of mother, man's natural work as a male is that of father; but human work covers all our life outside of these specialities. That one sex should have monopolized all human activities, called them "man's work," and managed them as such, is what is meant by the phrase "Androcentric Culture." (Gilman, as cited in Glazer-Malbin & Waehrer, 1972, p. 132).

This statement written by Charlotte Perkins Gilman in 1914 long remained an accurate reflection of the gender orientation on the world of work and on child-rearing practices. Generally, men have worked in jobs away from the home, and women have worked at home or in "appropriately" feminine jobs. Child-rearing practices corresponded with this orientation as well: little boys were given guns or sports equipment, and girls were given dolls. Boys were taught to compete and achieve, girls, to listen and support. Progress toward the expansion of women's professional roles and of children's sex-role socialization has gradually taken place from the turn of the twentieth century through today. That progress during the thirties, forties and fifties, although quite

significant, was nowhere as visible and resounding as the movement from the mid-sixties to the present time.

Within the last decade there has been a recognizable shift in the patterns of women's choices of occupations and in the acceptance of that shift in the world around them. Women have become more visible in a wider range of occupations than ever before. This is especially significant when viewed in a political perspective of our country's time of peace. Historically, women have been required to carry on the nation's industry during war times but have been permitted only limited participation during peace time. Men are presently employed within the nation, not engaged in combat in foreign countries, and yet women continue moving into and performing what Gilman termed "man's work." This is true of the professional occupations as well as the unskilled and skilled ones.

Also within the last decade, there has been a shift in the patterns of child-rearing practices. Consciousness-raising, a term coined in conjunction with the women's liberation movement, has affected parents, men and women singularly, employers, the federal government, and others. Parents are teaching both little girls and boys to compete and to support, to achieve and to listen. Books for these children are being edited to eliminate sexual biases. Numerous other practices are affecting the sex-role identities of these children. Women working today were reared

before these changes began occurring on the current whole-sale basis. Their early socialization was traditionally feminine yet their occupational activities today are traditionally masculine.

Professional women, focus of this study, are university educator, attorney, doctor, dentist, legislator, accountant, and business manager as well as elementary school teacher, nurse, and social worker. They have entered the Androcentric, male, work culture and are actively involved in the process of helping change that to an Androgynous culture, one valuing both female and male characteristics.

Statement of the Problem

A change of such scope and magnitude has brought with it some necessarily challenging questions regarding the compatibility of a woman's early feminine socialization and her desire for occupational achievement. The literature indicates that childhood practices that are conducive to feminine sex typing are antagonistic to those that lead to achievement-oriented behaviors. Those women who are now working were reared before the mid-sixties and the corresponding impact on child-rearing practices. They were generally reared in traditionally feminine constructs. While inculcated goals included scholastic achievement, the primary message was to be feminine or attractive enough to insure marriage and its benefits. Thus, femininity and its accompanying attributes were nourished and valued, while

achievement was encouraged--but with limitations. Past research has shown that females achieved well during their early school years, but many young women reduced their achievement efforts as they reached adolescence and adulthood because of a pressure to adhere to feminine role definitions (Stein & Bailey, 1973). Shine, but not too brightly, was a mixed message often received by these women during childhood and adolescence.

With the advent of the women's liberation movement, these same women were encouraged to shine as brightly as possible. During this time, career development for women was gaining new recognition and respect. Women began to enter the work market with goals beyond those of working a few years before quitting to settle down and have a family. In large numbers, they moved into work environments which supported traditionally masculine constructs. New goals of self-expression through life career plans (Super, 1957) were being realized yet conventional goals of marriage and family were simultaneously set.

"Can I be both a successful woman and a successful person?" was the question phrased by Glazer-Malbin and Waehrer (1972) as essential to understanding the women's career problem in the United States. The same question was asked from a slightly different perspective on the cover of a current issue of Ms magazine, "Can Women Really Have It All" (1978). That caption accompanied a picture of a woman

split in half: one side was clothed in a business suit carrying an attaché case, the other was in house clothes holding a child. The discrete elements of our Western standards of masculinity-femininity, the Jugian animus-anima, the oriental yin-yang are symbolized in this picture. "How can a woman live out her masculine side and at the same time be her own feminine self?" (de Castillejo, 1973, p. 17) was another author's version of the question.

Current career theorists have reported that men have an easier task of role definition than women. Historically, our society has set masculinity as the standard for a psychologically healthy man and femininity as the standard for women (Broverman, Vogel, Broverman, Clarkson, & Rosenkrantz, 1970, 1972). Bem (1974) has written that the healthy personality has included a sexual identity of three components: "1) A sexual preference for members of the opposite sex; 2) A sex-role identity as either masculine or feminine depending on one's gender, and 3) A gender identity, i.e., a secure sense of one's maleness or femaleness" (p. 1). Feminine constructs for traditional sex-role identity have included intuition, passivity, tendermindedness, dependence, empathy, and sensitivity. Male constructs for traditional sex-role identity have included independence, assertiveness, objectivity, analytic ability, and tough mindedness (Bardwick, 1971; Williams, 1977). These constructs, while seemingly limited for an individual of either sex, do fit to a large

degree within our traditional view of man and woman; the working, caretaker husband and the nurturing, caregiver woman. Homemaking has been congruent with feminine constructs, and career activity with masculine ones.

The questions for men, how do I succeed within my gender identity as a man and how do I succeed as a person are given basically one answer: through occupational achievement. For the woman, it is more complex. Woman, by her ability to bear children and by her socialization within our culture, has been the nucleus of family life. How do I succeed within my gender identity as a woman is therefore answered: marriage and the development of womanly/feminine attributes. How do I succeed as a person is answered identically for either sex: occupational attainment (Benston, 1969; Levinson, 1977). The two are not consistent for a professional woman. It would appear that she has had three choices with regard to success and sex-role identity: (a) success as a woman and the retention of socialized feminine constructs; (b) success as a person and the acquisition of achievement-oriented masculine constructs; or (c) success as both a woman and a person which requires the effective assimilation of feminine and masculine characteristics. The latter might be described as having it all--retaining feminine characteristics while engaging in occupational achievement. The task of assimilation is related to Bem's (1974) description of androgyny, a concept in which a person has a high degree of both masculine and feminine characteristics.

At this time we do not know what the impact of occupational attainment is on a woman's sex-role identity, i.e., feminine, masculine, androgynous. Because of the inherent difficulties in the effective merger of these disparate roles, a critical assumption has been made regarding professional women: they will choose not to succeed within their gender identity as women and, thus, become unfeminine. Accounts from the literature report that men and women tend to equate assertive, independent strivings in girls and women with loss of femininity (Lerner, 1974). Matina Horner's (1969, 1972) work on achievement motivation theory also speaks to these inherent difficulties. College women in her study feared that work achievement would result in loss of femininity and tended to lower their motivation for success.

We do know that the task of combining home and career goals has a psychological impact on those women who attempt it. Stein and Bailey (1973) conducted an extensive review of the literature on achievement orientation and career development in women and concluded, "There is no path that a woman can choose that is as highly rewarding and relatively conflict free as high occupational achievement is for a man" (p. 246). In the burgeoning literature on stress, and the stressor aspects of roles within the family, one type of role conflict that received attention is that of the employed wife and the conflicting demands of the wife and the

economic provider roles (Croog, 1970). In the past, anxiety alone has been described as the intervening variable in psychological stress analysis and conflict theory. Currently, though, stress theorists include those emotional states that are presumed to have behavior-organizing properties: anxiety, depression, hostility (Lazarus, 1970). Thus, a number of critical properties, anxiety, depression, hostility, are expected to be characteristic of professional women because of conflicts in their sex-role socialization demands and their sex-role career demands. Croog (1970), in his work on the family and stress, wrote that a woman's gainful employment "may lead to emotional distress in the woman as to whether she is following the appropriate female role" (p. 41). We do not know, however, what the relationship of the degree of stress a professional woman experiences is to her sexual role identity. The need for this study arose from the lack of empirical evidence we have regarding professional women, their sex-role identification, and the relationship of that attitude toward stress.

Rationale

While the literature on women and careers has grown in the last decade and has provided us with much information, it has presented almost as many questions. The career-marriage conflict issue is one that required much further investigation (Crites, 1969; Levitt, 1971). Carl Rogers (1959) has written that people move in self-actualizing

directions toward growth, health, self-realization, independence, and autonomy. Rogers (1959, 1961, 1977) posited that experiences which are perceived as enhancing the organism are valued positively and approached while those experiences that are perceived as negating enhancement are valued negatively and avoided. One could assume from sheer numbers alone that professional women perceive occupational attainment positively according to Roger's descriptions since college educated women continue to join the labor force in rising numbers. The Bureau of Labor Statistics (United States Department of Labor, 1975) has reported a rise in the percentage of married women in the labor force: 42.4 percent of married women are now working. Additionally, three out of five women under 30 surveyed in 1974 (Roper, 1974) favored combining marriage, children, and careers. College women in the same poll wrote of goals to combine work and marriage. The information concerning the home-career conflict issue illustrated the difficulties, especially in sex-role identification, that working women have been likely to experience. More research was indicated to clarify these divergent factors.

Within the areas of career theory and career development, there have been limitations concerning information on women. Career theorists have agreed with Holland (1973) that most of our empirical knowledge about personality and vocational behavior has been obtained in studies of men.

Theorists have called for further research about women's career development (Holland, 1973; Super, 1957, 1969; Tiedeman & O'Hara, 1963). Some (Super, 1957, 1969; Vetter, 1973; Westervelt, 1973; Sheehy, 1974) have introduced their concepts of women's career patterns but have not, as yet, developed the concepts beyond initial identification. Additionally, much of the research regarding achievement and sex-role identity has been done with college women and not with women actively involved in the work force.

Prior to this investigation, there had been no specific research on whether or not professional women have experienced a loss of femininity or to what degree their choice of sex-role identity has affected their psychological well-being. One of the primary purposes of this study was to obtain empirically grounded base line data on this issue. This information was needed to expand the available information on career theories as they relate to women. The study presents implications for vocational counseling with the female student and in personal counseling with professional women. Further implications include counseling for dual-career couples. Paralleling the above are implications to the field of counselor education. With an increased awareness of the impact of the home-career conflict on professional women, counselors in preparation may add new knowledge and skills to their educational framework.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the career-home conflict issue with regard to professional women's traditional and nontraditional sex-role identification and their psychological well-being as measured by stress scores of anxiety, depression, and hostility. The following research questions were investigated:

1. What relationship exists between a professional woman's sex-role identity and her psychological well-being as measured by scores of anxiety, depression, and hostility?
2. What relationship exists between a professional woman's sex-role identity and the following variables: occupation, age, marital status, children, educational background, years employed, career stage, career pattern, and self-report of job and home satisfaction.
3. What relationship exists between a professional woman's psychological well-being as measured by stress scores of anxiety, depression, hostility, and the following variables: occupation, age, marital status, children, educational background, years employed, career stage, career pattern, and self-report of job and home satisfaction.

Definition of Terms

- Androgyny: Derived from two Greek words--andros meaning man, and gyne meaning woman. Psychological androgyny is a state or condition in which a person has a high degree of both masculine and feminine characteristics, depending on the situational appropriateness of these behaviors (Bem, 1974).
- Anxiety: A state of uneasiness and distress about future uncertainties; apprehension; worry.

- Depression: A self depreciation and dejection due to a loss, to failure, discouragement, or disillusionment.
- Feminine Constructs: Dependence, passivity, fragility, low pain tolerance, nonaggression, noncompetitiveness, inner orientation, interpersonal orientation, empathy, sensitivity, nurturance, subjectivity, intuitiveness, yieldingness, receptivity, inability to risk, emotional liability, and supportiveness. (Bardwick & Douvan, 1972, p. 225)
- Hostility: State of being antagonistic, showing enmity; animosity, rancor, antipathy.
- Masculine Constructs: Independence, aggression, competitiveness, innovation, self-discipline, stoicism, activity, objectivity, analytical-mindedness, courage, unsentimentality, rationality, confidence, and emotional control. (Bardwick & Douvan, 1972, p. 225)
- Professional Women: A female who has earned a baccalaureate degree or higher and who is gainfully employed in one of three major areas: 1) science and arts, 2) business, and 3) education at the level designated by the United States Department of Labor as professional level.
- Sex Roles: Sets of behaviors considered by society as characteristic to or appropriate of males and females. See feminine and masculine constructs.
- Stress: A mentally or emotionally disruptive influence, a state of distress; anxiety, suffering, sorrow, condition of being in need of assistance.
- Women's Life Patterns: 1. The nurturer who defers achievement--she postpones any strenuous career efforts to marry and start a family but works at a later point.

2. The achiever who defers nurturing--she postpones motherhood in order to prepare for career and to work.
3. The integrator--she combines marriage, career, and motherhood in her twenties. (Sheehy, 1974)

Organization of the Study

The remainder of this study is organized into four chapters and the appendices. A review of the literature related to professional women in the following areas is presented in Chapter II: 1) Employment, Demographic, and Contrastive Characteristics; 2) Socialization and Family Background; 3) Stress Related to Role Identity Conflict and Home/Career Conflict; and 4) Theories of Development, Career, and Sex-Role Identification. Chapter III contains a description of the methods and procedures employed in this study. Results are presented in Chapter IV. Chapter V presents a summary and a discussion of the results as well as recommendations of further study. The appendices contain samples of the correspondence to the participants and the Demographic Information Questionnaire.

CHAPTER II

A REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

The review of the literature related to the investigation regarding professional women is divided into four major areas:

1. Employment, Demographic, and Contrastive Characteristics
2. Socialization and Family Background
3. Stress Related to Role Identity Conflict and Home/Career Conflict
4. Theories of Development, Career, and Sex Role Identification

Employment, Demographic, and Contrastive Characteristics

Factors related to employment, demographic, and contrastive characteristics of professional women are presented first within the review of the literature. While it is accepted that individual differences exist among professional women, past research has indicated that many similarities exist as well. Then an analysis of employment trends will be made, followed by a presentation of common demographic distinctions. Finally, contrastive and comparative characteristics of professional women in relationship to homemakers, to men, and to themselves will be reviewed.

Employment

Today, about 2.3 out of every five American workers are women. Most of them are married; half are over 39 years old. Many have children, and many of them are professionally employed. In May 1978, the United States Department of Labor's Employment and Earnings Manual reported 19,192,000 women in the "professional and technical" category. The figure reflected that 42.9 percent of the persons employed within the national professional work force were women: 11,402,000 women had been reported for the same month of 1977 for the same category which indicated a very large annual growth in the numbers of professional women now employed throughout the country.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics (United States Department of Labor, 1975) reported that women work for the same reasons that men do--to provide for the welfare of themselves, their families, or others and to feel some sense of work accomplishment. If asked why they work, "there is a good chance they would say that they are supplementing family income, to provide their children with a college education, or to help buy or furnish a new home, or to pay for an additional car" (Waldman, 1972, p. 31). For the professional married woman, income alone has not stood as the sole reason for her employment since the higher the family income (up to \$15,000) the greater is the likelihood that she will work (Glazer-Malbin & Waehrer, 1972).

Additionally, Ginzberg (1966) found no relationship between the husband's income and the wife's tendency to work.

Information on work life expectancy based on 1960 labor force patterns showed that women typically took a job in their late teens or early twenties, left the labor force after marriage, resumed work when their child-rearing responsibilities decrease, and retired from the job world in their late fifties or early sixties (Waldman, 1972).

Ginzberg (1966) and Weil (1961) have reported that women during the fifties and sixties interrupted their work to have children (Ginzberg, 1966; Weil, 1961) and not until the children got older did the probability of the mother's returning to work increase (Rossman & Campbell, 1965). This pattern has given way to a new trend.

One of the biggest changes in employment trends is the entry of large numbers of married women, many of whom are mothers. Conflicts of combining home responsibilities and an outside career are presently being dealt with in relationship to new employment. The dual career couple has been an ever increasing factor in society as have been working mothers. In the early seventies, over 18 million married women were working or looking for employment, which is about 60 percent of the female labor force. In 1940, these figures were only about 4.2 million or 30 percent. Since 1960, nearly half of the increase in the labor force has been accounted for by married women: 42.4 percent of such women

are presently employed. Many of these women were newcomers to employment, and many were mothers of pre-school children which is a significant change from even a decade ago.

Although Schlossberg's (1972) statement that women have limited their vocational aspirations because of sex-role stereotyping of the job market is well supported by her research, women are reported to be moving at an ever increasing rate into formerly male dominated occupations. These increases have taken place in professional employment as well as blue collar employment in spite of the following sex-role barriers: physical, legal, technical, cultural, sociological, and family (Glazer-Malbin & Waehrer, 1972). Cameron (1978), in describing the sex-role barriers, wrote that in the fifties, women in traditionally male dominated careers "were considered curiosities--when they were considered at all" (p. 17), and that although a subtle and elusive form of discrimination is now present, it does not approach the "outrageous manner" (Cameron, 1978, p. 17) of the fifties and even sixties. In spite of many positive changes, employment discrimination has continued to exist. Two bills have been passed by the United States government to help enforce against employment discrimination. The Equal Pay Act of 1963 requires equal pay for equal work regardless of sex. The Title VII Civil Rights Act of 1964 prohibits any discrimination based on sex and forbids employers to exclude women from any job.

Social change has taken place in relationship to expanded female employment as well as in relationship to employment trends and hiring practices. Osipow's (1975) research of the sixties seems to have been a good predictor of this social phenomenon. He found that the more work experience a woman has, the fewer children she wants and has. There are presently, in times of high numbers of female employment, fewer children per marriage. In 1977, 1.07 children per couple were reported. This number is low when compared to 1.27 children in 1970 and to 2.7 in 1960 (Sease, 1978). Additional social changes include households and marriage. One-fourth of all American households today are nonfamily households which indicates fewer marriages. The proportion of women in 1960 who were still single through age 24 was only 28 percent. Today it is 48 percent. Statistics from the United States Department of Labor (1978) substantiate Sease's figures. They report that as the percentage of unmarried women from the age range of 20 to 24 increases, the average age of marriage increases, and the birth rate falls. The percentage of women in the labor force, married, or unmarried; mothers and nonmothers; professional, skilled, and unskilled has increased greatly within the last 40 years and continues to rise annually.

Demographic Characteristics

Additional research regarding professional women examines similarities in demographic characteristics. In

Psathas's work (1968), demographic factors affecting the relationship between sex role and occupational role in determining career entry were identified. First order factors included intent to marry, time of marriage, reasons for marriage, husband's economic status, and husband's attitude toward the woman's working. Second order factors included social class, educational level, values, and parents' occupations.

Karman (1972) found several differentiating variables when examining differences in college women planning careers in male-dominated fields versus those planning careers in traditionally female fields. Theoretical orientation, grade point average, mother's educational level, amount of interaction with faculty, and attitudes toward women's role were characteristics separating the two groups of women. Harmon's work (1970), much like Karman's, examined differences in career committed and noncareer committed women. Those who were defined as career committed attended college longer and worked more years after leaving college. Also, they had fewer children and bore them at a more advanced age than the noncommitted.

Ginzberg (1966) found four factors that affected women's career choices: psychological support from parents, willingness to fight for top jobs, husband's attitude, and the number of children she had. Matthews (1974) concurred with Ginzberg that the view of the husband was crucial for a

working woman. Wolfson (1976) found that as the number of years in college increased, so did the likelihood of a woman working; and Cook and Stone (1973) concluded that women with high levels of education were more likely to work than those without.

In Wolfson's (1976) follow-up study of women educated in 1930, she found that career patterns were predictable from demographic data collected after graduation rather than the data collected during their freshman year. Wolfson used Zytowski's (1969) three career patterns--mild, moderate, unusual--and found the following factors to be significant: marital status, husband's income, number of children, age of youngest child, and marital satisfaction.

Comparative and Contrastive Characteristics with Others

Other ways of describing characteristics of professional women is to compare and contrast them with homemakers and working men, and to contrast professional women in traditional female fields with those in male dominated career fields.

Women and Homemakers. In E. C. Lewis' Developing Women's Potential (1968), he wrote

The girl who aims for a career is likely to be frustrated and dissatisfied with herself as a person. She is less well adjusted than those who are content to become housewives. Not only is she likely to have a poor self-concept, but she also probably lacks a close relationship with her family. (p. 33)

This statement is most clearly refuted by research which contrasts the "girl who aims for a career" to the girl who becomes a homemaker. In 1972, Lipman-Blumen found that young women with nontraditional sex role concepts had higher educational aspirations and were more likely to consider their own achievement, as opposed to their husband's, important than women with more traditional sex role standards. Steinman (1974) described the homemaker's distinguishing feature as that of fulfillment by proxy, her achievement being that of helping others to achieve. In contrast, Steinman saw career-oriented or modern women as embracing a self-achieving orientation, striving to fulfill themselves directly by realizing their own potential.

Zissis (1964) studied personality traits to determine which might differentiate career-oriented freshman women and marriage-oriented freshman women by using the Leary Interpersonal Check List with 550 students at Purdue University. Zissis found that the career-oriented women tended to fit the masculine stereotype, and the marriage-oriented students fit the feminine stereotype. The career-oriented students were more achievement oriented, dominant, and persevering; the marriage-oriented group was more docile, self-effacing, and cooperative. Rand (1968) studied the same type of group four years later and made similar discoveries. She found marriage-oriented freshman women were higher on feminine scales. Both groups were equally well adjusted, but they

showed these differences. Career-oriented women displayed more independence, leadership, achievement motivation, and assertiveness. The other group showed more sociability, care and understanding of others, and more conservatism. An earlier study by Hoyt and Kennedy (1958) provided similar results. In an attempt to study personality factors of career-oriented and homemaker-oriented women, Hoyt and Kennedy studied a group of 407 college freshmen women. In comparing the personality patterns of the two groups, they found that the career-oriented students were higher on scales of endurance, achievement, and intraception, and the homemaker-oriented students were higher on the succorance and heterosexuality scales. A study by Gysbers, Johnston, and Gust (1968) resulted in similar results. They found career-oriented women more intellectual and enterprising, and homemakers more social and conventional.

Block (1973) found an inverse relationship between upward mobility and femininity. Of those women in her study who were employed, 75 percent in her two lowest sex-appropriate groups were found to have patterns of high occupational mobility. She wrote,

Socialization tends to mitigate against career interests in women, but with those women who become professionals, their advancements is more likely if they diverge from the traditional feminine stereotype. (Block, 1973, p. 525)

Gump (1972) took another direction in examining career-oriented women. In her work with female college students,

she found that purposive, resourceful women were less traditional in their sex role orientation than other women. Although she found that college women could be feminine and possess high ego strength, she also determined that ego strength is inversely related to the adoption of the female sex role. Potential career women were found to be psychologically stronger than their conventional counterparts. Additionally, for high ego strength, career-oriented women, achievement was not a singular interest. Nontraditional college women had multi-faceted interests; among those were scholastic achievement and occupational attainment, but in no way were they exclusive. Bem (1974) came to a similar conclusion as Gump. She determined that the feminine woman had less confidence in the appropriateness of her behavior than did the masculine or androgynous woman. The feminine woman, most often a homemaker, may be overly concerned about the negative consequences of her behavior, regardless of whether the behavior is masculine-instrumental or feminine-expressive, surmized Bem.

Waller (1974) studied four career life styles of married, college educated women: (1) housewife, (2) housewife and volunteer, (3) interrupted career woman, (4) continuous career woman and obtained results similar to Gump's and Bem's. Within the four categories, housewives experienced the lowest self-concept which declined even further as their children grew up and moved away. The housewives and

volunteers group, the interrupted career group, and those involved in a continuous career experienced more confidence and feelings of contentment than the housewife. The continuous career women reported less satisfaction with marriage than the other groups. Waller concluded that combining home and career activities which are volunteer or paid results in a higher self esteem for those women than do the activities of the homemaker.

Thus, in comparing career-oriented women with homemakers, consistent themes are repeated. The career-oriented or professional women appear to have a higher self-concept and higher ego strength than homemakers, at least in the studies available. And the professional women score high on masculine constructs of personality inventories; and homemakers score high on feminine scales. The next contrast is that of professional women with their male counterparts, and will be followed by examining differences and similarities of career women in traditional and nontraditional career fields.

Comparison and Contrast of Professional Women and Men.

Hennig and Jardin (1976) reported from The Managerial Woman that women behave differently at work than their male colleagues. Their perceptions are that men tend to focus on their bosses' expectations of them while women tend to concentrate on their own concept of themselves. Business women were described as generally having little willingness

to adopt a different style for reasons of self interest. "They bring with them the manners of another society--one in which relationships tend to be ends in themselves: 'I can't work with him' is an example of that kind of trap" (Hennig & Jardin, 1977, p. 80).

Female graduate students tended to be more nontraditional in their attitudes toward women's roles than male graduate students (Anderson, 1976). Anderson found that men choosing traditionally masculine occupations were more rigid in their perceptions of women's roles than were men choosing traditionally feminine occupations. Anderson also reported that whereas female graduate students associated their self-actualization with the fulfillment of their sex identity as adult females, male students associated their self-actualization with achievement. Interpersonal affiliative relations concerned senior college women, while scholastic achievement and occupational placement were the concerns of their male counterparts (Schlossberg, 1976).

Career men and women tend to look at success differently as well. Kukla (1972) found that high achievement-motivated men attributed their success to high ability and effort and attributed their failures to their lack of effort or to bad luck. Their attributions fit Frieze's (1975) definition of maximum self-esteem: internal or stable attribution for success and external or unstable attribution for failure. Whereas career men fit this pattern of maximum

self-esteem career women did not compete as favorably. When explaining success, women were likely to respond with unstable causes such as luck. Stable explanations were then given when explaining failure (Falbo, Beck, & Melton, 1976). Therefore, when compared to men, professional women tended to have a lower self-esteem, lower achievement concerns in college, and higher social concerns. They tended to be less traditional than men with regard to women's roles and yet more naive with the business world.

Contrast Traditional and Nontraditional Career Women.

The final theme of contrast is the professional woman in traditional female fields and those in male-dominated career fields. Tangri (1972) studied 200 college women and found that the women who chose predominately male career fields were less likely to displace their achievement concerns onto their present or future husbands than the women who chose traditional career fields. The nontraditional choosers were termed role-innovators. They aspired to higher levels of success and expressed greater commitment to their careers than the traditional career woman. The role-innovators appeared to be more autonomous and individualistic; and they reported as many romantic relationships, more male friendships, and a more balanced relationship with both parents than the other group.

Nagely's study (1971) of 20 role-innovators or pioneers and 20 traditional career women indicated that

those in the nontraditional career fields had the following characteristics in common: more committed to careers, well educated and supportive fathers, husbands working at higher occupational levels, and cooperative home decision making responsibility.

A third study by Almquist and Angrist (1970) examined differences and similarities in the two groups. The groups had similar dating habits, work values, parental relationships, and extracurricular participation. These differences were noted: role-innovators often reported working mothers, a significant work history of their own, and having had role models who reinforced work activity. One example of pioneers of role-innovators would be women in medical school. Cartwright (1970) found female medical students to be positive and effective in their work and private lives and to display a strong desire to use their capabilities. Thus, the role-innovators were a more achievement-oriented and independent group, by report, than the traditional career women.

Socialization and Family Background

In examining the similarities of professional women's backgrounds, it is important to consider two avenues of influence: (1) the impact of feminine socialization or the sex-role training that today's women generically were likely to have received in childhood and adolescence during the

forties, fifties, and early sixties, and (2) the familial background that studies have shown that professional women share. In examining women in general, it seemed necessary to examine socially learned female stereotypes, parental influence, and female achievement. The investigation of sex-role training and familial influence was pursued by a host of researchers (Almquist & Angrist, 1970; Bardwick, 1971; Baruch, 1973; Matthews, 1974; Nagely, 1971) and indicated that professional women share familial characteristics in common among themselves as well as sharing many aspects of a traditional feminine socialization with other women. In order to understand the professional woman's conflict between feminine socialization and masculine work activity, it was important to examine the early socialization patterns of women in general.

Generic Feminine Socialization

Matthews (1974) wrote about women, "The predominance of marriage over career is, of course, ultimately related to strong and exclusive sex-role training" (p. 429). Women who are of the age to be working professionally today were reared before the current trend of androgynous child-rearing practices. Their childhood and adolescent socialization took place somewhere between the 1940's and the early sixties. It is highly probable that their sex-role training was traditionally feminine and included the installation of the

following list of socially acceptable and stereotypic feminine constructs:

Dependence, passivity, fragility, low pain tolerance, nonaggression, noncompetitiveness, inner orientation, interpersonal orientation, empathy, sensitivity, nurturance, subjectivity, intuitiveness, yieldingness, receptivity, inability to risk, emotional lability, and supportiveness. (Bardwick & Douvan, 1972, p. 255)

Boys were simultaneously being taught to value and develop the masculine attributes that society has set for a psychologically healthy man and for a psychologically healthy adult, as well (Broverman, Vogel, Broverman, Clarkson, & Rosenkrantz, 1970).

Independence, aggression, competitiveness, innovation, self-discipline, stoicism, activity, objectivity, analytical-mindedness, courage, unsentimentality, rationality, confidence, and emotional control. (Bardick & Douvan, 1972, p. 255)

The boy and girl who have been called "normal" have been the ones to learn their appropriate role activities from the above lists (Sherman, 1976). Ironically, those characteristics that stereotypically describe men and healthy adults are different than those for women. Our society has, thus, declared that women are not healthy adults when they are stereotypically feminine (Neulinger, 1968). Neulinger's work (1968) was in agreement with Broverman's and her colleagues (1970) in which being a healthy woman and a healthy person were mutually contradictory. Williams (1977) wrote that women have been taught to be dependent, docile, and

passive. They have learned to exhibit docility and passivity and thereby soften their socially inappropriate aggression, to make it more subtle, less easily recognized for what it is (Bardwick, 1971). Kundsinn (1974) has written that both men and women have been prevented from exhibiting themselves as authentic. Women have hidden their aggression and strengths, and men have hidden their tears and emotions. This has been a learned inauthenticity which has taken place since infancy. From birth, differences were observed in the rearing of boys and girls. Baby girls are looked at and talked to more than baby boys, starting feminine socialization at its earliest point (Lewis, M., 1972). Child play was oriented toward sex-typing; girls were given dolls, and boys were given sports equipment and weapons. Bernstein (1972) reported that similar sex-typed play continued in early school years, and junior high and senior high school activity encouraged the pattern. Boys took sciences and mathematics or shop; girls were encouraged in languages and writing or homemaking and secretarial courses. Ginzberg ("Climb to Top is Difficult," 1972) contended that young women limit their job possibilities by choice of school courses. "They'd do much better if they acquired control of mathematics, economics, or statistics" (p. 8).

Many have written of the powerful influence that parents and school have effected regarding young girls' sex-role training. Schlossberg (1972) described parents as

having had a great impression on their childrens' perceptions of the work world by limiting their daughters' vocational fantasies. The limiting was done, according to her, because of parental fear of their daughter's loss of femininity. Farmer (1971) indicated that parents as well as young girls became confused as to the appropriateness of choice of career pattern because social roles were not clearly defined for women in our society. Ginzberg (1966) concurred that family perceptions, both positive and negative, strongly affected the career orientations of family members. Ginzberg reported that boys received insufficient family guidance in career exploration and that girls received even less than boys. Schlossberg (1976) argued that early feminine socialization has restricted women to nonprofessional jobs because they have never dreamed of achieving anything higher on a professional scale. She saw a contradiction in the message that girls have received from their parents and from society at large, "If she is too smart, too independent, and above all, too serious about her work, she is unfeminine and will therefore never get married" (p. 139). Glazer-Malbin and Waehrer (1972) wrote the following:

Sex-role differentiation begins not with a woman's entrance into the labor force, but early in childhood, and continues to be reinforced throughout the school years. Her first toys are dolls and miniaturized household equipment and the accoutrements thereof so she can be encouraged to develop homemaking skills. Neither in the home, nor later in the schools, is she encouraged to think of herself as entering the labor force as an equal with men. (p. 139)

These examples of sex typing in play and in school with the end result being that of turning out a sweet, marriageable, young lady has affected feminine achievement. Bardwick (1971) and Stein and Baily (1973) discovered that although girls achieve well in early school years, they show lower achievement strivings in adolescence. The reverse pattern was true of boys. Young girls have quickly learned the lesson that women need to be "smart enough to get a man, but not smart enough to threaten him" (Hole & Levine, 1971, p. 204). Matthews and Tiedeman (1964) found college girls anxious about appearing too intelligent on dates for fear of scaring off the boys. And Madison (1969) observed that "the girl's primary identity in college tends to be defined in terms of having a boy and marriage afterwards" (p. 152). It has been determined that achievement motivation in women may be aroused by referring to their social abilities rather than to their intelligence and leadership abilities. Reports of college women being more socially than intellectually oriented seem to indicate a series of achievement deference patterns for girls from their early teen years through college. A similar pattern of achievement deference continued from college to marriage for these young women. As wives, they became reluctant to earn more money than their husbands or to take a higher-status position. Instead, fearful of upsetting their marriage, they sometimes restricted their job progress (Sease, 1978). Perhaps the most

disturbing finding with regard to female achievement is Rossi's (1965) in which she determined that most women believed that even wanting something more than motherhood is unnatural and reflected emotional disturbance within them. These researchers agree that sex-role training begins early and has a long and lasting effect on many facts of a person's life including achievement and career. Bernard (1971) surmised that although careers for women may be a new ethic, many women cannot see themselves entering certain occupations because of sex-role socialization.

Professional Women--Family Background

What then distinguishes the socialization of a woman who decides to seek a career and the one who aims for marriage and homemaking. Bem (1974) has written,

Growing up female in our society may be sufficient to give virtually all women at least an adequate threshold of emotional responsiveness--what differentiates women is not the domain of expressiveness, but whether their sense of instrumentality or agency has been sufficiently nourished as well. (Bem as cited in Kaplan & Bean, 1976, p. 59)

Bem assumes that all women will emerge from their growing with feminine skills (expressiveness) but that a much smaller number come through with masculine (instrumentality or agency) ones as well. Family background or parental and school influences would appear to be the differentiating variables. No literature is available on the difference in school influences that career-oriented and noncareer-oriented

young girls might have experienced. Information is available to the familial background and sex-role training that professional women received during their childhood and adolescence though it is in no way conclusive.

In Kriger's (1972) work with 22 homemakers, 22 career women in female dominated professions, and 22 career women in male dominated professions, she found that the decision to have a career or not was based on child-rearing style. In a 1970 study of women in medical school, Cartwright found that the largest subgroup came from intellectual, harmonious homes. In studying the female executive, Hennig (1971) determined that parents play an extremely important role in developing their daughter's career identity. The women executives in her study shared many family similarities: both parents reinforced her for her accomplishments, both valued and reinforced their daughter's femininity and her achievement and competitiveness, both parents provided a sense of security. Also supporting the positive impact that parents have on their career-oriented daughters was work done by the American Psychological Association's Task Force on Sex Bias (1975). The authors concluded that a young girl's identity formation is impacted to a great degree by her family values as well as her own personal experiences and the attitudes of society. However, in studying college women planning traditional careers and those planning non-traditional ones, Almquist and Angrist (1970) found no

difference in the groups in relationship to parents. Thus, it seemed that the attitude and support that parents gave to their career-oriented daughters played a significant part in their having followed through with a career, but it does not seem to have affected the choice of career, be it a traditionally female professional career or a traditionally masculine professional career.

Some theorists have agreed that the work history of a girl's mother is not as crucial as the mother's attitude toward careers for women (Baruch, 1974; Karman, 1972). Angrist and Almquist (1975) disagreed. They observed girls accepting their mothers' definition of the feminine role because of her unique place as a career woman role model. In their group of career-oriented college women, 56 percent of the mothers had worked, whereas in the group of non-career-oriented women, only 26 percent had worked. In Zissis' (1964) study of freshmen women at Purdue University the career-oriented group had significantly more working mothers. Baruch (1973) found that college women with mothers who were homemakers devalued feminine competence which supported her idea that mothers serve as role models for their daughters in relation to career aspirations and self esteem. Baruch (1974) continued her work with mothers, daughters, and careers in the following year and determined that daughters of mothers who endorsed careers for women (not necessarily mothers who were career women) were higher

in self esteem and in ratings of competence than were daughters of mothers who did not. Interestingly, even when mothers who discouraged daughters combining career and marriage, their career-oriented daughters persisted in their aspirations because they did not want to find themselves in jobs with little chance for advancement (Schwenn, 1970; Horner, 1972).

The affect of fathers on their daughters' choice of career patterns is also debated. Astin and Myint (1971) found that there was some relationship between a father's encouragement and his daughter's career plans. Two predictors of professional career orientation were found: high social economic stature and father's encouragement for college participation. Hennig's doctoral dissertation at Harvard University (1971) traced the lives of 25 female corporate executives. She attempted to learn if there was a fixed character type within this group. Each of the women was a first born child and, more significantly, had fathers who emphasized skills and abilities rather than following the set sex role. Their mothers were reported to be classic feminine homemakers. The fathers were their daughter's primary source of reinforcement. A similar study by Astin (1969) of female doctorate recipients found that many of the women in her research had fathers who had served as positive role models for career commitment in the fields of medicine, business, and art. And yet Lozoff (1974) warned that

"fathers are not enough. . . ." She wrote that the influence of fathers is easily offset by the absence of significant women for young girls and boys.

Stress Related to Role Identity Conflict
and Home/Career Conflict

Social stress touches each one of us. Within our living we are all involved, however successfully or unsuccessfully, with stressful life events. Hans Selye, a world authority on the subject defined stress as "a nonspecific response of the body to any demand made upon it" (Selye, 1974, p. 151), and he noted that it may be desirable or undesirable. Working women are reported to experience stress because of the incompatibilities in role demands, their socialization process and career expectations, and other consequences. The stress they may experience might be desirable or undesirable. If the latter, it is likely to adversely affect their psychological well-being, their sex-role identity, and their family relations.

Desirable Stress

Because stress is usually connoted with undesirable events, a number of unwarranted assumptions exist: (a) all unpleasant situations or occurrences are stressful, (b) what is stressful for one person will be stressful for another, (c) events that are stressful for an individual must lead to disruptive or pathological consequences (Levine & Scotch, 1970). Some stressful events such as the birth of a planned

child or the start of a new job have a low readjustment impact and are viewed as self-enhancing and desirable (Myers, Lindenthal, & Pepper, 1974). Nondesirable events, however, require high readjustment impact such as coping or behavioral adaptation and are seen as harmful to one's mental health and damaging to a person's self-concept. Selye's theoretical model showing the relation between stress and various types of life experiences follows Levine and Scotch's concept. Stress related to nondesirable events will be discussed here.

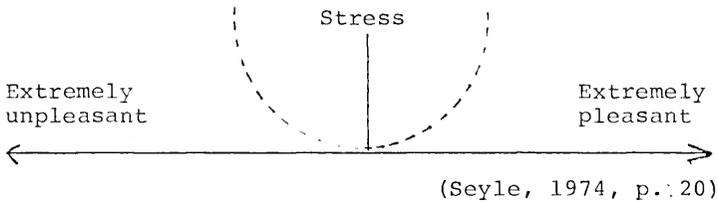


Figure 1. Selye's Stress and Life Experience Model

Stress Affecting Psychological Well-Being

Everyone experiences stress; however, the literature reports that women experience more stress than men. Some comes from living alone, some from the strains of child-rearing and/or homemaking, and much comes from role conflicts that professional women experience.

The term role conflict refers to two phenomena: a conflict of expectations built into a single role. Employed females, especially but not solely if they are married and have children are subject to both. (Chafetz, 1974, p. 119)

Stress producing factors, stressors, while different for different people elicit the same biological stress responses. The first response in any stressful situation is anxiety (Dongrenwend, 1973). A companion to anxiety in stress events is the plethora of negative feelings which lowers a person's self-concept. These may include depression, hostility, or a myriad of other self-degrading emotions which decrease self-assurance. Horner (1972) looked at anxiety as that thing which is produced in anticipation of negative consequences which then inhibits activity, i.e., fear of loss of femininity--anxiety production--inhibition of achievement. In other work, high anxiety was correlated with low self-esteem and low self-acceptance in the cases of extreme feminine stereotyping, high femininity in females (Consentino & Heilburn, 1964). In Maccoby's work (1963) the females who were independent and achievement oriented were determined to have defied the conventions of sex appropriate behavior and paid a price in an anxiety; after four years of college those women showed a higher incidence of anxiety and psychological disturbance than when they were freshmen. More women are being admitted to mental hospitals than ever before and more than ever before are receiving a wider range of psychological and/or psychiatric help which seems to indicate a period of greater stress for women (Gove & Tudor, 1973).

More women than men indicated high degrees of stress and mental illness. In findings by the Joint Commission on

Mental Health and Illness, higher distress symptoms were reported for women than for men in all adjustment areas. A higher percentage of women than men have been diagnosed as schizophrenic, depressed, or hysterical (Chessler, 1972), and women have been reported twice as likely as men to be suffering from depression although women commit significantly fewer suicides than men (Holter, 1970; Williams, 1977).

Unmarried persons of either sex reported experiencing more stress than married persons (Krantzler, 1973). While Gove and Tudor (1973) reported that single men have slightly higher rates of mental illness than single women, other observers agreed with Williams (1977) that divorced or separated women are more likely than their unmarried male counterparts to become mentally ill. Williams wrote that the women's roles in society are causal agents of this phenomenon. Additionally, fear of a psychological breakdown was reported more frequently by this group of women in the Joint Commission's reports than by any other group.

These are times of stress for the traditional woman as well as the separated or divorced ones. A woman's role in society has traditionally been that of homemaker. Amudsen (1977) reported that women are oriented toward two basic goals, marriage and family. For this woman in the traditional, homemaking role, there is not the same stress which accompanies the nontraditional, achieving woman's role.

Other stress, however, is present. The role is relatively unstructured and provides a singular source of gratification. The primary activities within this role have been reported as requiring few skills and as being frustrating and even demeaning (Gove & Tudor, 1973; Williams, 1977). Westervelt (1973) has written that since the homemaker's identity is often determined by her husband and possibly children, she may experience an identity crises when threatened with the real or imagined loss of them resulting in mental and physical depression. Seider (1976) wrote that because marriage and parenthood are sources of stress, they carry with them increased risks of impaired mental health. He also presented evidence which notes that the child-rearing years of marriage are correlated for women with less happiness, more stress, and more overt mental illness. For those women who choose dual roles--to be a homemaker and to work outside of the home--additional stress has been reported. That stress can come from one of two sources or from both: a sex-role identity conflict or a marriage/career conflict.

Stress--Sex-Role Identity Conflict

As a whole, society has been unable to reconcile personal ambition, accomplishment, and success with femininity. The more successful or independent that a woman becomes, the more afraid society is that she has lost her femininity . . .
(Horner, 1972, p. 106)

As Margaret Meade wrote, "Where men are unsexed by failure, women seem to be unsexed by success" (Meade, 1949, p. 5).

The literature is replete on the conflict professional women are now experiencing in terms of their sex-role identity. The professional woman does not have to have children to experience this conflict, nor does she need to be married. This type of stress is different than the home-career role conflict which will be discussed in the following subsection. Croog (1970) has suggested that while a basic stress for the employed woman is conflict in the nurturing/provider roles, it is accompanied by a deeper distress as to whether the woman is being appropriately feminine. Sex-role identity conflict will be reviewed in terms of self-image, achievement motivation theory, fear of success, and social isolation.

Self-Image. Most authors indicate that stress originates from personal questions of professional competency, personal responsibilities, and general self-worth. Amudsen (1977) reported that confusion, ambivalence, and emotional havoc are likely to occur for the professional woman. She suffers from a "damaged self-image and decline in self-respect" (p.111). There are societal expectations that women will give priority to the feminine role activity and when the expectation is not met, confusions abound (Sherman, 1976). Conflict in role activity and confusions and self-doubts about the quality of performance are prime stressors for the professional woman.

Arising out of the present contravention of the sexes is the marginal woman, torn between rejection and acceptance of

traditional roles and attributes, uncertain of the ground on which she stands, subjected to conflicting cultural expectations, the marginal woman suffers the ravages of instability, conflict, self-hate, anxiety, and resentment. (Hacker, as cited in Glazer-Malbin & Waehrer, 1972, p. 44)

Many studies have investigated the idea of female confusion in sex-role identity. Deutsch and Gilbert (1976) used the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) to study the impact of sex-role stereotyping on self-concept. College men and women filled out four forms of the BSRI: real self, ideal self, ideal man/woman, and men's/women's ideal woman/man. The women's sex-role concepts about their real self, their ideal self, and their belief of what the other sex desired were highly dissimilar; the men's were highly similar. The authors surmised that women are currently experiencing role confusion in today's culture, whereas men are not. Rossi (1965) found that a woman may perceive herself as capable of becoming a scientist, yet not be able to imagine herself in that role because she is female. Women are placed in a double bind. If they are feminine, they deviate from the behavioral norms for their sex (Williams, J., 1977).

Achievement Motivation Theory. Earlier achievement motivation theory did not relate to women because it was primarily based on men (Stein & Bailey, 1973), but with Horner's work (1970, 1972), Bardwick's (1971), Angrist and Almquist's (1975), and others the theory is expanding. Horner's work (1972) indicated that women are faced with a

basic conflict between achieving and retaining their sense of femininity. She determined that women would conform to sex-role expectations because of fear of negative consequences.

Angrist and Almquist (1975) discovered that peer expectations affect a woman's motivation. Because of peer influence, women may give secondary status to career or make choices based on others rather than themselves. "Juggling with gender" (p. 4) is their term for this conflict. Within a similar context, Bardwick (1971) looked at affiliative gratification and found that after it has been assured, independence and occupation can become important. In a hierarchical sense, a woman requires a sense of femininity and affiliation before autonomy in self or career can occur.

In some ways this is similar to work that has been done with achievement patterns in women's career stages. Matthews and Tiedeman (1964) wrote of an achievement cycle that women go through as they entertain ideas of achievement, lose interest in the vocational world as their thoughts turn to marriage, and finally releases their intellectual productivity after fulfillment as wives and mothers. R. Baruch's work (1967) indicated a like cyclical pattern in achievement motivation in women. She found an achievement pattern in college that dropped for 10 to 15 years and then picked up again. Of those women returning to work after a long span time since college graduation, Okun (1972) set internal motivation to be the major factor. In their maturing, they

seemed to change from previous patterns or external reinforcement and motivation to patterns or internal motivation which provided an impetus for achievement.

Fear of Success. Irene de Castillejo's (1973) warning that taking the road to success may make hard work for retaining femininity is an example of the message women have received which has set up a fear of success syndrome. de Castillejo continued, "Success at school depends on devoting her time and energy to masculine pursuits; a good job may demand a university degree. It is a path she takes because it was closed so long. But the feminine layer can easily be submerged" (p. 17).

Tomlinson-Keasey (1974) saw fear of success as an indication of anxiety about sexual identity. She hypothesized that women who were fearful of achievement were not secure in their sexual identity. Women experience a conflict between need for achievement and retaining their femininity. Horner (1972) wrote that women tend to fear success because it might be a negative reflection of their femininity. She has suggested that normal achievement strivings of women may be inhibited since their achievement is not considered appropriate for females. Zweig (1977) examined the concept in this way. Both men and women have based their sense of sexual identity on the role dictated by biological sexual characteristics. A person who felt that his or her customary role was being taken away would experience his or her

sense of sexual identity badly threatened or "complete and catastrophic loss of a sense of sexual identity" (p. 29).

Broverman, Vogel, Broverman, Clarkson, and Rosenkrantz (1970) developed an adjustment notion of mental health where discriminated against persons, women in their case, become adjusted to a social environment with associated restrictive stereotypes. This, in turn, sets up conflict for women between success and femininity. She must decide whether to exhibit the positive characteristics which are desirable for men and adults and have her femininity questioned or to behave in an acceptable feminine manner, "accept second-class status, and possibly live a lie to boot" (p. 6).

Social Isolation. Career committed women often experience social isolation due to their sex-role identity conflict. In Horner's work (1972) with male and female students, she asked them to conclude a story about an achieving student who was ranked at the top of the class. Positive endings were given for the story when it was about a male student; this was not the case when the story was about a female student. Ending for a majority of the stories with a female were themes of isolation and social rejection.

Barnett (1971) determined that social isolation was experienced by the career-committed women in her study. The most career-committed saw themselves as the least similar to their peers. The medium and low career-committed women perceived their goals as shared by 60 to 80 percent of their

peers. Cross sex behavior (Bem & Lenney, 1976) is problematic in terms of social isolation. If a woman behaves assertively or in a strong typically masculine manner, she is often isolated, whereas that is normal behavior for a man. Or as Thomas (1978) wrote, "A man has got to be Joe McCarthy to be called ruthless. All a woman has to do is to put you on hold" (p. 198).

Stress--Marriage/Career Conflict

Through many of the reports of empirical research in the area of the family and stress, it has been reported that the involvement of wives in gainful occupations may have "disruptive effects upon family integration, socialization of children, and the fulfillment of traditional obligations of providing companionship, performance of household tasks, and other functions" (Croog, 1970, p. 41). Women face conflict between career and marriage and the varying responsibilities and roles that go with each. Rostow's prediction that modern college women would no longer have a marriage-career conflict has not proven true. In 1964 he wrote,

Since there was a new equality in marriage and a premium on smooth relationships, the "modern woman" would put marriage and family first without resenting the fact that her place in the world of work would continue to be one of inequality." (Rostow as cited in Helson, 1972, p. 35).

Rostow's idealized prediction of family unity has missed on two counts. Modern women have not accepted a place in the work world of inequality, nor are smooth relationships

characteristic of most dual career couples. The divorce rate which has nearly doubled in the last 10 years is seen as a partial reflection of the strains that working wives produce in marriage (Krantzler, 1973). Some of the strain from these marriages has been reported as coming from unrealistic expectations. An example is the working woman who is expected by herself and by her husband to work and to run the house which can be a work week of 80 to 100 hours (Sease, 1978). Although Hennig and Jardin (1976) described achieving women as seeing marriage and career as an either-or choice, most report differently. They write that women who aspire to a career do not substitute the work role for the more traditional wife-mother-homemaker one, but they choose an additional role and an additional work load (Gump, 1972). Suniewick (1971) has written that women are not being helped to resolve the present conflict between career and marriage and that a lack of resolution or closure has resulted in stress.

Even in present times of high female employment, attitudes persist which discourage combining marriage and career, and these attitudes add stress to an already stressful situation. Pressures for women to remain at home come from traditional views of male and female roles and of the nuclear family (Bequaret, 1976). In 1971, 25 percent of a sample of college men and women felt that women's activities should be confined to home (Angrist & Almquist, 1975).

Whereas married professional women expressed positive attitudes toward their abilities to cope with home and work roles, married professional men expressed negative attitudes toward the subject (Koley, 1971). McMillan (1972) in investigating men's attitudes toward women, home, and career found the following results which were in close agreement with Koley's.

12 percent	Women should not work at all
37 percent	Women can work after marriage, provided there are no children
39 percent	Women can work after marriage, only if children are in school
3 percent	Women can work continuously after marriage, even with children

(McMillan, 1972)

An additional stress factor may come from the couple's family. Grandparents tended to say a working mother is neglecting their grandchildren (Sease, 1978).

Barnett (1971) illustrated that career commitment for women is highly correlated to their perceptions of successfully combining marriage and career. Those perceiving a high level of success would experience less stress and tend to higher levels of career commitment. Three groups emerged from Barnett's study, and each had separate perceptions of the marriage-career conflict issue.

1. The group with the highest career interests wanted to combine career and marriage and felt it was a highly workable, positive endeavour.

2. The group with medium career interest felt that career should be abandoned if the husband or prospective husband disapproved of combining the two.

3. The group with the lowest career interests saw many difficulties in combining marriage and a career and would agree to end a career if their husband or future husband disapproved of combining the two or if he disapproved of her career.

In the Rand and Miller study (1972) which surveyed a group similar to Barnett's, the highest percentage of the group reported an interest in combining work and marriage and children. Most were concerned with the effects of a working mother on children, though, and indicated that they would not work while children were at home. As stated earlier, these attitudes by both men and women add stress to this conflictual and stressful area of family and career life. Even advertisements have shown a recognition of the conflict and announce that their product will help a resolution of the problem. The ad shows a well suited woman, holding a phone, standing next to her young son, "I chose motherhood, a career, and the phone for both."

Levine and Scotch (1970), stress theorists, stated that in addition to the true broken family there is a common family form characterized by functional disruption. They described the functional disruption as minimal participation of key family members in their expected roles. One of their

examples was the absence of the wife or mother from the home because she is regularly employed. Jaco (1970) agreed that the family group that is disrupted or in conflict has been studied extensively and has produced a plethora of family studies in mental illness and stress. Such studies have emphasized the stressful effects of parental relationships in rearing and socializing their children beginning with the influence of Freud's writings. Stress such as maternal deprivation, maternal overprotection, ambivalence, and rejection are some examples. Jaco also wrote that the studies are of such a wide variety and scope that the area is in a state of chaos and that no conclusive work is available. It is not known empirically if the woman working outside of the home creates stress which affects family relations negatively. The timeless question of quality-time and quantity-time with children or husbands is one that must still be debated with personal opinions.

We do know that women experience greater evident stress than men and that for professional women it appears to be enmeshed in the conflict of feminine and masculine role activities, achievement, self-esteem. While some theorists further hypothesize that the familial disruption the professional woman impacts is hard and negatively felt, others state emphatically that such evidence is not at hand. Oliver (1975) in suggesting that combining career and home-making might be the new and accepted social norm has envisioned a way of reducing the home-career conflict (Farmer &

Bohn, 1970) which could affect a wide range of career choices and personal and familial stress.

Theories Regarding Women

Within the last several years, advances have been made regarding voids in the literature which pertain to a theory about and understanding of women. Available information will be reviewed in the following order: adult developmental theories, career theories regarding women, and personality theory affecting female sex-role identity.

Developmental Theory--Adults

Howe (1975) has written that although research has focused too much on women as a homogenous group, there are indications that all women undergo a certain set of stages to reach maturity and to cope with decisions and problems. In order to have the most complete picture possible of the professional women today, it is important to have an understanding of the developmental stages in which they as a homogeneous group may be involved. Matthews (1972) has suggested that career development must be understood by looking at life stages; it could also be suggested that a woman's sex-role identity and/or psychological well-being could be better understood by a thorough knowledge of mature life stages or of adult developmental theory.

Although the concept of adult development has recently become quite popular, little had been written about the

subject until the last decade. Until then, Eric Erikson (1950, 1968) was essentially the sole pioneer of adult development theory (Baltes & Goulet, 1970). Erikson's theory included eight stages of ego development throughout the life span with the final three stages affecting adulthood. Corresponding to Erikson's stages are behavioral tasks.

Table 1
Erikson's Eight Stages of Ego Development

Stage	Adult Task
Basic Trust vs. Mistrust	
Autonomy vs. Shame and Doubt	
Initiative vs. Guilt	
Industry vs. Inferiority	
Identity vs. Role Confusion	
Intimacy vs. Isolation	Marriage or Close Relationship
Generativity vs. Stagnation	Guidance to the Community
Ego integrity vs. Despair	Acceptance of Life and Self

During stage six, the adult task is the development of caring and loving relationships. The task of stage seven is an altruistic one. It includes giving of self in order to help community. The eighth stage imparts the task of a person's accepting one's self and life with serenity.

Erikson (1968) saw the development of sex-role identity as interactive with his stages and influenced by both biological and historical cultural factors thereby rejecting Freud's early theory of anatomy predetermining one's destiny.

Erikson considered that anatomy, history, and personality all interact to form a person's life series.

Block (1973), in accordance with Erikson's notion, formulated a framework of sex-role development which integrated changes in sex development and larger developmental tasks. In her formulation, Block used data which had been collected over a 40 year period at the Berkley Institute of Human Development. Her theoretical framework is drawn from Loevinger's (1966, 1970) milestones of ego development. Both are presented here in an integrative chart. (See Table 2)

Other theories which are consistent and yet expansive of Erikson's were developed. Neugarten's work at the Kansas City Studies of Adult Life (1961) focused on the psychological and sociological aspects of adults by gathering data on 700 men and women. Neugarten, Moore, and Low (1968) determined that adults tend to order major life events by a "prescriptive time table." They also found that age-related changes appear sooner and more consistently in the internal aspects of personality rather than in external ways. From interviewing 100 men and women, Neugarten (1968) was able to categorize adulthood into four levels: young adulthood, maturity, middle age, and old age with each period having specific characteristics which are similar to Erikson's three adult stages of ego development and to Loevinger's milestones of ego development.

Gould (1972, 1975) also conducted research on stages of adulthood by means of an observational study of 100 psychiatric out-patients and a questionnaire study of 524 nonpatients.

Table 2

Loevinger's Milestones of Ego Development and Extrapolations to Sex-Role Development

Loevinger's milestones of ego development		Block's Sex role development extrapolated	
Stage	Impulse control	Interpersonal style	Conscious concerns
Presocial/symbiotic		Artistic, symbiotic	Self versus nonself
Impulse ridden	Impulse ridden, fear of retaliation	Exploitive, dependent	Sexual and aggressive bodily feelings
Self-protective (formerly opportunistic)	Expedient, fear of being caught	Exploitive, manipulative, wary	Advantage, control, protection of self
Conformity	Conformity to external rule	Reciprocal, superficial	Things, appearance, reputation, self-acceptance
Conscientious	Internalized rules, guilt	Intensive, responsive	Differentiated inner feelings, motives, self-respect
Autonomous	Coping with conflict, toleration of differences	Intensive concern for autonomy	Differentiated inner feelings, role concepts, self-fulfillment
Integrated	Reconciling inner conflicts, renunciation of unattainable	Cherishing of individuality	All of the above plus identity
			Development of gender identity, self-assertion, self-expression, self-interest
			Extension of self, self-extension, self-enhancement
			Conformity to external role, development of sex role, stereotypes, bifurcation of sex roles
			Examination of self as sex role exemplar vis-à-vis internalized values
			Differentiation of sex role, coping with conflicting masculine-feminine aspects of self
			Achievement of individually defined sex role, integration of both masculine and feminine aspects of self, androgynous sex role definition

Gould concluded from his observations that there are definitive age-related characteristics. He saw adolescents in a stage of transition. They were concerned with independence and moving away from their parents but were not quite ready to make the actual move. The young adult (18-22) was focused on independence from parents but unlike the adolescent was taking steps to achieve it. The 22 to 28 year old group was newly established and concentrating on securing a job and home. The 29 to 34 year old group had begun considering lifestyle alternatives. Those aged 35 to 43 were concerned with succeeding in different phases of life; in fact, they reported an urgency to succeed. The group, 43-50, had a sense of resignation, feeling that what was done was done. An appreciable mellowing was seen of those 50 or older. Children, parents, and spouse were appreciated and valued as they had been at no other time of life.

Levinson (1977), a fairly recent contributor to developmental theory, described adult development as the building of a life structure which consists of three equal parts: the nature of a person's sociocultural world, a person's participation in the world as reflected by various relationships and roles, and the aspects of a person's life which can be experienced or those which must be inhibited. Levinson's theory, which primarily described male development, identified a life structure which goes through a sequence of stable and transitory periods. The stable

periods have distinct life tasks, and the transition periods set time for a reconsidering of possibilities for self (Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson, & McKee, 1974). Stable periods vary from six to eight years; transition periods vary from four to five years. Levinson's concept of the life cycle is presented here:

<u>Stage</u>	<u>Age</u>
Preadulthood	0-22
Early Adulthood	17-45
Middle Adulthood	40-65
Late Adulthood	60-85
Late Late Adulthood	80-

Havighurst, an educational and developmental theorist (1972) saw adult developmental tasks following this pattern:

<u>Task</u>	<u>Age</u>
Focusing One's Life	18-30
Collecting One's Energies	30-40
Exerting and Assuring Oneself	40-50
Maintaining One's Position, Changing Roles	50-60
Deciding Whether and How to Disengage	60-70

Havighurst (1972) hypothesized that people are continually faced with completing a given task successfully before progressing to the next stage. He saw the following tasks of early adulthood: marriage, learning to live with a spouse, the beginning of a family, rearing of children, management of home, start of career, start of civic responsibilities, inclusion into a social group. Developmental

tasks of middle age approach Erikson's concept of Generativity: helping adolescents in their growth, achieving social, civic, and career responsibility, developing recreational skills, accepting changes of middle life.

Developmental Theory--Women.

In Gail Sheehy's (1974) best selling book Passages, adult life patterns of men and women are presented. Applying research by Mead, Neugarten, Levinson, and Hennig, Sheehy described developmental stages that adult men and women experience. She additionally separated the stages into male and female patterns. Her female life patterns are given here and will be referred to in the section on theories of career.

1. Caregiver. She marries early and remains focused on home and family. She tends to live her life through the achievements of her husband and children. The majority of women Sheehy interviewed were in this category.
2. The Nurturer who Defers Achievement. She postpones any strenuous career efforts in order to marry and start a family, but she works at a later point, usually after the children have grown.
3. The Achiever Who Defers Nurturing. She postpones motherhood in order to prepare for career and to work.
4. The Integrator. She combines marriage, career, and motherhood in her twenties.

Sheehy also lists two other categories of life patterns, never married women and transients, but these groups of women would fit into one of the four listed above and, thus, overlap.

Bernard (1975) and Rossi (1965) have determined that there are four major contingencies possible in women's life events: marriage, children, education, and a profession. Some women, in hopes of resolving role conflicts, adopt sequential patterns of activity rather than attempting a merger of the events such as childbearing and education. Bernard (1975) has commented that the worst possible pattern in terms of establishing a successful career is the one in which a woman leaves work for marriage and/or child-rearing between completing her education and beginning her career. The interruption comes at a time when her career is least stable and has the most serious consequences. For men and women a career interruption results in a person who rarely makes significant contributions to his or her career (Forisha, 1978).

Others, Lopata (1966) and Van Dusen and Sheldon (1976), have studied developmental tasks with specific regard to women. Lopata (1966) posited that women's life cycle reflects the family cycle and interviewed 1,000 housewives in the Chicago area in an effort to determine the stages for that subgroup of women. Lopata's six stages determined through her research are listed.

- | | |
|-------------------------|----------------------------------|
| 1. Becoming a Housewife | Development of Home Identity |
| 2. Expanding Circle | Interests in Children |
| 3. Peak Stage | Children Demanding Attention |
| 4. Full House Plateau | Children are at Different Levels |
| 5. Shrinking Circle | Children Start to Leave Home |
| 6. Minimal Plateau | Woman is Alone in the House |

In a response to Lopata's work, Van Dusen and Sheldon (1976) examined current trends and statistics to check Lopata's assumption that the family life cycle is the most important factor in a woman's life cycle. Their conclusion was that the exclusivity of family responsibilities to a woman's life cycle has decreased. Trends they described are discussed more fully in the Professional Women: Their Employment section of this review. Fewer children, later marriages, and mothers with young children working are some of the trends.

Career Theories

The absence of career theories which are specifically applicable for women might well be related to Mednick and Tangri's (1972) statement, "Women have always had jobs, they have rarely been permitted careers" (p. 11). Many theorists have agreed that a major limitation of career theory research is that it has been limited to men (Super, 1955; Ginzberg, 1966; Hanson, 1974; Matthews & Tiedeman, 1964; Okun, 1972; Zytowski, 1969). Some have called for a focus on career theory for women "because of the relative neglect of females in much theory" (Stein & Bailey, 1973, p. 210). Consideration to career theory as it relates to women has been given by Tiedeman, Super, Ginzberg, Zytowski, and others described within this section.

The Tiedeman-O'Hara model (1963) is an important concept in understanding career decisions for women according

to Schlossberg (1972). She wrote that an understanding of the theory of this model is crucial for both men and women. The paradigm does not set life career stages through which adults proceed, instead it set forth the process for making career-related decisions for either sex. The following steps are included: exploration, anticipation, crystallization, induction, implementation, and integration. An individual may be in different stages in dealing with different sets of problems, and the series of stages may be repeated again and again throughout life.

Tiedeman and O'Hara (1963) were able to look at abstract decision making in terms of unisex implementation. It is a different task for those who attempt to list specific stages of development. One of the reasons that career models require different tracks for men and women is because of marriage and the different career impact that it has on the two sexes. Ginzberg, Ginzberg, Axelrod, and Herma (1951) were among the first to define career patterns for women; and marriage had its place among their patterns. They listed three: work oriented, marriage oriented, and a combination of the two. The patterns are similar to Sheehy's Nurturer, Achiever, and Integrator roles; they fit most women to a reasonable degree; but they are not consistent for men. Neither Ginzberg's marriage role nor Sheehy's Nurturer role was part of men's career plans. This distinguishing attention to marriage is the issue that separates

boys and girls in their early career plans. Ginzberg (1966) found that until the early teen years, girls were much like boys in their vocational behavior. At that time, though, girls began an orientation toward marriage. Girls did not tend to plan a career until decisions about marriage have been made (Farmer, 1975; Ginzberg, 1966; Matthews & Tiedeman, 1964). In Astin and Myint's research (1971), marital plans were one of the best predictors of later career involvement. They determined that there were fewer women joining the work force after college than their male peers. Being married was a predictor for being a housewife or for doing office work, not for a career in science or teaching. Matthews and Tiedeman (1964) found that women lose interest in the vocational world as their thoughts turn to marriage; their intellectual productivity is released only after their fulfillment as wives and mothers.

Donald Super (1957), an eminent career theorist, theorized that developmental life stages fit career patterns for women as well as men. Super, however, saw a limitation in using career theory which existed in the fifties with respect to women. He posited that early career theory was developed by sampling men only, and career patterns of men are significantly different than career patterns of women. Super identified the following career patterns for women which Vetter (1973) later used to determine the percentages of women in career patterns. Vetter used Super's categories

one through six with a cross-sectional sample of 4,807 women. The seventh category was deleted because it overlapped with others.

1. Stable homemaking--marriage with no significant work experience, 22 percent.
2. Conventional career--a brief career followed by marriage and homemaking with no outside career, 27 percent.
3. Stable working career--single woman who starts career after school and works continuously, 3 percent.
4. Double-track--marriage with continuous work, 14 percent.
5. Interrupted career--marriage with stops to be homemaker, later returning to work, 16 percent.
6. Unstable career--irregular work, homemaking and again working during times of economic stress, 18 percent.
7. Multiple trial career--succession of unrelated jobs. (p. 27)

Although many women are attempting to combine career and marriage and perhaps children, Westervelt (1973) saw no single pattern emerging of integrating their various roles. She did describe four major means of resolving the issues involved:

1. The Cooperative. Husbands and wives work out all aspects career and domestic responsibilities together.
2. The Compromising. The woman interrupts or defers her career development in order to give major parts of her time to the children.
3. The Cop-Out. A rejection of conventional career patterns in favor of nontraditional living styles where the women often do the household chores and the men do heavy outdoor work.

4. The Conventional. The woman who does one or a combination of the following:
 - a. Represses motivations for individual achievement.
 - b. Retreats from achievement for fear of failure.
 - c. Wholly invests herself in achievement goals of the husband.
 - d. Tries to have her marriage be the total outlet for her developmental needs.

Westervelt's four means are similar to Gail Sheehy's and Ginzberg's life patterns of women. Like Sheehy, Westervelt described most women presently opting for the conventional mean; yet she predicts the cooperative mean will be the most attractive choice for the future.

Zytowski (1969) is another vocational theorist who has attempted to hypothesize the nature of women's career patterns. In Zytowski's work, nine descriptors of women's vocational development are given.

1. The model life role for women is described as that of the homemaker.
2. The nature of the woman's role is not static. It will ultimately bear no distinction from that of men.
3. The life role of women is orderly and developmental, and may be divided into sequences according to the preeminent task in each.
4. Vocational and homemaker participation are largely mutually exclusive. Vocational participation constitutes departure from the homemaker role.

5. Three aspects of vocational participation are sufficient to distinguish patterns of vocational participation: age or ages of entry; span of participation; and degree of participation.
6. The degree of vocational participation represented by a given occupation is defined by the proportion of men to total workers employed in the performance of that job.
7. Women's vocational patterns may be distinguished in terms of three levels, derived from the combination of entry age(s) span, and degree of participation, forming an ordinal scale.
8. Women's preference for a pattern of vocational participation is an internal event, and is accounted for by motivational factors.
9. The pattern of vocational participation is determined jointly by preference representing motivation and by external, situational, and environmental, and internal, such as ability, factors. (Zytowski, 1969, p. 661-664)

In a follow-up study on female National Merit scholars to determine the nature of career and marriage plans, Watley and Kaplan (1971) presented participants with five alternative life plans from which to choose. The categories and percentage of respondents are listed below.

Marriage	8%
Marriage and Deferred Career	32%
Marriage and Immediate Career	46%
Uncertain	6%

An interesting finding was that the desire to marry was a good predictor of actually getting married after college. Other findings included experiencing problems in pursuing life goals and frustration in being pulled in too many directions.

Theory Regarding Feminine Sex-Role Identity

Within the psychoanalytic movement at the turn of the century, dissention was the theme in terms of the concept of female sexual identity. Freud's anatomy is destiny message attracted followers as well as dissenters. Follower Helene Deutch described passivity as the central attribute of femininity and argued that passivity asserted itself within women because of its biological origins (Klein, 1949). Karen Horney (1950) and Carl Jung (1971) were two major psychoanalytic psychologists who broke with Freud because of his support of theories such as Deutsch's (Williams, 1977). Horney in disagreeing with Freud and Deutsch believed that there was a masculine bias in psychoanalytic theory especially regarding women. She saw men reaping benefits of social conditioning theory by having more opportunity for achievement than women. Women, Horney asserted, were taught through social conditioning that their only need was to love and serve a man. Horney also could not accept Freud's fatalistic view of human growth; she believed that children were born with potential for growth and self-actualization which was further aided by a healthy environment. The totality of childhood experiences and conflict forms each person's unique character structure and within that forms their sex-role identity (Horney, 1950).

Jung's (1971) humanistic approach to psychology set him in opposition to Freud with regard to masculine and feminine

development as well as other areas. Jung tended to agree with Horney about the unique development of a person's sex-role identity; however, their explorations regarding the subject differed widely. The notion that a single person can contain both masculinity and femininity has been explored extensively by Carl Jung (1967). Jung's animus and anima are archetypes representing the masculine and feminine parts that he believed to be within us all. The personification of the masculine component of the woman's personality, Jung called the animus; the personification of the feminine component of the man's personality was termed the anima (Jung, 1967).

Since the anima is an archetype that is found in men it is reasonable to suppose than an equivalent archetype may be present in women. . . . Woman is compensated by a masculine element and therefore her unconscious has, so to speak, a masculine imprint. (Jung, 1971, p. 152)

Jung was the first to explicitly work and write about the concept of androgyny. In his studies of Asian philosophy and religion, he saw a great parallel in the Eastern concept of yin and yang to his descriptions of animus and anima (Watts, 1972). Both the Taoist Yin/Yang and the Jungian animus-anima are early descriptors of androgyny and call for a balance of complementary traits and behaviors within a personality.

Perhaps the earliest referent to the concept of androgyny is the Tai Chi, the philosophical base for the three branches

of Sinism: Buddhism, Confucianism, and Taoism. Tai Chi, interpreted as the ultimate unity, combines its two sides of Yin or dark softness and Yang or light toughness (Gia-Feng & Kirk, 1970). Tai Chi is represented by the well-known circle divided into two complementary teardrops, one light and the other dark.



Figure 2. Tai Chi Form of Yin and Yang

In the center of the light teardrop is a point of dark Yin; in the center of the dark one is a point of light Yang. Yang and Yin represent among other things good and bad, male and female, firm and yielding, day and night, south and north, heaven and earth, odd and even, and all the other simple dichotomies. Tai Chi represents their relationship which is not one of polar opposition but one of unity, of balance of complementarity. The Yin and the Yang are believed to be within us all, as Jung believed the animus and anima to be.

Sandra Bem's work while at Stanford was a natural extension of Jung's. While the notion of androgyny was definitively articulated by Jung, Bem (1974) has expanded and currently popularized the concept and has brought it to the forefront of the fields of counseling and psychology. She has written "An androgynous personality would thus represent the very best of what masculinity and femininity have come to represent" (p. 50) and stated that negative exaggerations of masculinity and femininity are cancelled out with the androgynous person. Bem has given a structure to androgyny and has developed an instrument, the Bem Sex Role Inventory (1974) which is used to distinguish androgynous persons from masculine or feminine ones, those with more sex-typed self-concepts. Bem (1975 (b)) tested students on her androgyny scale and found that the more androgynous students could be both independent if they were pressured to conform, and expressive if other more analytic chores were available. These students who were scored as androgynous did not lose one side of themselves while gaining another. Bem's scale for measuring androgyny allows a person to be both feminine and masculine. Sandra Bem (1975 (a)) anticipates the day that a person's sex-role identity would not be confused with gender identity, a secure sense of one's maleness or femaleness. She argued that masculinity and femininity represent complementary domains of traits and behaviors and that it is possible for a person to contain

both domains: instrumental (masculine) and expressive (feminine). She further stated that for the fullest functioning, the two would be integrated into one personality and that a person could have a male or female gender identity and an androgynous sex-role identity. Bem would probably disagree with Darley's (1976) statement that affiliate needs in women are superordinate to their achievement needs; they can fulfill achievement needs only after their affiliate or social needs are cared for. This according to both Jung and Bem would be a denial of a part of woman's identity.

A Jungian philosopher, Zweig (1977), has described her existential theory of sexual identity which has its place in this section of feminine sex-role identity. Zweig's work comes from a discipline apart from Bem's, yet the two theories approach the other. Zweig's Existential Theory of Sexual Identity, "holds that one's sexual identity if rightly understood is not to be understood along the lines of sexual apriorism" (p. 26). If existentially understood, a person's sexual identity can be seen as a process rather than something known at birth, or as Zweig wrote, "My sexual identity is the self-chosen life process of my sexed body together with my uncontaminated ongoing evaluation of this process" (p. 29). The theory dispenses with sexual apriorism and fixed sexual-social roles and supports a concept of integrating life processes within a psychic and sexual being.

A final theory of sex-role identity is that of process orientation. Forisha's (1978) concept was that we have the capacity within us to be process-oriented versus role-oriented with regard to our sex-role identity. Process-oriented individuals create their own lives and sexual identities. Role-oriented behavior takes its cue from external norms and the expectations of others. Process-oriented persons were described by Forisha as transcending the polarities that exist in masculine or feminine sex roles. She defined androgynous persons or persons in process as those, "who are neither strongly feminine nor strongly masculine in behavior but seek to keep open for themselves the full range of human emotions and behaviors" (Forisha, 1978, p. 29). Block (1973) supported the notion of process orientation of sexual identity in speaking of the integration of sex-role characteristics that occur at high levels of ego development. The concept of process orientation and sex-role transcendence was supported by others. Rebecca, Hefner, and Oleshansky (1976) wrote of three stages of sex-role development within a framework of process orientation. Their first stage was the undifferentiated; the second polarized, and the third one transcending polarities.

Table 3
 Process Orientation of Sex-Role Development

Developmental Stage	Sex-Role Orientation	Characteristics
Stage A: Infants	Human	Lack of differentiation between sex-role expectations
Stage B: Children	Masculine or feminine	Differentiation between sex-role expectations; reliance on either/ or alternatives
Stage C: Some adults	Androgynous	Integration and differentiation including transcendence of masculine and feminine dichotomy

(Rebecca, Hefner, & Oleshansky, 1976)

The undifferentiated stage takes place in infancy and early childhood. The polarized state in which a masculine or feminine sex-role orientation is maintained occurs in early childhood and continues for many years through adult living. The final stage of transcendence "is achieved when we allow ourselves to be 'in process' and without regard to gender choose the best alternative for ourselves at any particular time" (Forisha, 1978, p. 35). The transition from the first to the second is often a smooth one through support from our socialization procedures. Forisha saw the transition from polarization to transcendence as provoked by personal crises which propel a person to integrate his or her sex-role

polarities. Block's (1973) theory and that of others suggested that the prelude to androgyny is one of stress and conflict resolution.

There are, as yet, unanswered questions within the areas of the sex-role identification of professional women. The literature provides a profile of characteristics of this population which includes employment trends, demographic and social characters, and patterns of stress and conflict. The literature does not provide an integrative presentation of these characteristics in order to answer the questions under investigation. Chapter III includes the methods and procedures which will be used to determine the relationship of professional women's sex-role identities to selected stress and demographic variables.

CHAPTER III
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Overview

The relationship of professional women's sex-role identification and their psychological well-being as measured by stress factors of anxiety, depression, and hostility was investigated through a descriptive research study. The study included 335 professional women in the areas of medicine, education, law, and business from the Hillsborough County area of Florida. Three major areas of education, business, and science were designated, and a response range of 106 to 117 professional women from each major area was obtained. A modified random sampling procedure was used to obtain the subjects participating in this study. All respondents completed a Demographic Information Questionnaire, Bem Sex-Role Inventory, and Multiple Affect Adjective Checklist. Interviews were conducted with 15 women, five from each major area, following the analysis of data in order to enhance responses from the questionnaire. As part of a planned follow-up to the current investigation, married women responded to the Bem Sex-Role Inventory in terms of their perception of their husbands. The husband data has been stored for later investigation.

Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses were tested:

Hypothesis 1. There is no relationship between a professional woman's sex-role identity and her psychological well-being as measured by scores of anxiety, depression, and hostility.

Hypothesis 2. There is no relationship between the professional woman's sex-role identity and the following variables: occupation, marital status, age, times married and divorced, children, educational level, career interruptions, career stage, career pattern, and self-report of job satisfaction and home satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3. There is no relationship between a professional woman's psychological well-being, as measured by stress scores of anxiety, depression, hostility, and the following variables: occupation, marital status, age, times married and divorced, children, educational level, career interruptions, career stage, career pattern, and self-report of job satisfaction and home satisfaction.

Description of the Assessment Instruments

The assessment instruments used in this study were the Bem Sex-Role Inventory and the Multiple Affect Adjective Checklist. Additionally, a Demographic Information Questionnaire was administered to all participants.

Bem Sex-Role Inventory (BSRI)

The BSRI, developed by Sandra Bem in 1974, is a self-administering paper and pencil instrument which distinguishes androgynous persons from masculine or feminine ones. The inventory includes 60 adjectives: 20 masculine, 20 feminine, and 20 neutral personality characteristics. Masculine constructs include ambitious, assertive, independent, and strong. Feminine constructs include affectionate, gentle, sensitive, and understanding. Neutral characteristics, which are not scored, include conceited, happy, truthful, and unsystematic. The 40 masculine and feminine personality characteristics were rated by male and female raters as being significantly more desirable in American society for one sex than for the other.

A seven point Likert scale sets the format for the BSRI with responses ranging from one to seven: never or almost never true to almost always true. Respondents were asked to choose one of these seven categories as their answer for each item on the instrument. The response time was brief; subjects seldom required more than five minutes to complete the survey.

In scoring, the mean rating on masculine items generated a masculine scale score, and the mean rating on feminine items generated a feminine scale score. The respondents were then classified as masculine, feminine, androgynous, or undifferentiated based upon their scores on

both the masculinity and femininity scales. Using the median scores from Bem's Stanford sample (4.89 for masculinity and 4.76 for femininity), respondents in this study were placed into one of four mutually exclusive categories. Those subjects who scored above the masculinity median and below the femininity median were classified as masculine; those who scored above the femininity median and below the masculinity median were classified as feminine; those who scored above both medians were classified as androgynous; those who scored below both medians were classified as undifferentiated. Table 4 is a schematic of this classification process.

Table 4
Sex-Role Identity Classification

		Masculinity Score	
		Above Median	Below Median
Femininity Score	Above Median	Androgynous	Feminine
	Below Median	Masculine	Undifferentiated

Two additional norming scales were used as accessories to the Stanford Sample norms when scores from that sample provided no significant data through interaction with the demographic and stress variables. The Student t-ratio and the generation of population medians for masculinity and femininity scores were used to expand normative options.

Normative data have been collected on 810 persons; 560 males and 250 females (Bem, 1977). Scores for internal consistency were large and highly statistically significant. A coefficient for masculinity, femininity, and social desirability was computed: first sample--males, .86; females, .80; social desirability, .75; second sample--males, .86; females, .82; social desirability, .75. Using a four week test-retest period with a sample of 56 subjects, the following Pearson product-moment correlations were obtained on each of the four possible scales: masculine, .90; feminine, .90; androgynous, .93; and social desirability, .89. All correlations were statistically significant at the .05 or better level. A test of independence of masculinity and femininity scales was also investigated. Results from the norming sample indicated that they are empirically independent: first sample--males $r=+.11$, females $r=-.14$; second sample--males $r=+.02$, females $r=-.07$.

Multiple Affect Adjective Checklist (MAACL)

The MAACL, written by Marvin Zuckerman and Bernard Lubin, was an extension of the Affect Adjective Checklist originally developed by Zuckerman (1960). Two new scales, depression and hostility, were added to the original checklist which scored for anxiety, increasing the total number of items from 60 to 132. The MAACL is a self-administering questionnaire designed to provide a valid measure of three of the clinically relevant affects: anxiety, depression,

and hostility. It contains 132 adjectives alphabetically arranged in three columns on one side of a single sheet. All words are at or below an eighth grade reading level. There are two forms of the checklist: the "In General" form instructs the subject to mark an "x" beside the words which describe "how you generally feel." The "Today" form instructs the subject to mark an "x" beside the words which describe "How you feel now--today." Subjects were administered the General form since a trait affect assessment rather than a state affect assessment is desired. Zuckerman (1960) conducted a reliability study of the two forms and determined that the "Today" form measured fluctuating moods and the "General" form measured stable traits. The response time was brief and seldom required more than five minutes.

In scoring the test, plus items were scored if the subject checked them, while minus items are scored if the subject did not check them. The total anxiety score was the number of "+" items checked plus the number of "-" not checked. The procedure for scoring the depression and hostility scales was the same. Norms are available on various samples of normals and neuropsychiatric patients.

The split half reliability of both forms of the three MAACL scales is high and statistically significant when the items are divided by the odd-even method, .72 to .92. The General test had retest reliabilities which are acceptable at .54 to .70 for the General form.

Thus, the General form of the MAACL has been reported to be a reliable assessment of trait affect. The task of distinguishing between state and trait responses was an important concept for the respondents in the study to follow. Because of this, it was important the participants read the directions carefully and realize that the inventory called for trait rather than state responses. The crucial assumption that the respondents would read the directions and understand to mark how they "generally feel" (trait assessment) was investigated in a pilot study.

An available sample of 19 professional women participated in the pilot study. The null hypothesis under investigation follows: Of a sample of professional women responding to the instrument, 50 percent will indicate that they responded to the MAACL in terms of their current status. Participants were first administered the MAACL. Following that, participants were asked to choose one of two statements: 1) The words I marked tend to reflect how I feel now-today. 2) The words I marked tend to reflect how I commonly feel. Of the 19 participants, 16 marked the second statement, the correct statement with regard to the directions of the trait form of the checklist. A z statistic was used as a test of proportion to analyze the data. Use of the z statistic allowed an examination of the observed proportion (.8421) against the hypothesized proportion (.5). The null hypothesis was rejected; the proportion yielded a

score of .99 which is statistically greater than chance probability. Of the 19 women sampled, 16 or 84.21 percent indicated that they had responded in terms of "how I generally feel." This result was statistically significant, $z = 2.98$, $p = .0014$. Thus, the assertion that respondents had an equal likelihood of responding in a state versus trait set was rejected.

Demographic Information Questionnaire (DIQ)

The DIQ (Appendix C), developed by the researcher, was administered to subjects to provide the following information: occupation, age, marital status, times married and divorced, number of children, educational level, number of years employed, career stage, career pattern, self-report of job and home satisfaction. The questionnaire took approximately five minutes to complete and was used to determine the relationship of those variables to sex-role identification and to factors of stress.

Description of the Population and Sample

The population for this study consisted of 335 women who held at least a bachelor's degree and who were professionally employed in Hillsborough County, Florida. Hillsborough County is located on the west coast of Florida with the metropolitan area of Tampa being the hub. Outlying areas include Brandon, Lutz, Apollo Beach, Temple Terrace, Ruskin, and Plant City. Ybor City, a landmark community of

Cuban and Spanish persons, is located within the county. The county is a center noted for its business, manufacturing, shipping, tourist trade, mining, and varied agriculture. The county is probably Florida's most diverse which is expressed in economic disparities, ethnic cultures, and educational facilities. The county is residence for primarily Caucasian, Hispanic, and Black citizens. A 1976 survey indicated 32 non-English speaking home environments from Arabic to Yugoslavian. Median age for Tampa residents is 30.8 and for Hillsborough County, 28.5. Hillsborough County is one of the fastest growing areas for employment in the South. There are presently over 280,000 civilians in the labor force. Firms include Hillsborough County, City of Tampa, Tampa Tribune Company, Tampa Electric Company, Maas Brothers, Freedom Federal, Honeywell, Westinghouse, and Jim Walter Corporation. Educational facilities include the University of South Florida, University of Tampa, and Hillsborough Community College with four campuses. The Hillsborough County Public School System with over 14,000 pupils, K-12, is the third largest in the state of Florida and ranks twenty-second in the nation. There are sixteen general, specialty, and military hospitals with a medical school located at the University of South Florida. Tampa was selected as site for the Florida Institute for Mental Health in 1974 because of the diversity of the area and its generalizability to the rest of the state and the country.

In a recent survey of thirty cities with populations of one million or more, Tampa was ranked fifth in the category "Jobs for Women." Four factors were included in the decision of the ranking: overall unemployment rate, the ratio between the male and female unemployment, the number of women holding professional and technical jobs, and the number of women in managerial and administrative jobs (Welch, 1978).

The percentage of women working in Hillsborough County corresponded to state and national figures. The 1970 census reflected a population of approximately 500,000 persons. The Office of Research and Statistics of the Florida Department of Commerce listed 268,422 persons working in Hillsborough County, Florida: 57.5 percent were male and 42.5 percent, female (Florida Department of Commerce, 1978). The state percentages were the same for a labor force of 3,544,000; and national figures indicated a 59 percent male work force and 41 percent, female (United States Department of Labor, June, 1978). The Florida Department of Commerce did not provide comparable information on Hillsborough County alone. It was provided in combination with Pinellas County. Within Hillsborough and Pinellas Counties, there were 59,802 professional persons reported, 33,470 men and 26,332 women or 55.9 percent male and 44 percent female (Florida Department of Commerce, 1978). Again, this compared with national figures. The United States Department

of Labor reported the national professional work force at 28,400,000 with 57 percent men and 42.9 percent women. Hillsborough County could, thus, be generalizable to the state of Florida and to the nation in terms of employment of professional women.

Procedures

Collection of Data

A random sample of 501 professional women in Hillsborough County was drawn from the following county directories: Bar, Dental, Medical, Veterinarian, Pharmacological, County Public School System, University of South Florida, Hillsborough Community College, University of Tampa, and the 30 largest businesses in the county, as well as county, city, and state employees. Additionally, names of psychologists, counselors, accountants, and small business persons were drawn from the yellow pages.

A letter (Appendix A) requesting participation was mailed to those women which included five attachments related to the study: Form 1, the Demographic Information Questionnaire; Form 2, the Multiple Affect Adjective Checklist; Form 3, the Bem Sex-Role Inventory for Participants; Form 4, the Bem Sex-Role Inventory for married respondents to complete regarding their husbands; and a postage paid self-addressed envelope.

Participants required an average of 15 to 20 minutes to complete all of the materials. Fourteen days following the

first mailing, postcards were mailed to those persons who had not yet responded, again requesting participation (Appendix B). This follow-up procedure was designed to produce a high rate of participation.

Analysis of Data

The primary purpose of this study was to determine whether there was a significant relationship between the two dependent factors, sex-role identity and psychological well-being, and between either of the factors and the demographic variables. The same statistical procedures were followed for Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3. After the criterion instruments were returned by the respondents, they were scored and/or coded, and the data analyzed.

A series of chi-square tests for contingency tables were performed in testing the three hypotheses. A principal components' factor analysis followed by a varimax rotation was applied to a correlation matrix. Additionally, a series of multiple discriminant analyses were used to determine differences between patterns of mean scores. The confidence level was set at less than or equal to $p.05$.

After the data was collected and analyzed, five women from each of the three major areas of education, business, and arts and science were selected for interview on a stratified random basis. The fifteen subjects were contacted by the researcher and asked to participate in a

thirty minute interview. Six open-ended questions (Appendix D) were asked to enhance the significance of the data already collected and to elucidate variables common to the population.

Limitations of the Study

This study was limited by self selection of respondents for participation. The study was also limited by the possibility that responses to the instruments may be a biased report of the perceptions of the participants.

Finally, while attempts were made to show the degree to which Hillsborough County may be generalized to other counties in the country, there was no control group or comparison group in this study. Therefore, the results must be limited to professional women in Hillsborough County, Florida.

CHAPTER IV
RESULTS OF THE STUDY

Introduction

Of the 501 professional women surveyed in Hillsborough County, Florida, during December, 1978, and January, 1979, 335 or 67 percent responded by completing the Demographic Information Questionnaire, Bem Sex-Role Inventory, and Multiple Affect Adjective Checklist. Demographic data provided the following information: occupational classification, age, marital status, number of times married and divorced, number of children, educational level, number of years employed, continuous or interrupted work career with reasons for interruptions, career stage, career pattern, job and home satisfaction. The Bem Sex-Role Inventory characterized the respondents as masculine, feminine, androgynous, or undifferentiated. The Multiple Affect Adjective Checklist provided measures of anxiety, depression, and hostility.

In this chapter an analysis of data is presented based on the methodology and statistical procedures described in Chapter III. The chapter is divided into two sections. The first will include descriptive data of the sample by demographic data; sex-role identity; and stress scales of anxiety, depression, and hostility. The second section will

be a presentation of the analysis performed in determining relationships among variables.

Descriptive Data of the Sample

Demographic Data

The demographic data have been presented first in order to provide a comprehensive profile of the 335 respondents. The professional women surveyed were uniformly distributed across the demographic arbitrations. Equal numbers of women responded from the three occupational categories; approximately half were married; ten year increments of work experience set them into three groups of approximately equal size.

Occupation. Three major occupational areas were established in an effort to describe professional women who trained for and work in intrinsically different career fields: science, business, and education. Science included 1) medical doctors, veterinarians, dentists, scientists; 2) nurses; 3) psychologists and counselors; 4) other. Business included 1) attorneys, 2) accountants, 3) bankers, 4) executives and administrators. Education included 1) public school administrators and faculty, 2) community college administrators and faculty, 3) university administrators and faculty. An equal number of surveys, 167, were mailed to women in the three groups in attempting to gather comparable data from each area. The response rate was relatively constant across occupational areas (see Table 5).

Table 5
Distribution of Respondents
by
Occupational Area

Area	Frequency	Percent
Sciences	106	32
Business	117	35
Education	112	33

There was over a 30 percent response rate from professional women in each of the three occupational areas. The first, science, was a blending of traditional and nontraditional female occupations. Business represented nontraditional female occupations; and education, traditional female occupations. For a more detailed analysis of occupational distribution of respondents see Table 6.

Age. Although the distribution of ages in the sample was not known at the time of mailing, it also broke into groups of comparable size. For convenience, age was coded into ten year increments. The mean age was 39.3 with the range from 21 years old to 71 years old (See Table 7).

Table 6
Distribution of Respondents
by
Occupation

Occupation	Frequency	Percent
<u>Science</u>		
1. M.D., Dentists, D.V.M., Scientist	22	6.6
2. Nurses	13	3.9
3. Counselor/Psychologist	45	13.4
4. Other	26	7.8
<u>Business</u>		
1. Attorney	31	9.3
2. Accountant	11	3.3
3. Banker	8	2.4
4. Administrator/Executive	67	20.0
<u>Education</u>		
1. Public School Administrator or Faculty	41	12.3
2. University Administrator or Faculty	51	15.2
3. Community College Administrator or Faculty	20	5.5

Table 7
Distribution of Respondents
by
Age

Age	Frequency	Percent
21-30	84	25
31-40	117	35
41-50	71	21
51-Older	63	19

The largest subgroup within age is the 31 through 40 year old group, and the smallest subgroup is the 51 through 71 year old age group. This last subgroup was collapsed to include two decades.

Marital Status. Marital status information is presented in Table 8. Fifty-six percent of the respondents were married and living with their husbands while 44 percent lived alone. The latter 44 percent fell into two major categories: 1) single, never married and 2) formerly married. The formerly married subgroup was obtained by collapsing three coded categories on the questionnaire: divorced, separated, and widowed.

Table 8
Distribution of Respondents
by
Marital Status

Marital Status	Frequency	Percent
1. Single, never married	66	20
2. Married	186	56
3. Formerly married	83	24
a. Divorced	68	20
b. Separated	04	01
c. Widowed	11	03

Times Married and Divorced. Of the 335 respondents, 269 were married at time of response or had been formerly married. Data were collected from these women on their number of times married and number of times divorced (See Table 9).

Table 9
Distribution of Respondents
by
Number of Times Married or Divorced

Times Married or Divorced	Frequency	Percent
Once married, never divorced	210	78
Once divorced	44	17
Twice divorced	13	5
Three times divorced	1	0
Five times divorced	1	0

Children. Over one-half of the respondents had no children (see Table 10). The mean number of children for this sample of professional women was 1.06 with a range of zero to eight. As stated earlier, 66 or 20 percent were single, never married. None in this group reported children. Therefore, 105 or 32 percent of the professional women who were currently or formerly married did not have children; 68 percent had one or more.

Table 10
Distribution of Respondents
by
Numbers of Children

Number of Children	Frequency	Percent
No Children	171	52
1	54	16
2	62	19
3	24	7
4	18	5
5	4	1
6	1	0
8	1	0

Educational Level. Educational level was grouped into three broad categories 1) bachelor's degree or its equivalent, 2) master's degree, and 3) doctoral level degree with respondents being fairly equally distributed across the three categories (See Table 11).

Table 11
Distribution of Respondents
by
Educational Level

Educational Level	Frequency	Percent
Bachelor's Degree (or equivalent)	113	33
Master's Degree (one or more)	117	35
Doctoral Level Degree	105	32
Ph.D.	59	56
J.D. (law)	31	30
M.D.	12	11
D.V.M.	1	01
D.D.S.	2	02

Years Employed. Number of years employed was coded into both ten year and five year blocks. The mean number of years of work experience was 14.7 with a range of under one year to 46 years. Over one hundred respondents had worked for zero to nine years; 103 had worked from 10 to 19 years; and 102 respondents had worked 20 years or more. The respective percentages are 39 percent, 31 percent, and 30 percent. When viewed in five year increments, a greater disparity is seen in the group having worked from five to nine years and the other six groups. Figure 3 is a histogram of this distribution.

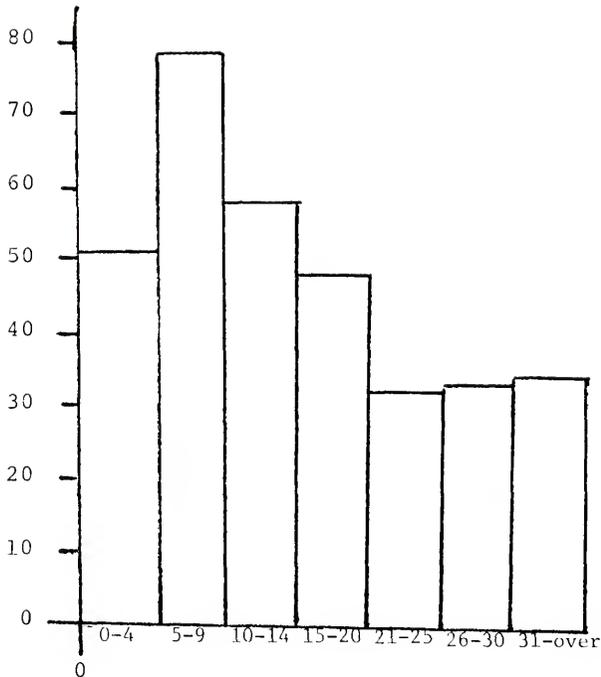


Figure 3. Distribution of Respondents by Years Employed.

Career Interruptions. Over 57 percent of the professional women responding to the mailing had a continuous work pattern. They had worked with no career interruptions. One hundred forty-three respondents or 43 percent listed one or a series of career interruptions. Table 12 presents a ranking of those items listed in response to the statement, "I have interrupted my career activity for the following reasons."

Table 12
Rank Order
of
Respondents' Listed Career Interruptions

Rank Order	Reasons for Career Interruption
1	Maternity
2	Graduate School
3	Childrearing
4	Conflict with husband's career
5	Homemaking
6	Seek new job
7	Marriage
8	Illness
9	Travel

Stages and Patterns. Career stages and career patterns were also examined in the Demographic Information Questionnaire. Within the overview of career stages, five options were elaborated for choice, and two more were added based on an analysis of the "other" responses.

Beginning Stage (Just beginning work)
 Tentative Stage (Settling into work activity)
 Established Stage (Well oriented beyond formal
 job training)
 Advanced Stage (Highly developed job skills;
 minimal challenge)
 Completion Stage (Ready for retirement)
 Transition (Shift in career emphasis)
 Advanced Stage (Maximal challenge)

Transition stage and advanced stage, maximal challenge, were the two added stages. The distribution of respondents by career stage is given in Table 13.

Table 13
Distribution of Respondents
by
Career Stage

Career Stage	Frequency	Percent
Beginning	15	4
Tentative	43	13
Established	157	47
Advanced, minimal challenge	71	21
Completion	17	5
Transition	12	4
Advanced, maximum challenge	20	6

The three choices for career patterns were taken from Sheehy's (1974) descriptions of the achiever, nurturer and integrator. Three additional patterns emerged from the fourth heading, "Other, please describe." The six patterns include the following:

1. I postpone/postponed motherhood or marriage to prepare for career and to work. (Achiever)
2. I have postponed any strenuous career efforts in order to marry and start a family but work at a later point, usually after children are grown or in school. (Nurturer)

3. I combine/combined marriage, career, and motherhood in my twenties. (Integrator)
4. I combined only marriage and career in my twenties, thirties, or forties. (Marriage/Career)
5. I am single and have a career. I did not postpone marriage, but either chose to not marry or circumstances were not available. (Single/Career)
6. I interrupted my career to be a homemaker and then resumed my career. (Interrupted Career)

Table 14 illustrates the frequency and percent of responses within each of the six career pattern categories.

Table 14
Distribution of Respondents
by
Career Pattern

Career Pattern	Frequency	Percent
Achiever	62	19
Nurturer	29	09
Integrator	105	31
Marriage/Career	96	28
Single/Career	31	09
Interrupted Career	12	04

Job and Home Satisfaction. The two final descriptions obtained via the Demographic Information Checklist were indicators of job satisfaction and home satisfaction.

Respondents rated job and home satisfaction on scales of one to seven. "Not at all satisfied" labeled number one, "Neutral" labeled number four, and "Completely Satisfied" labeled number seven. The mean score for job satisfaction was 5.73; the mean score for home satisfaction was 5.69. The frequency and percent of responses are given in Tables 15 and 16.

Table 15
Distribution of Respondents
by
Job and Satisfaction

Job Satisfaction	Frequency	Percent
1 Not at All	5	1
2	5	1
3	9	3
4 Neutral	20	7
5	54	16
6	167	50
7 Completely Satisfied	75	22

Table 16
 Distribution of Respondents
 by
 Home Satisfaction

Home Satisfaction	Frequency	Percent
1 Not at All	2	1
2	4	1
3	18	5
4 Neutral	29	9
5	58	17
6	130	39
7 Completely Satisfied	94	28

Thus, 11 percent of the sampled population responded within the "neutral" to "not at all satisfied" range with their jobs while 89 percent indicated some satisfaction to complete satisfaction. Home satisfaction responses were similar with 16 percent of the respondents indicating "neutral" to "not at all satisfied," and 84 percent marking within a range of some to complete satisfaction.

Bem Sex Role Inventory

The respondents' scores on the Bem Sex Role Inventory were analyzed by using three scoring classifications: the Stanford student sample norms (Bem, 1978), the Androgyny t-ratio, and by the generation of medians for masculinity

and femininity scores from the present sample of professional women. Originally, the Stanford sample norms were the only scales that were to be applied in obtaining the sex-role classification for respondents. However, when use of the Stanford norms yielded no significant interactions with demographic or stress variables, the two additional norming scales were employed in an attempt to elucidate the findings. The two additional norming examinations greatly increased the notion of homogeneity among respondents.

Stanford Norms. The mean masculinity and femininity scores for a sample of Stanford undergraduates were 4.89 and 4.76, respectively. Use of these placement norms categorized the respondents into four sex-role categories (See Table 17).

Table 17
Distribution of Respondents
by
Sex-Role Identity
using
Stanford Sample Norms

Sex-Role Identity	Frequency	Percent
Masculinity	80	23.9
Femininity	59	17.6
Androgynous	162	48.4
Undifferentiated	34	10.1

Almost half of the respondents were classified as androgynous; they scored above 4.89 on the masculinity scale and above 4.76 on the femininity scale. The 10 percent undifferentiated group scored below both medians, and the masculinity and femininity groups scored above their respective medians and below the other.

Students' t-ratio. Originally, the degree of sex-role stereotyping in a person's self-concept on the BSRI was measured by the student's \underline{t} -ratio for the difference between the total points assigned to the masculine and feminine attributes. If a person's masculinity score was significantly higher than his or her femininity score, the person was said to have a masculine sex role; if a person's femininity score was significantly higher than his or her masculinity score, that person was said to have a feminine sex role. The suggested cut-off points for classifying subjects in terms of the Androgyny \underline{t} -ratio are as follows:

$\underline{t} \geq 2.025$	Feminine
$1.0 \leq \underline{t} < 2.025$	Near Feminine
$-1.0 \leq \underline{t} \leq 1.0$	Androgynous
$-2.025 < \underline{t} < -1.0$	Near Masculine
$\underline{t} \leq -2.025$	Masculine

If a person's masculinity and femininity scores were approximately equal ($|\underline{t}| \leq 1$, n.s.), that person was said to have an androgynous sex role.

When the respondents' scores were examined by means of the t -ratio, all of the professional women in the sample were classified as androgynous. The mean was $-.031$, the median was $-.037$, and the mode was zero. Standard error of the mean was $.004$. While this method of classification was more restrictive than the other two in that it eliminates the undifferentiated category, it is important to present here as an illustration of the homogeneity of scores among the 335 respondents.

Sample Median Generation. The third method of examining scores on the BSRI was considered in addition to the Student t -ratio (Bem, 1974) in order to differentiate between those persons with the present sample who score high in both masculinity and femininity and those who score low in both. The Student t -ratio would classify both groups as androgynous. In this method, subjects would be divided at the median on both the masculinity and femininity scales which would derive the four block classification scheme described in Chapter III. Although this median generation method is recommended for these samples with fairly equal numbers of male and female subjects, it was performed with this sample of women in an effort to examine the scores by use of a self-norming criterion as well as the aforementioned Stanford norms (See Table 18). Masculinity scores for the population ranged from 3.05 to 6.70. The mean score was 5.21, mode was 4.95, and the median masculinity score

was 5.30. Femininity scores for the population ranged from 3.45 to 6.10. The mean score was 4.96, the mode was 5.05, and the median femininity score was 5.0.

Table 18
Distribution of Respondents
on
BSRI by Population Median

Sex Role	Frequency	Percent
Masculinity	80	23.9
Femininity	59	17.6
Androgynous	162	48.4
Undifferentiated	34	10.1

The subjects who scored above the masculinity median of 5.30 and below the femininity median of 5.0 were classified as masculine; those who scored above the femininity median and below the masculinity median were classified as feminine; those who scored above 5.30 on the masculinity median and above 5.0 on the femininity median were classified as androgynous; and those who scored below both medians were classified as undifferentiated.

Multiple Affect Adjective Checklist

The Multiple Affect Adjective Checklist (MAACL) was administered to obtain stress scores on the traits of anxiety, depression, and hostility. Normative data on a

normal population of women were employed in assessing results. A t-test was used to determine whether a significant difference existed between the sample population and the norming population. Table 19 presents these differences.

Table 19

T-Test Between Sample Population
and Norming Population of Anxiety,
Depression, and Hostility Scores

Stress Factors	Difference	Significance
Anxiety	3.00	$p < .01$
Depression	0.49	NS
Hostility	0.88	NS

Thus, the sample population was determined to be less anxious than the norming population to a significant degree. The population of professional women was also less depressed and hostile but to no significant degree.

Data Analysis

A series of three analyses were performed in examining the three null hypotheses presented in Chapter III: factor analysis, discriminant analysis, and chi-square analysis. The three null hypotheses, after treatment of analysis, were retained:

Hypothesis 1. There is no relationship between a professional woman's sex-role identity and her psychological

well being as measured by scores of anxiety, depression, and hostility.

Hypothesis 2. There is no relationship between the professional woman's sex-role identity and the following variables: occupation marital status, age, times married and divorced, children, educational level, career interruptions, career stage, career pattern, and self-report of job satisfaction and home satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3. There is no relationship between a professional woman's psychological well-being, as measured by stress scores of anxiety, depression, hostility, and the following variables: occupation, marital status, age, times married and divorced, children, educational level, career interruptions, career stage, career pattern, and self-report of job satisfaction and home satisfaction.

Factor Analysis

A principal components' factor analysis followed by a varimax rotation was applied to a correlation matrix. The eigenvalues presented in Table 20 were examined for a break, i.e., a relatively large change between two successive factors. Four factors were returned for the varimax rotation. The rotated factors are presented in Table 21. Factor 1 has high loadings on job satisfaction, home satisfaction, masculine self, and the MAACL scales and represents the common variance shared by these variables. This factor appears to be tapping positive adjustment, i.e., negative stress versus

Table 20
Eigenvalues
of
Factors

Factor	Eigenvalue	Percent of Variance
1	3.64966	20.3
2	2.29913	12.8
3	1.64872	9.2
4	1.53240	8.5
5	1.21099	6.7
6	1.07134	6.0
7	.96202	5.3
8	.90002	5.0
9	.83835	4.7
10	.77914	4.3
11	.70940	3.9
12	.66964	3.7
13	.56783	3.2
14	.38113	2.1
15	.27971	1.6
16	.23288	1.3
17	.16723	.9

Table 21
 Varimax Rotated Factor Matrix
 After Rotation With Kaiser Normalization

Variable	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
Marital Status	-.01102	.25344	.24098	.10525
Career Stage	.08778	.45152	.03402	.03851
Career Pattern	.01848	.01620	.26059	-.01384
Job Satisfaction	.41965	.12110	.04880	-.00662
Home Satisfaction	.48546	.08042	.03302	-.06642
Education	.00499	.03180	-.02150	.00463
Children	.10257	.28933	.91213	-.06996
Children at Home	.08464	.02726	.72265	-.02873
# of Years Employed	.09172	.85403	.03821	-.01321
Divorced Times	.02416	.11222	.08611	-.01644
Age	.11056	.93929	.11786	-.02498
Feminine Self	.10700	.10694	.07616	.65967
Masculine Self	.37494	-.05399	-.00786	.37877
Neutral Self	-.03604	.1164	-.04941	.72539
Anxiety	-.87918	-.13879	-.00301	-.01192
Depression	-.90167	-.06619	-.02066	-.13805
Hostility	-.63277	-.03588	-.08045	-.11373
Bem	.03219	.02957	.05080	.10558

high home/job satisfaction. Factor 2 is tapping a time dimension: age, years employed, career stage. Factor 3 is tapping children, and Factor 4 is tapping the Bem scales.

While Factor 1 does demonstrate a degree of shared variance in the variables, the overwhelming pattern is one of independent factors.

Discriminant Analysis

Discriminant analysis was next employed to determine if any linear function existed which significantly differentiated groupings of respondents using the dependent variables from the Bem and the MAACL. Marital status, career stage, occupation, and career pattern were the major grouping variables used in these analyses. As will become apparent in the following presentation of these analyses, only one of the grouping variables could be differentiated by a linear combination of dependent variables. Table 22 presents the means and univariate F-ratio for the three marital status groups for sex-role identity and stress scores. Career stage, occupation, and career pattern were examined in the same manner, and Tables 23, 24, and 25 present the mean scores and F-ratio of those respective categories by sex-role identity and stress scores.

A determination of the significance of discriminant function was formed by testing the canonical correlation between the group variables for marital status and the dependent variables. Results were nonsignificant with a chi-square of 7.39 (10 degrees of freedom, $p < .689$).

Table 22
 Mean Scores and F-Ratio of Respondents'
 Marital Status by Sex-Role Identity and Stress Scores

Dependent Variables	Marital Status		F-Ratio
	Single	Married	
Femininity	4.89629	4.93799	1.7439
Masculinity	5.23150	5.18557	.3644
Anxiety	5.71212	5.38710	.1962
Depression	11.27273	10.69355	.3066
Hostility	6.66667	6.01613	1.5528

Table 23
 Mean Scores and F-Ratio of Respondents'
 Career Stages by Sex-Role Identity and Stress Scores

Dependent Variables	Career Stage							F-Ratio
	Beginning	Tentative	Transition	Established	Advanced Minimal Challenge	Advanced Maximum Challenge	Completion	
Femininity	4.97000	4.83372	5.21667	4.9429	4.95964	4.94724	5.15882	1.2218
Masculinity	5.10667	5.01628	5.68333	5.25729	5.26268	5.20587	4.97647	1.8106
Anxiety	7.20000	7.23256	6.66667	5.28662	4.91549	5.49020	3.64706	4.3057*
Depression	13.53333	12.30233	10.00000	10.79618	9.92958	10.83987	9.11765	1.9479
Hostility	7.40000	7.16279	6.33333	5.76433	5.73239	6.00327	5.11765	1.8172

*p < .05

Table 24
 Mean Scores and F-Ratio of Respondents'
 Occupations by Sex-Role Identity and Stress Scores

Dependent Variables	Occupation			F-Ratio
	Science	Business	Education	
Femininity	4.97939	4.92910	4.95923	.2809
Masculinity	5.20377	5.26622	5.16292	.7278
Anxiety	5.94340	5.38462	5.10714	1.5087
Depression	11.13208	10.61538	10.62500	.2855
Hostility	6.45283	5.94872	5.76786	1.0521

Table 25
 Mean Scores and F-Ratio of Respondents'
 Career Pattern by Sex-Role Identity and Stress Scores

Dependent Variables	Career Pattern					F-Ratio	
	Achiever	Nurturer	Integrator	Marriage/ Career	Single/ Career		Interrupted Career
Femininity	4.97186	5.02296	4.97366	4.99010	4.74839	4.79583	1.5323
Masculinity	5.20272	5.08621	5.23617	5.18646	5.29448	5.34167	.4663
Anxiety	5.90323	5.51724	4.89524	5.60417	5.80645	6.16667	.8767
Depression	11.66129	11.00000	9.96190	11.03125	10.90323	10.58333	.7629
Hostility	6.83871	6.41379	5.33333	5.88542	6.35484	7.83333	2.1944

Results from testing the canonical correlation between the group variables of career stages and dependent variables were nonsignificant with a chi-square of 42.04 (25 degrees of freedom, $p < .018$). The dependent variable, anxiety, had a statistically significant correlation with career stage. Anxiety scores tended to decrease with successive career stages and to decline as a person reached completion or retirement. The canonical correlation between the group variables for occupations resulted in a chi-square of 8.90 and 10 degrees of freedom ($p < .620$). In addition, the final canonical correlation for career pattern was not significant. Chi-square was 25.78 with 25 degrees of freedom ($p < .419$). Thus, only one of the group variables, career stage, differentiated in terms of a dependent measure, anxiety.

Chi-Square

Chi-square tests of statistical significance were performed as a final examination of the data to determine whether any systematic relationship existed between pairs of variables. Tables 26 and 27 present the results of the cross tabulations that were computed. The only relationships found to be significant through chi-square analysis were those of Bem scores by MAACL scores. Since this had already been determined by factor analysis, it cannot be regarded as new information, merely a reinforcement of the factor analysis. The scales would probably tend to relate

Table 26
Chi-Square Results
from
Cross Tabulations of Variables
by
Bem

Variables by Bem	Chi-Square	DF	Significance
Occupation	28.43495	39	.8940
Marital Status	2.80391	6	.8330
Children	1.57343	3	.6654
Children at home	15.05456	15	.4475
Children (0 or any)	2.80664	3	.4224
Education (3 blocks)	4.71877	6	.5804
Education (all levels)	22.03462	24	.5772
Years employed (all)	117.26615	123	.6323
Years employed (5 yr. block)	18.05469	18	.4521
Years employed (10 yr. blocks)	6.54809	9	.6841
Career Stage	25.69418	24	.3689
Career Pattern	12.06748	15	.6739
Job Satisfaction	26.79120	18	.0830
Home Satisfaction	25.64464	18	.1082

Table 27
Chi-Square Results
from
Cross Tabulations of Variables
by
MAACL

Variables	Chi-Square	DF	Significance
<u>By Anxiety</u>			
Education	35.03148	32	.3262
Children	7.66022	4	.1048
Age (5 year blocks)	21.63145	16	.1555
Bem	76.34630	48	.0057*
<u>By Depression</u>			
Education	32.00973	32	.4663
Children	8.00578	4	.0914
Age (5 year blocks)	19.96383	16	.2219
Bem	125.78726	84	.0017*
<u>By Hostility</u>			
Education	29.33159	32	.6023
Children	5.31632	4	.2564
Age (5 year blocks)	14.61184	16	.5533
Bem	92.32121	54	.0009*

*p < .05

due to the domain of personality phenomena. However, no relationship between the Bem scores when broken into sex-role identity categories and stress scores existed. In part, this may be due to the homogeneity of the sample population; if a more diverse group were examined, the relationship determined between Bem scores and stress scores might influence a relationship between sex-role identity classifications and stress scores. No other pairs of variables when examined by the chi-square test were statistically significant.

Summary

Thus, by use of factor analysis, discriminant analysis, and the chi-square test as applied to the data on professional women, the only significant relationships that were determined between sex-role identity and stress scores of anxiety, depression, and hostility were of little impact. They did not describe the important dimensions in differentiating the sample of professional women on the variables obtained. Homogeneity of groups existed across variable demarcations. The three null hypotheses were retained.

CHAPTER V
DISCUSSION AND SUMMARY

The review of research on professional women in Chapter II determined that women are working in a wide variety of professional positions at growing rates across the country. The research indicated that combining the complex responsibilities regarding home and work would tend to create high personal stress and family disruption. While no empirical research was found on professional women and sex-role identity, it was concluded from the research of literature that they would experience confusion because of conflicts in feminine role stereotyping during adolescence and in the requirements for masculine related characteristics in the world of work. Three hypotheses were set to investigate the intimations and assumptions of professional women that were developed through research of the literature.

In December, 1978, and January, 1979, 335 professional women in Hillsborough County, Florida, responded to inquiries for demographic, sex-role identity, and stress (anxiety, depression, and hostility) information. The women were employed in traditional and nontraditional work environments in three basic areas of science, business, and education.

By means of factor analysis, discriminant analysis, and chi-square tests of statistical significance, the respondents' data were examined exhaustively to determine relationships among the variables. The findings of this investigation were presented in Chapter IV. In addition, follow-up interviews were held with 15 respondents to enhance the findings and are presented within this chapter.

Summary of the Results

Three null hypotheses were tested during the investigation, and the results of the analytical process on each follow:

Hypothesis 1. Fail to reject.

There is no relationship between a professional woman's sex-role identity and her psychological well-being as measured by scores of anxiety, depression, and hostility.

Hypothesis 2. Fail to reject for all but one set of variables: anxiety and career stage.

There is no relationship between the professional woman's sex-role identity and the following variables: occupation, marital status, age, times married and divorced, children, educational level, career interruptions, career stage, career pattern, and self-report of job satisfaction and home satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3. Fail to reject.

There is no relationship between a professional woman's psychological well-being, as measured by stress scores of anxiety, depression, hostility, and the following variables: occupation, marital status, age, times married and divorced, children, educational level, career interruptions, career stage, career pattern, and self-report of job satisfaction and home satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2 was rejected in part. One pair of variables within that hypothesis was determined to have a statistically significant relationship. Career stage and anxiety displayed a significant relationship. As movement through career stages (from tentative, just settling into work activity, to completion) ready for retirement occurred, anxiety decreased. Thus, the more advanced stage a person described herself as occupying, the less anxious she also described herself. Curiously, career stage was also determined to have a positive relationship to age and number of years employed, but these two variables did not relate significantly to anxiety. Age and number of years employed are objective data, whereas choice of a descriptive career stage is subjective data.

Practical Limitations

The nature of this research necessitated some consideration of the actual limitations within which these findings

must be interpreted. In Chapter III it was noted that the study was limited by self selection of respondents; however, the high rate of return tended to overrule the notion of bias by self selection. It was also noted that a possibility existed that responses to the instruments may have been a biased report of the perceptions of the participants. Two factors may have affected this notion. First, a Hawthorne effect, or novelty of being singled out as a participant, may have affected the respondents' replies toward a positive affect. The second factor of biased self-report may relate to anonymity. Whereas, the returned information was coded, respondents also realized that code numbers could be cross-referenced with name and, thus, possibly chose to present a biased response. Although there was no indication through the follow-up interviews that this phenomenon occurred, it must be noted as a possibility.

A third limitation of the study, as mentioned in Chapter III, is that while attempts were made to demonstrate the degree to which Hillsborough County may be generalized to other counties in the country, there were no control or comparison groups. The results must remain limited to professional women employed in Hillsborough County.

Finally, use of the Stanford norms for the Bem Sex-Role Inventory and the general women norms for the Multiple Affect Adjective Checklist may not have been representative with regard to professional women. Although the norms were

used properly, and a more sophisticated analysis of data than first planned was employed in examining respondents' scores by methods inclusive and extensive of the available norms, homogeneity across demographic variables remained. Copies of the respondents' mean scores and standard deviations on the two standardized instruments are planned to be referred to the respective authors for possible inclusion into normative matter.

Interpretation and Discussion of Findings

Although the three hypotheses could not be accepted in whole, there were certain discernible trends apparent in the findings. In retrospect, the study could have well been titled The Myth of the Professional Woman.

The population sample, as reported in Chapter IV, is highly representative of professional women in Hillsborough County, Florida, in many regards. The three occupational areas of science, business, and education were equally represented. Educational levels fell into three fairly equal groups as well: bachelor's degrees, master's degrees, and doctoral degrees. All ages, with an age range of 21 to 71, were fairly evenly spaced with a median age of 39. Twenty percent were 51 or older, 41 percent were over 41, 75 were over 31. The number of years employed further allowed generalizability of the population with equal representatives from three age segments: 1) zero to nine years of employment, 2) 10 to 19 years, and 3) over 20 years of

employment. Additionally, 56 percent of the population were married, 20 percent were single, and 24 were formerly married, thus, allowing a representative sample of marital status. Of those married or formerly married respondents, 68 percent had one or more children with a mean of 1.06 children for the total population which is equivalent to the national average. Therefore, the sample is considered to be well representative of women of various career fields, educational levels, ages, years employed, marital status, and working mothers with children. The sample did differ from the national population with regard to divorce rate. The national divorce rate currently approaches 40 percent; only 22 percent of the respondents had been divorced one or more times.

A group that is representative of these demographic differences would be expected to experience different levels of affect with regard to home and job satisfaction, perhaps to sex-role identity and most certainly to stress; but they did not significantly do so. Over 77 percent of the respondents described themselves as somewhat to completely satisfied with their jobs, and over 83 percent responded the same concerning home satisfaction. Their scores on the MAACL indicated that they were significantly lower on the anxiety scale than a norming population of average women, and they were less, though not significantly, hostile and depressed. As previously noted, anxiety scores

were lower for those respondents who described themselves in advanced career stages; they described themselves as less anxious as they became more and more settled into their careers. Although high stress scores were noted, they were not reflective of one subgrouping more than another with the above exception. High stress scores were no more prevalent for working women with children than for those without, or for single parents than dual parents, or for attorneys than school teachers.

Although the professional women surveyed indicated four different and distinct sex-role identities, no relationships were realized between those distinctions and stress or demographic variables. On the Bem Sex-Role Inventory, respondents were placed into the following categories: 48 percent, Androgynous; 24 percent, Masculine; 18 percent, Feminine; and 10 percent, Undifferentiated. Whereas the women working in traditionally male-oriented occupations might have been expected to prefer a masculine sex-role identity, no significant relationship was observed. The women employed as nurses, teachers, or in other helping professions were no more feminine in their sex-role identity than respondents in other career fields. Marital stage, career field, children, nor any other variable had a significant relationship to category of sex-role identity.

Examination of the data revealed that affect scales and sex-role identity categories of a widely representative

population of professional women did not generally relate to specific demographic variables. The population did not experience simple and direct homogeneity within subgroups; it did experience homogeneity across variables.

Interviews

Interviews with fifteen respondents; five from science, business, and education respectively; were held to expand the findings. A representative sample in terms of children, marital status, and specific occupation was obtained. A direct, structured, and open-ended interview format was employed by the researcher. The questions from the interview survey (Appendix D) were asked, and the answers recorded. Questions and summarized responses follow.

Please define career. The interviewees defined career in similar ways; it was most often seen as an extension of self into a work experience. All agreed that it was part of their personal identity. "Career is something important for me to do;" "I like my work, and it gives us more money;" "I would have never considered not having a career."

Of your varied responsibilities, please list in rank order those you give high priority. The majority of the married interview respondents listed marriage or children above career in a ranked priority list. A common ranking was, "marriage, children, career, and social life." Children were the more consistent top priority for divorced and widowed mothers than for married ones. No conflict in

priorities between family and career was discernible; family was clearly first for those with children. Those persons who had no children or husband more often mentioned "self" as their top priority which was followed by career. Parents, friends, home responsibilities tended to rank below self and career.

If married, describe your family division of labor.

Eight of the persons interviewed were married; five had children. Of those eight married, there were eight distinctly different plans for division of labor. Each plan, though, involved a commitment from their spouse to family responsibilities. Seven reported that they hired domestic services; five, lawn services. Two incomes tended to provide a luxury which decreased home labor. One respondent reported that "I could not work and retain my femininity without the help of my secretary, my maid, and the childrens' governess." This response was the exception rather than the rule. Children were often given regular chores to do, not often because of necessity, but to "keep them from being spoiled." The respondents who lived only with children reported having their children assume more responsibilities than those with husbands and children. Those living alone were best summarized by a delightfully frank, "I am my family division of labor."

Define femininity and masculinity. How do the definitions fit you? Initially, all persons described themselves

as feminine and not as masculine. The separate definitions were repetitions of one another. Femininity was defined as soft, loving, lady-like, supportive, and other nurturant qualities. No pejorative adjectives were given. Masculinity was defined as strong, independent, stubborn, and self-sure. When questioned whether they had any of the masculine characteristics they had described, most agreed that, "Yes, I certainly do. I just don't want to be called masculine." One said, "Maintaining a feminine posture is ultimately important to me. In supervising 19 people, I still believe people respect a feminine woman and work harder for her than the masculine type." Another said, "I don't really care if I'm considered feminine or not if I get the job done, but I sure want to be (feminine) off the job."

In what areas do you experience stress? Areas of stress were not generalizable to any of the groups of persons interviewed; a wider divergence of responses was received on this item than any other. Areas listed included work, home, conflict with giving enough time to work and children and/or husband, sexuality, dating, and parents. As mentioned, responses, as in the statistical analyses, did not fall into demographic patterns. An interesting reaction to this item was the optimistic or reflective tone to discussions of stress for the professional woman. "When I experience stress, I slow down for a while." "After putting myself through med. school, solely supporting myself and two

children, I'm not aware of much stress now." "I do what I can." "I firmly believe that career women must realize their limitations and be willing to delegate many responsibilities. . . ." "My life is not a particularly stressful one. Sure, there are some bad times at work and at home, but I handle them as they come."

What are the elements within your home and work environments which affected your markings on Home and Job Satisfaction? The majority of those interviewed reported marking at least a "5" or "6" on both home and job satisfaction. One remembered marking a "2" for home satisfaction saying that she had just finished a divorce. One marked a "3" on job satisfaction because she was newly employed and, "didn't really know anyone." Another marked "4's" on both for a neutral response: "work is not especially challenging, and my social life is very challenging." The others who had marked some to completely satisfied on the two scales reported themselves as having the best of two worlds: a good job and a satisfying home life whether it be a single one or living with children and/or a husband. As one person remarked, "Filling out that questionnaire gave me time to think about what I've done with my education, myself, my work; and I decided that I was a pretty lucky woman."

Suggestions for Further Research

An examination of the findings of this study suggests that further research in a number of areas may be beneficial.

The rationale that gave rise to this study and the literature review in Chapter II indicated the need for investigating professional women today with regard to sex-role identity, stress, and demographic variables. Specifically, there is a need to further examine this newly growing force of professionals.

A longitudinal study to evaluate changes over time could be highly instructive. The impact of political and social changes within the next five to ten years might well determine divergence within the population.

Additional demographic data would also be indicated for further research. Religion and cultural background, parental attitudes, and income level might well provide significant relationships. The development of norms for the Bem Sex-Role Inventory more pertinent to the population has also been indicated.

Finally, the present research study should be replicated. Replication should be carried out under approximately equivalent conditions to determine the reliability of these findings. Replications of this study in similar and distinctly different counties across the country would provide data on possible geographic trends of professional women. Also, it would be enlightening to carry through this research design with an expanded demographic information questionnaire and new instruments assessing additional personality affects. Clearly, this study has only tapped

the initial bounds of what may prove to be a fertile field of investigation.

Conclusions of the Investigation

With due regard for the possible limitations of the investigation noted in Chapter III and expanded in this chapter, there are certain tentative conclusions which can be drawn. The most pertinent one that attends this study is the absence of stereotypical discord among demographic groupings. Old assumptions and stereotyped assessments need revising in light of these findings. Professional women today are entities unto themselves. Collectively, as ascribed from this population sample, they are well trained, highly responsive, and satisfied with home and career. It was shown that as they settle into career and move into successive career stages, anxiety decreases. Individually, though not across hypothesized variables, they differ.

Certain questions were posed in Chapter I, which bear repeating at this time. "Can I be both a successful woman and a successful person (Glazer-Malbin and Waehrer, 1972). "Can Women Really Have It All" (Ms, 1978). "How can a woman live out her masculine side and at the same time be her own feminine self" (de Castillejo, 1973). While it was not possible to totally reject the three null hypotheses of this study, it seems feasible to use the collected data in answering the above questions positively.

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APPENDIX A
LETTER TO SAMPLE POPULATION

Professional Women
Hillsborough County
Florida

Dear Professional Women:

I would like to invite you to participate in a study which relates to professional women and the relationship of their sex-role identities to selected variables. I am a Ph.D. candidate in Counselor Education at the University of Florida and am currently involved in gathering data for my dissertation research.

I need your help. I am using professional women in Hillsborough County, Florida for my sample and have chosen you as a representative of a specific professional area. Therefore, it is important to my study that you respond.

It will take less than fifteen minutes for you to complete the three forms: two pages of adjectives to mark as directed and an information sheet to complete. If you are married, there is one additional form to complete, making total response time about twenty minutes. All responses will be confidential; the results will be tabulated anonymously, and used only for research purposes. Code numbers, rather than names, will be used in compiling the data.

Please return the three (or four) completed forms to me in the enclosed envelope as soon as possible.

Sincerely,

Carolyn B. Reed
Doctoral Candidate
University of Florida

Enclosures

APPENDIX B
FOLLOW-UP POSTCARD TO NONRESPONDENTS

In order to meet deadlines, I need your completed forms for my research study on Professional Women and the relationship of their sex-role identities to selected variables. If you've misplaced the package I mailed earlier just give me a call, and I will send another set of materials. Otherwise, please complete the forms you received in December. I hope your holidays have been good days for you.

Thank you for your help.

Carolyn B. Reed
5127 San Jose
Tampa, Florida 33609
879-3654

FORM 1 - Page 2

7. Career Stage: Check one.

- Beginning Stage (Just beginning work)
- Tentative Stage (Settling into work activity)
- Established Stage (Well oriented beyond formal job training)
- Advanced Stage (Highly developed job skills; minimal challenge)
- Completion Stage (Ready for retirement)
- Other. Please describe. _____
- _____
- _____

8. Career Pattern: Check one of the following patterns that comes closest to fitting you.

- You postpone/postponed motherhood or marriage to prepare for career and to work.
- You have postponed any strenuous career efforts in order to marry and start a family but work at a later point, usually after children are grown or in school.
- You combine/combined marriage, career, and motherhood in your twenties.
- Other. Please describe. _____
- _____
- _____

9. Job Satisfaction: Rate on a scale of one to seven by circling your choice.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all			Neutral			Completely
Satisfied						Satisfied

10. Home Satisfaction: Rate on a scale of one to seven by circling appropriate number.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all			Neutral			Completely
Satisfied						Satisfied

APPENDIX D
INTERVIEW GUIDE

1. Please define career.
2. Of your varied responsibilities, please list in rank order those you give high priority.
3. If married, describe your family division of labor.
4. Define femininity and masculinity. How do the definitions fit you?
5. In what areas do you experience stress? Please list those areas in rank order.
6. What are the elements within your home (work) environment which affected your marking number 9(10) from the Demographic Information Questionnaire.

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Carolyn B. Reed was born in Tennessee, the second child of Joyce and Robert Breeding. An older brother, Bob, and younger sister, Sharon, completed the family of five. Her family has expanded and currently includes Sam and Rosie Grace, Kathy and Roby Breeding.

Carolyn attended schools in England and the United States before graduating from Texas Christian University with a bachelor's and a master's degree. She studied at Florida State University prior to attending the University of Florida for completion of doctoral studies.

Work experience has included university and public school teaching and counseling, psychotherapy, research and evaluation for federal projects. Organizations include American Personnel and Guidance Association, Association for Humanistic Psychology, American Society of Clinical Hypnosis, and the Gestalt Institute of Florida.

Activities include pottery, tennis, squash, reading, jogging, and tai chi. Visiting with family and friends is an integral part of her life. A leo, an INFJ, a horned frog, a gator--and a professional woman today.

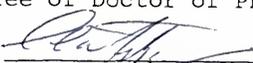
I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.


Robert O. Stripling
Distinguished Service Professor,
Counselor Education

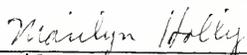
I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.


Ellen Amatea
Assistant Professor, Counselor
Education

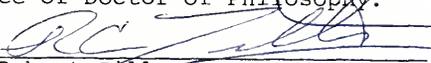
I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.


Paul Fitzgerald
Professor, Counselor Education

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.


Marilyn G. (Zweig) Holly
Associate Professor, Philosophy

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.


Robert Ziller
Professor, Psychology

UNIVERSITY OF FLORIDA



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