

ATTITUDES OF PERSONNEL OFFICIALS CONCERNING
SEX-ROLE DIFFERENTIATION IN SECRETARIAL OCCUPATIONS

by

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Chapter 1

BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Historically, discriminatory labels have limited the personal and vocational options of many people. With the passage of Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, the ethnic, racial, or sexual labeling of certain people or behaviors received national attention. Essentially, Title VII required equal treatment of all individuals, regardless of their race, color, religion, or sex, in all phases of employment--hiring, placement, promotion, dismissal, and all other personnel-related decisions (Cohen and Bunker, 1975:566). In the years immediately following the passage of Title VII, racial discrimination attracted most of the attention; however, increased consideration has recently been given to issues involving sex discrimination. Sex-role stereotyping, one dimension of sex discrimination, and the effects of stereotyping on secretarial occupations will be the focus of this study.

Educational systems have traditionally perpetuated occupational inequality because of sex in many fields, including vocational education. The educational sector was required to eliminate various forms of sex discrimination by Title IX of the Educational Amendments of 1972, which stipulated that educational segregation by sex was illegal. Sex discrimination was defined as "any action which limits or denies a person or a group of persons opportunities, privileges, roles or rewards on the basis of their sex" (Vetter and Peterson, 1978:25). Title IX, which

went into effect on July 21, 1975, required that:

1. Women and men must be provided equal employment opportunities in recruitment, selection, compensation, job classification, fringe benefits, and promotion;
2. Girls and boys must be provided equal education in programming, class groupings, and other curricular activities as well as in admission and financial assistance;
3. Equal facilities and activities for girls and boys must be provided throughout the extracurricular program, including the athletic programs, counseling services, clubs and housing (Silver et al., 1976:26).

This legislation also mandated funds for efforts to counteract the early process of channeling males and females into activities that were deemed appropriate for each sex.

In October 1976, President Gerald Ford signed into law Public Law 94-482, the Educational Amendments of 1976, which directly applied to state and federal programs. Title II of this law completely revised the Vocational Education Amendments of 1968 and addressed not only sex discrimination in educational programs but also sex bias, or "behaviors resulting from the assumption that one sex is superior to the other," and sex stereotyping, "attributing behaviors, attitudes, interests, values, and roles to a person or group of persons on the basis of their sex" (Vetter and Peterson, 1978:25).

Although attitudes toward sex discrimination have been brought to the attention of vocational educators, recent studies indicate that in spite of concentrated efforts to make changes, attitudes toward vocational choice are still quite traditional (Looft, 1971; Siegel, 1973;

Mitchell, 1977). Despite attempts to counteract sex bias with increased awareness and legislative efforts, occupational sex segregation in American still exists (McLaughlin, 1977).

Concern and actions to combat the effects of sex stereotyping on nearly every level have been concentrated primarily on women. Very few questions have directly related to the impact of sex stereotyping on men, since generally when characteristics are assigned to one sex, they are almost automatically prohibited to the other. Although some studies have looked at the behavioral effects of sex-role stereotyping (Goldberg, 1968; Shaw, 1972), they cover a narrow range of discriminatory behavior and do not deal with those situations in which sex stereotyping may work to the disadvantage of males (Rosen and Jerdee, 1974:9). Most of the literature on sex roles and occupational stereotyping concentrates on the entrance of women into "male" professions; less has been written on the entrance of men into so-called "women's work" or women into blue-collar occupations, and public opinion data indicate less resistance to women entering male occupations (Hesselbart, 1977:4). Women still are a minority in male-dominated professional and vocational programs, and very few men enter female-dominated programs (Roby, 1975:8).

Business and office education is one of three vocational areas in which females comprise a majority of the students--76.4 percent (Hulbert, 1976:11). This vocational area trains workers primarily for white-collar occupations that include professional, managerial, sales and clerical jobs. Projected employment figures for the period 1978-1990 indicate there will be a 23.6 percent increase in white-collar workers (Nardone, 1980:5).

The 1980-81 edition of the Occupational Outlook Handbook lists clerical workers as the largest occupational group--16.9 million workers. It is estimated that by 1990 this group will have grown to 21.7 million workers, an increase of 28 percent, making this occupational area the fastest growing of those identified in the handbook's twelve-year projection, ending in 1990. One of every five of these clerical workers will be employed as either a secretary or a stenographer (Schmidt, 1978:32). The jobs in this occupational cluster are also among those that employ the largest number of females. Various occupations in which a majority of those employed are of one sex, i.e., secretary and stenographer, are thus sex-typed. What effect will occupational sex typing have on secretarial workers?

Occupational sex typing has been evidenced in decisions to hire applicants, as well as in personnel decisions affecting these applicants after they are hired. Cecil, Paul, and Olins (1973) studied the evaluation of male and female job applicants and found that different personal characteristics were seen as more important depending on the sex of the applicant. Female qualities that were related to clerical duties were given the most consideration, whereas qualities that were related to supervisory duties were found to be more important for males. Similar studies have shown that male and female applicant ratings are affected by the type of job for which the applicant is applying. Generally, females receive more favorable ratings for jobs that are dominated by females, while males receive more favorable ratings for jobs that are dominated by males (Muchinsky, 1977:96). For example, Cohen and Bunker

(1975) determined that female applicants were disproportionately more acceptable for an editorial assistant position (a predominately female job), while male applicants were disproportionately more acceptable for a personnel technician position (a predominately male job). Feather (1975:28) stated that males and females were judged to be happier and more likely to attain success in jobs that were congruent with sex-role stereotypes.

Levinson (1976:542) noted that males responding to newspaper advertisements for stereotypically female jobs were just as discriminated against as females responding to newspaper advertisements for stereotypically male jobs. However, there were differences in the nature of the discrimination. Males were often told that they would not want such a boring or poor-paying job.

The studies cited previously indicate that there is still sex bias in hiring practices and sex typing of certain occupations, including secretarial areas of the business cluster; these practices continue despite changes in educational programming and recruitment. Bem (1975) states that sex bias reflects habits, traditions, and patterns of behavior that have long been a part of our culture and have thus generated individuals' attitudes toward social interaction. Since elimination of sex discrimination and sex stereotyping requires changes in our basic social structure, new attitudes on the part of certain segments of the population will be necessary. Yet no meaningful decisions or assumptions concerning attitude modification, which can directly or indirectly affect behavior, can be made before existing attitudes are assessed. It is

logical, therefore, that steps be taken to ascertain current attitudes toward certain occupational sex roles.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The purpose of this study was to examine selected personnel officials' attitudes concerning sex-role differentiation in secretarial occupations. The personnel officials were all members of Region 6 chapters of the American Society for Personnel Administration (ASPA) in Georgia. Attitudes and differences in attitudes of male and female personnel officials toward male and female secretarial workers in atypical situations were examined.

Potential significant differences were dealt with by analyzing these attitudes in terms of personnel officials' sex, secretarial workers' sex, and possible interaction between these variables.

A secondary purpose was to determine if there was a relationship between the attitudes of these personnel officials and the following variables:

1. Location of the selected chapter (urban or rural/suburban).
2. Age of the personnel official.
3. Educational level of the personnel official.
4. Self-rating of knowledge of related legislation by the personnel official.

The following research questions provided direction for the investigation:

1. To what extent do differences exist in the attitudes of male and female personnel officials toward secretarial workers?
2. To what extent do differences exist in the attitudes of personnel officials toward male and female secretarial workers?
3. Is there an interaction between the sex of the personnel official and the sex of the worker described on the Situational Attitude Scale for Secretarial Occupations?
4. Is there a relationship between the location (urban or rural/suburban) of the ASPA chapter and personnel officials' attitudes toward male and female secretarial workers?
5. Is there a relationship between age and the personnel officials' attitudes toward male and female secretarial workers?
6. Is there a relationship between educational level (highest degree earned) and personnel officials' attitudes toward male and female secretarial workers?
7. Is there a relationship between the self-rating of knowledge of related legislation and personnel officials' attitudes toward male and female secretarial workers?

On the basis of these research questions, the following hypotheses were formulated:

- Hypothesis 1 - There is no difference in the mean scores of male and female personnel officials on the Situational Attitude Scale for Secretarial Occupations.
- Hypothesis 2 - There is no difference in the mean scores of personnel officials in terms of the sex of the worker described on the Situational Attitude Scale for Secretarial Occupations.
- Hypothesis 3 - There is no interaction between the sex of the personnel official and the sex of the worker described on the Situational Attitude Scale for Secretarial Occupations.

Hypothesis 4 - There is no relationship between the location of the ASPA chapter and personnel officials' attitudes toward male and female secretarial workers.

Hypothesis 5 - There is no relationship between age and the personnel officials' attitudes toward male and female secretarial workers.

Hypothesis 6 - There is no relationship between educational level and personnel officials' attitudes toward male and female secretarial workers.

Hypothesis 7 - There is no relationship between the self-rating of knowledge of related legislation and personnel officials' attitudes toward male and female secretarial workers.

NEED FOR THE STUDY

The literature provides reasonable support for the contention that the job classification and/or type of work may be partially responsible for personnel decisions discriminating against both men and women. Previous research has not directly demonstrated the relevance of sex-oriented occupations to personnel selection decisions, even though nearly always the nature of the work required is classified as being either male or female oriented (Cohen and Bunker, 1975:567).

Many studies have been conducted concerning factors that are associated with either male or female subjects. However, there are little data comparing the way that both males and females respond in evaluating males and females in specific job situations (Guttek and Stevens, 1977:6). The results of this study may serve as an informational base for other persons interested in the initial employment processing of both males and females in specific secretarial or stenographic

occupations. Previous studies suggest that further research is needed to determine how an individual's attitude toward sex-role incongruity affects personnel selection decisions (Rosen and Jerdee, 1974; Gutek, 1977). Most stereotyping research regarding educational programs or areas has been conducted with students or educators. A need exists to go beyond student populations and school environments to the community and business at large to conduct research (Feather and Simon, 1975:30).

A final rationale for this study is the contribution of the results to an increased awareness of sex-role attitudes in business and office work situations. A great need exists in Georgia for workers in business and office occupations. For the period 1978-1982, the need has been projected at 154,900. Georgia's five-year supply goal to meet the need is 28,740; the yearly goal will be increased each year from 4,749 in 1978 to 6,722 in 1982 (Georgia State Plan, 1977:287). Stenographers, typists and secretaries will have the greatest employment opportunities during this period, with a 1982 projected employment figure of 60,412 (Georgia Department of Labor, 1980:27). This shortage of clerical and secretarial workers is not just a state problem; it is one of national significance.

Business education secondary school enrollments in Georgia for the 1979-80 school year strongly substantiate the need for a concentrated effort to recruit males to help meet the business labor needs of the next decade. There were 218,952 students enrolled in 28 business education courses during that year; only 65,104, or 29.7 percent of the total enrolled were male (Georgia Department of Education, 1980).

It is imperative that business and office occupational programs increase their enrollments, as well as strive for a more equitable balance between the number of male and female students enrolled. However, until the female stereotype is removed from clerical jobs, these programs will be limited to preparing women for these positions (Schmidt, 1978:32).

By utilizing the information obtained in this study, both business teachers and guidance personnel, as well as placement coordinators, may be better able to alert students to those variables that may affect personnel decisions relating to secretarial positions. This study will add to the continuous flow of data required to enable those involved in vocational guidance and placement to better understand the attitudes of personnel officials toward applicants who may attempt to move into nontraditional job openings.

DELIMITATIONS

The following delimitations are applicable to this study:

1. Only one occupational area (stenographic/secretarial) from the business cluster was investigated.
2. The representative population was delimited to personnel officials who were members of selected chapters of the American Society for Personnel Administration in Georgia.
3. This study was delimited to the attitudes of male and female personnel officials toward male and female secretarial workers as indicated on the Situational Attitude Scale for Secretarial Occupations.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

1. ASPA: The American Society for Personnel Administration, a national professional organization for personnel and industrial relations executives in the private sector.
2. Female-Dominated Occupation: An occupational area whose membership is composed of 70 percent or more women.
3. Personnel Official: A person authorized to interview and make employment-related decisions concerning secretarial workers.
4. Rural/Suburban ASPA Chapter: An ASPA chapter located in an area with a population of 20,000 or less.
5. Secretarial Occupations: Those occupations defined in the Dictionary of Occupational Titles (1979) with the first three-digit code 202, "Stenographers," and the first three-digit code 201, "Secretaries."
6. Semantic Differential: A method of observing the psychological meaning of concepts (Kerlinger, 1973:566).
7. Sex Bias: Behaviors resulting from the assumption that one sex is superior to the other (Vetter and Peterson, 1978:25).
8. Sex-Role Attitudes: Existing feelings of personnel officials toward male and female secretarial workers, as measured by a semantic differential response made on an instrument developed by the researcher. A positive attitude will be reflected by a high score on the SASSO, and a negative attitude by a low score.
9. Sex-Role Stereotypes: The sum of socially designated behaviors that differentiate between men and women, masculine and feminine (Broverman et al., 1972:60).
10. Urban ASPA Chapter: An ASPA chapter located in an area with a population of 20,000 or more.

ORGANIZATION OF STUDY

Chapter 1 has stated the nature and problem of the study, as well as the importance, need for the study, delimitations, and

definition of terms. Chapter 2 contains a review of the related literature in sections: (1) Occupational Sex Stereotyping; (2) Sex Stereotyping in Vocational Education and Business Education; (3) The Semantic Differential as a Measuring Instrument.

Chapter 3 delineates the research methodology for the study, including identification of the study population and sample, research design, instrument development, and data collection and analysis methods and procedures.

Chapter 4 includes a description of the respondents and describes and discusses the results.

Chapter 5 summarizes the investigation, states conclusions, and makes recommendations.

Chapter 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a comprehensive review of related literature dealing with the sex stereotyping of occupations generally and for vocational education and business education specifically. This review of literature consists of the following three categories:

1. Occupational Sex Stereotyping
2. Sex Stereotyping in Vocational Education and Business Education
3. The Semantic Differential as a Measuring Instrument

OCCUPATIONAL SEX STEREOTYPING

In our society, sex-role identity in terms of male and female behavior is learned very early. Children have been encouraged to display behaviors that are expected from their own sex. Girls have been taught to be gentle and reserved, while boys have been taught to be verbal and physically aggressive. These predetermined sex-role standards have contributed to the persistent stereotyping of males and females. Many investigators have shown that these stereotypes still exist in our society (Broverman et al., 1972; Rosen and Jerdee, 1973). Stereotypes that create divisions between the sexes according to masculine and feminine spheres have been translated into the world of work.

Occupational sex typing can be traced to early childhood. Even before entering school, children of both sexes tend to define jobs according to sex stereotypes (Barnch, 1974; Herr and Cramer, 1972; Nelson, 1963; Schlossberg and Goodman, 1972). The career goals of children are also reflected in their choices of occupations that are considered to be appropriate for their sex. Girls concentrate their occupational aspirations on sex-typed careers such as teacher, nurse, or secretary; boys usually eliminate such occupations from their career choices (Iglitein, 1972).

Recent studies demonstrate that attitudes toward vocational choice are still quite traditional (Mitchell, 1977; Shepard and Hess, 1975). Looft (1971) noted that girls perceive a very narrow range of vocational options, again generally in the teaching or nursing fields, while boys perceive a wide range of vocational choices open to them. Results from similar studies at various age levels are approximately the same: Kirchner and Vondracek (1973) testing pre-schoolers, Looft (1971) and Siegel (1973) testing second graders, Schlossberg and Goodman (1972) working with kindergarteners and sixth graders, and Slocum and Bowles (1968) using junior and senior high students.

Although the studies cited reflect the stereotypes held by school-age children, investigations have shown that these same stereotypes exist regardless of sex, age, marital status, or education (Lunneborg, 1970; Rosenkrantz et al., 1968). Stereotyped attitudes have led to two distinct occupational systems: (1) one that determines the jobs and roles that are allocated to men, and (2) another that

determines the jobs and roles that are allocated to women (Lerner et al., 1972:1-2).

Research indicates that female deviation from traditional sex-role behavior is more acceptable in this society than is male deviation. It has been suggested that females are allowed more deviation because if they deviate, it is toward the preferred role of the male, the more highly valued role in our society (Broverman et al., 1972). General assumptions are that people tend to prefer a consistent state of affairs: Males who succeed at a male-dominated occupation (e.g., becoming a company director) are seen as more successful than females who succeed at the same occupation; males who succeed at a female-dominated occupation (e.g., becoming a typist or stenographer) are seen as less successful than females who succeed at the same occupation (Feather, 1975:537).

Fox (1975) and Hesselbart (1977) discovered that public opinion data studies indicate that there is still sizable resistance to women entering male-dominated blue-collar occupations or to men entering female-dominated occupations. A 1975 Gallup Poll found that a majority of both sexes believed men were "better at" occupations that were congruent with the male role, such as policeman or fireman; women were thought to be "better at" occupations congruent with the female role, such as nursing or secretarial work (Hesselbart, 1977:2). These traditional feelings appear simply to reinforce current occupational segregation.

Stereotyping in Job Selection and Placement

The linking of sex roles and occupational roles remains despite legislation forbidding discrimination. The categorization of jobs as male or female appropriate is still attempted in the world of employment, as noted by Gilbreath (1977) in describing four defenses that have been used consistently by employers in defense of their job discrimination activities:

1. Bona fide occupational qualifications (BFOQ)-- All or substantially all women are believed to be unable to perform safely and efficiently the duties of the job involved.
2. Bona fide seniority or merit systems--Women tend to be the last hired and first fired.
3. Business necessity--Segregation by sex is necessary to carry out effectively the business purpose it serves, and there is available no acceptable alternative policy which better accomplishes the business purpose.
4. Customer preference--Customers prefer employees of one sex (Gilbreath, 1977:25).

The courts in general have not accepted these four defenses, but they continue to be presented and the differentiation of jobs along male or female lines also continues.

The negative effects of sex-role stereotyping have also been shown to relate to personnel decisions involving selection, promotion and evaluation of employees (Rosen and Jerdee, 1974; Shaw, 1972). Cohen and Bunker (1975), studying 150 male job recruiters, reported that discrimination based on sex many times occurs in the initial stages of the job selection process. However, this discrimination seems to occur

only when applicants apply for jobs that are incongruent with their sex. Age, competence, and sex were found to be major factors in employer hiring decisions (Haefner, 1976).

The establishment of the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission brought about changes in the enforcement of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. As early as 1968, the Commission made rulings that affected the initial stage in the job selection process. It was ruled that sex discrimination in help-wanted advertisements was illegal, as was the division of these advertisements along the lines of sex. Classified advertisements, however, were still written to make clear-cut distinctions about the sex desired, or sometimes even required, for certain jobs. The following classified job advertisements were taken from the two major newspapers in Atlanta, Georgia, in 1974 (Levinson, 1975:534).

SALESMAN--2 clean cut men to train as salesmen for Ga.'s oldest...

PEST CONTROL--servicemen, driver's license necessary, unusually good opportunity for right men, will train.

AUTO SALES MGR.--A nice, sober and honest man with ability and drive.

OFFICE CLERK--3 girl office. Excellent benefits.

SUPER JOB FOR SUPER GAL--Need ambitious person for Gen. Ofc. Duties and Tel. Sales.

RECEPTIONIST--Pretty...downtown office, interview Mon.-Wed. for front office position. Type 45 wpm and ans. busy phones. Wear your prettiest outfit and come in today.

These types of classified advertisements were used as the basis of a research study conducted by Levinson in which students were directed to make calls concerning jobs found in newspaper listings. A call was made by a female about a job that was designated as male-sex appropriate; a half-hour later, a male would call about the same male-sex appropriate position. Thirty-five percent of these job inquiries produced clear-cut cases of discrimination; approximately 27 percent showed "ambiguous" responses; only about one-third treated both callers similarly.

Although studies in other areas could produce different results, it appears that many employers in this sample practiced some type of discrimination based on sex. Studies such as Levinson's may in fact show that sex discrimination does exist; the manner in which employers handle these inquiries is not in itself demonstrative of sex discrimination, but rather demonstrates sex-role stereotyping of jobs. Callers of the inappropriate sex were told that the employer was "too busy" to talk right now, while the appropriate sex caller was given information immediately. Inappropriate callers were told that only a man (or woman) could possibly handle certain positions. Discrimination in these cases would not be blatant but would rather evolve as a result of more subtle interactive effects based on sex of the applicant, sex of the employer, race, age, etc. (Terborg and Ilgen, 1975).

Cecil, Paul and Olins noted that standard variables that are frequently used to evaluate job applicants are perceived to be of different importance depending upon the sex of the applicant. It was

found that female applicants would have more trouble getting a position in the management ranks; it also appeared that males would have the same type of difficulty securing employment in a typical clerical position. The following variables were found to be more important for males than for females (1973:400):

1. Ability to change mind on an issue;
2. Persuasive individual;
3. Capable of withstanding a great deal of pressure;
4. Exceptional motivation;
5. Is aggressive.

The following variables were found to be more important for females than for males:

1. Pleasant voice;
2. Excellent clerical skills;
3. Finished high school;
4. Excellent computational skills;
5. Immaculate in dress and person;
6. Ability to express self well.

The influence of sex-role stereotypes on personnel decisions was investigated by Rosen and Jerdee in 1974. Their findings support the idea that personnel directors are more likely to act in a fair and impartial manner when confronted with both a male and female candidate for promotion or initial employment. However, it was noted that in many organizational settings, administrative decisions occur as single events, where overt discrimination would not actually be a factor but

where sex-role stereotypes would have a definite impact on decision making.

Epstein (1970) documented how gender sometimes is interpreted as a hindrance for females in male-dominated job areas. However, sex may be even more important for female-dominated jobs, e.g., receptionist, secretary, fashion sales--at least when men are doing the hiring. As one male applicant for a receptionist position was told by the male employer who was interviewing him:

Well, you see in our office there are many important customers coming into the office and it just doesn't look right having a man behind the reception desk . . . it seems out of place . . . and it's liable to hurt the business. It shouldn't be that way, but you know how it is . . . And also, speaking for the guys around here, I think the day would be a lot more pleasant with a pretty face around (Levinson, 1975:540).

Role division according to sex has resulted in the assignment of the least prestigious and least-valued tasks to women. Perhaps because of this assignment, females at every age level have been found to be more liberal than males (Entwistle and Greenberger, 1972; Iglitzen, 1972; Spence and Helmreich, 1972). Studies suggest that adult males are less liberal than college males and females, but adult females do not differ from either college males or females (Shepard and Hess, 1975:35). Shepard and Hess also suggest that stereotyped attitudes toward occupational division by sex are breaking down somewhat; however, the more heavily an occupation is dominated by one sex, the less likely it is to change its "male" or "female" designation, and these divisions may, therefore, remain in some occupational areas (Hulbert, 1976:11).

In summary, research of those factors involved in sex-role stereotyping during the selection stage of the employment process is warranted; furthermore, sex-role stereotyping should be considered a problem of men, as well as of women, since men seem to suffer equally from the stereotyping of occupations.

Economic Implication of Segregation by Sex

One of the prevalent themes found in the literature on sex typing of jobs is the economic feasibility of occupational segregation. It has been implied that women will work for less money than men and therefore constitute a cheaper labor force. Valerie Oppenheimer (1970) maintained that women in female-dominated occupations, such as nursing, teaching and secretarial work, are classified as "cheap" labor even though they are actually skilled. Since many women have their work lives interrupted because of family responsibilities, they are willing to accept less pay than is commensurate with their training and abilities.

When women enter male-dominated occupations, there is a real chance that wages will drop and that men will then leave the occupation to seek better work. The occupation will then probably become female dominated. Such may have been the case in the secretarial occupation. Only in the past 100 years have females entered and then dominated the secretarial field; men have remained in the profession but in steadily diminishing numbers (Dowling, 1977:8). Substantial attitudinal change must occur if men are not to avoid female-dominated occupations or leave occupations when women enter; both keep pay at a minimum (Hesselbart, 1977:5).

SEX STEREOTYPING IN VOCATIONAL
AND BUSINESS EDUCATION

Vocational education in America has perpetuated occupational segregation through educational training that is highly sex typed. This system has discouraged people from preparing for certain occupations for which they have the aptitude but not the appropriate gender.

Male and female enrollment figures in specific vocational service areas are not congruent with total enrollments. Across the nation, females are predominately in health, consumer and homemaking, occupational home economics, and office programs. Males constitute the majority in agriculture, the skilled trades, and technical and industrial areas. Distributive education comes nearest to having equal male and female enrollments.

Female enrollments in vocational education declined from 55.4 percent in 1972 to 48.3 percent in 1975. However, male enrollments in consumer and homemaking and office occupations have actually increased since 1972. In 1975 the majority of females were enrolled in the traditional service areas previously mentioned (USOE, 1976).

Table 1 shows 1979-80 secondary school enrollments for Georgia in business education courses. Males represented only 29.7 percent of the total number enrolled. Courses that had the highest number of males enrolled were first-year bookkeeping, business mathematics, career planning, general business, economics, business law, and first-year typewriting. However, males represented only 8.8 percent of the students enrolled in Vocational Office Training (Stenographic), Vocational Office

Table 1
Georgia Secondary School Enrollments*
1979-80

Course	Total	Male	Female
Bookkeeping, First Year	16,937	4,302	12,635
Bookkeeping, Second Year	1,417	325	1,092
Business Mathematics	8,892	4,062	4,830
Record Keeping	5,652	1,465	4,187
Vocational Office Training (DATA)	1,159	186	973
Introduction to Data Processing	3,240	1,067	2,173
Advanced Data Processing	467	185	282
Vocational Office Training (CLER)	8,826	1,351	7,475
Office Machines	6,899	1,322	5,577
Clerical Practice, First Year	5,087	527	4,560
Clerical Practice, Second Year	976	330	646
Intensive Office Procedures	2,035	123	1,912
Business English	3,541	942	2,599
Personal Development	287	121	166
Career Planning and Skills	18,376	8,920	9,456
Vocational Office Training (STENO)	1,157	45	1,112
Secretarial Office Practice	1,383	88	1,295
Shorthand, First Year	7,805	240	7,565
Shorthand, Second Year	822	7	815
Vocational Office Training (BUS)	945	393	552
General Business	5,770	2,382	3,388
Economics, Business and Consumer	6,825	3,169	3,656
Business Law	4,848	2,201	2,647
Business Principles	1,011	429	582
Typewriting, First Year	74,129	21,743	52,386
Typewriting, Second Year	12,875	1,259	11,616
Typewriting, Third Year	1,510	169	1,341
Mini-Exploratory	<u>16,081</u>	<u>7,751</u>	<u>8,330</u>
Total	218,952	65,104	153,848

*The information presented here has been adapted from the Georgia State Department of Education, Office of Vocational Education, Program Manager's Summary, October, 1980.

Training (Data Processing), and Intensive Office Procedures, capstone courses for the business program.

Sex-role stereotypes seem to prevail both in and out of the vocational classroom. Steele (1974) found that of 128 instructional wage-earning programs, females were the majority in 15 of 17 health programs, in 6 of 6 occupational home economics programs, and in 8 of 10 office programs. Males were the majority in 8 of 8 agriculture programs, in 14 of 20 distributive education programs, in 22 of 22 technical programs, and in 40 of 45 trade and industrial programs.

"Vocational education has a unique opportunity to contribute to the goal of career selection on the basis of interest and aptitude rather than on sex-based possibilities" (Lewis and Kaltreider, 1976:39). Nearly all vocational programs are in compliance with Title IX, mainly because overt sex discrimination is illegal. Unfortunately, many vocational educators still report traditional enrollment patterns because they have neglected to take into consideration sex bias and sex stereotyping. "Sex bias is the potent thought that man and women should be different, not only physically, but in their tastes, talents and interests" (Smith, 1976:30).

Economically, vocational education is differentially distributing wages and salaries between traditional male and female occupations. Occupations which are sex-typed as female receive the lowest wages. Trecker (1972) has suggested that female occupations are paid less because there is such a narrow range of available female vocational occupations; therefore, competition for jobs in these areas is intense.

In 1970, the ten occupations that employed the largest number of females had median earnings of \$8,000 or less, with the exception of registered nurses, who had median earnings of \$8,090. The ten occupations that employed the largest number of males had only two occupations that earned less than \$8,000--farm owners-tenants and retail sales clerks. In the period 1970-1985, the median earnings of secretaries are expected to increase 47 percent, from \$6,880 to \$10,000. However, these figures are still far below the projected median earnings for nine of the occupations that employ the greatest number of males (Schenck, 1977:6).

Walker et al. (1974) found that even institutions that retrain workers do so according to the appropriate male/female images. The data established that:

1. Female trainees are generally trained in the same occupation as their last full-time job.
2. There is little enrollment of trainees in courses traditionally reserved for the opposite sex; in fact, trainees usually choose to stay in sex-appropriate jobs.
3. When enrollments do occur in courses that are considered for the opposite sex, it is more likely that a male will be in a female-dominated area.
4. There is evidence of sex stereotyping in the training and placement of females by both personnel directors and the female enrollees themselves.

The recruitment of males and females into nontraditional vocational courses is compounded by the large number of female teachers in female-dominated courses and male teachers in male-dominated courses.

Neither sex is given an appropriate sex-specific role model to emulate in nontraditional courses.

The documentation of need for change and recommendations of strategies to effect change in vocational education cannot be overlooked. Sex stereotyping is a reality, not only in vocational education but in nearly every aspect of life. Vocational educators are in a key position to influence and meet the occupational needs of the future for both males and females. To be totally effective, change must be generated from within the educational system and the business sector.

Lewis and Kaltreider (1976:51) sum up this challenge of the future:

For females to select traditionally male occupations, for males to select traditionally female occupations, and for each to find subsequent employment in those occupations may require great determination in the face of many deterrents.

Sex Stereotyping in Business Education

Occupational stereotyping has many causes, and the subtle effects are widespread. One victim of female-oriented stereotyping has been the office occupations program, where females comprise the majority of students. Disproportionate percentages of females are enrolled in the fields of stenographic, secretarial and related occupations (96.0%); filing and office machines (82.2%); typing and related (79.6%); information communication (72.4%); personnel, training and related (63.3%); and accounting and computing (59.0%) (Hulbert, 1976:11). Only in business data processing systems and materials support, where males comprise 51 percent of the enrollees, are males and females balanced. On the other

hand, males comprise 72.0 percent of the personnel holding supervisory and administrative management positions.

The feminine image of the office worker, and particularly the secretary, understandably discourages male interest in these occupations. Almost all secretarial and clerical teachers are female; even if males are interested in an office occupations program, they may be wary of entering such a feminine environment.

In 1974 Rose Rhea commented on the possible impact on unemployment that male exclusion from office occupations may have. Her words may still hold some truth even today:

. . . recent Labor Department statistics show that approximately fifteen percent of our unemployed are male youth between the ages of 18 and 24, most of whom are lacking in marketable skills. What percentage of these unskilled youth can be attributed to the fact that certain careers, such as those in the secretarial field, are not held out to young men as viable options? (1974:38).

The Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics reports that of 3,385,000 secretaries in the United States today, there are only 33,000 male secretaries--fewer than one percent of the total (Terrone, 1978:6). Historically, the military has successfully used the clerical skills of men in both civilian and uniformed branches. Apparently many other organizations would hire male office workers if they were being trained and made available to the job market. As early as 1961, a study by Charles E. Ginder of 1,900 business, service, and industrial organizations discovered the following:

For office jobs that can be performed equally well by either men or women workers, 32 percent of the companies surveyed preferred male workers, and 33 percent preferred female workers.

When giving reasons for the preference for male office workers, the companies surveyed included the following characteristics: (1) male workers were more stable and dependable; (2) male workers had less turnover; (3) male workers were less emotional; (4) male workers were more promotable; (5) male workers had better health and less absenteeism (1961:10-13).

Even though many of the reasons given for wishing to hire male workers were characteristic assumptions of sex stereotyping, it is odd that during the past twenty years the demand for secretaries, both male and female, has grown, but male enrollments in training programs for office occupations have not increased considerably. Stereotyping may be the answer--ridicule given a man who attempts to do "woman's work."

The women's liberation movement has given the male population an unexpected push in their own liberation movement. The movement has forced males to reassess their own positions in society. Stemming from this reassessment, the number of sex discrimination suits filed by men grew from 278 in 1970 to over 1,397 in 1972 (Rhea, 1974:40). As a result of a settlement in a lawsuit charging discrimination against women, American Telephone and Telegraph (AT&T) pledged to recruit male secretaries and set a goal that 25 percent of its clerical staff would be male by 1980. As of 1978, 12.5 percent of the clerical workers were male, compared to 4.9 percent in 1972 (Terrone, 1978:8).

This landmark decision by the country's largest utility indicates that increased awareness and attention may be forthcoming in office occupations. Although business may make changes in its hiring policies toward secretarial candidates, how will business education meet the demand for increased numbers of workers, both male and female?

The anticipated number of clerical job openings in Georgia, as in most of the nation, is high. Nationally, nearly one and one-half million new clerical workers will be needed annually (U. S. Department of Labor, Occupational Outlook Handbook, 1980). In Georgia, for the period 1976-1982, approximately sixty thousand clerical workers will be needed for new and replacement jobs (Georgia Department of Labor, 1980: B-9). Occupations in Georgia that are classified as "high demand" include secretaries, with average annual job openings of 1,115 (Table 2). However, figures from the State Employment Data System show that during fiscal year 1978-79, 6,530 people with secretarial skills were looking for work in Georgia. The data show that there were possibly enough skilled people to fill existing vacancies if they so desired. However, because of the relatively low pay of secretaries and the connotation of the occupation as "woman's work," some women and many men most likely sought employment in other fields that they considered more prestigious (Georgia Department of Labor, 1980:116).

Evidence indicates that if office occupations are to meet the increasing demand for office workers, critical decisions in program development and recruitment planning that go beyond traditional occupational sex stereotyping must be made. The business community must be informed of the potential shortage of office workers and should be made aware of the importance of providing assistance in training and placing additional office workers, both male and female.

Table 2

Five Groups of High Demand Occupations in Georgia*
 (Occupations with 500 or More Average Annual Job Openings)

Occupational Title	Average Annual Job Openings
Professional & Technical Workers	
Nurses, Professional	990
Licensed Practical Nurses	620
Elementary School Teachers	1,450
Secondary School Teachers	790
Accountants & Auditors	640
Clergy	1,340
Managers, Officials & Proprietors	
Managers, Store	1,185
Sales Workers	
Sales Personnel, Gen. Merchandise	580
Clerical Workers	
Secretaries	2,910
Typists	1,115
Accounting Clerks	735
Bookkeepers, Hand	1,230
Cashiers	1,885
Shipping & Receiving Clerks	540
Stock Clerks, Stock-Room, Warehouse, etc.	775
General Clerks	2,850
Survey Workers	1,130
Administrative Clerks	1,715
Crafts & Kindred Workers	
Carpenters	985
Electricians	505
Heavy Equipment Operators	555
Blue Collar Supervisors, Nonworking	1,590
Automotive Mechanics	750
Inspectors	775
Maintenance Repairers, General Utility	745

*Adapted from Analysis of Occupational Supply and Demand in Georgia, Georgia Department of Labor, October, 1980.

Legislation Related to Sex
Stereotyping

The Vocational Education Act of 1963, amended in 1978, extended vocational programs by providing training for "all of the people," not only those in traditional occupational areas. Specifically, the act (1) authorized grants for innovative programs to states, nonprofit agencies, or other institutions; (2) provided stipends for training of vocational personnel; and (3) supported training for new kinds of occupations and improved vocational counseling and guidance (Lewis and Kaltrieder, 1976:27).

Congressional concern about sex discrimination and sex stereotyping led to the passage of Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972. Title IX was intended to alleviate overt forms of sex differentiation. All institutions were urged to use the requirements of Title IX to end sex discrimination in education. The regulation required that all schools receiving federal funds were to conduct a self-examination to identify discriminatory policies and practices and to take whatever remedial action was necessary (VVEA, 1975:8).

This legislation did not, however, address the more subtle forms of discrimination, sex bias and stereotyping. Title II of the Education Amendments of 1976, which included a complete revision of the Vocational Amendments of 1968, did refer to the necessity of eliminating sex bias and sex stereotyping in vocational education. Title II of the new law required that states use \$50,000 and designate full-time personnel to eliminate sex bias and sex stereotyping in vocational education (Ellis,

1976:6). States were required to submit plans for strategies to eliminate sex stereotyping and were to assess the success of their goals annually.

In spite of new and amended legislation, old attitudes persist. Changes have occurred and hopeful signs for more changes can be seen. Congress has made its concerns known, and it is now up to various groups and individuals in vocational education to develop curriculum changes, materials, and programs to assist in the process that legislation has begun.

THE SEMANTIC DIFFERENTIAL AS A MEASURING INSTRUMENT

The use of responses to selected situations or specific items for inferring attitudes has been used extensively in behavioral research studies. One such method, the Likert scale (1932), analyzes responses to specific items in terms of numbers along a continuum; this summative scale gives the sum of numbered responses to individual items as a total score. Nunally (1967:531) states that summative scales have the following advantages over other scaling methods:

They: (1) follow from an appealing model, (2) are rather easy to construct, (3) are usually highly reliable, (4) can be adapted to the measurement of many different kinds of attitudes, (5) have produced meaningful results in many studies to date.

The semantic differential technique, a summative scale developed by Osgood, Suci and Tannenbaum (1954), is a method of observing and measuring the psychological meanings of concepts (Kerlinger 1973:566). Although each person sees things differently, the authors developed the

scale on the assumption that every concept has a common core of meaning. Essentially, the semantic differential combines procedures of both controlled association and scaling to measure the connotative meaning of concepts. The subject is provided:

. . . with a concept to be differentiated and a set of bipolar adjectival scales against which to do it, his only tasks being to indicate for each item (pairing of a concept with a scale), the direction of his association and its intensity on a seven-step scale (Osgood et al., 1957:20).

The semantic differential is very flexible, since a concept can be any stimulus that can be named and rated. There are, however, no standardized concepts or scales that must be used. The method is a "highly generalizable technique of measurement that must be adapted to the requirement of each research problem to which it is applied" (Osgood et al., 1957:76).

The selection of concepts for the instrument is perhaps the most difficult but also the most important tasks required in the development of a semantic differential scale. Concepts should be selected because of relevancy to the research study and should cover substantially the semantic space associated with the concept. Concepts should be chosen for the meanings that provide the greatest individual differences. The concepts should have a unitary meaning for each subject and should be familiar to the respondent.

Semantic space, the base of the technique, allows a concept to be judged against a series of scales, the scales representing the space as multidimensional. The scale is defined by opposite-in-meaning adjectives that represent the poles of the designated semantic space of the

concept. The selection of these adjectives on "face value" for a given situation is acceptable. The relevance of adjective pairs can be verified only through testing; apparently "irrelevant" pairs can yield significant information and apparently "relevant" pairs can prove to be disappointing (Isaac, 1978:103).

Osgood (1957:26) gives the concept "Father" as an example:

(x)								(y)											
happy	_____	:	_____	:	X	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	sad
hard	_____	:	X	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	soft
slow	_____	:	_____	:	X	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	fast

The scale positions are defined as:

- | | |
|--------------------|----------------|
| 1. extremely x | 5. slightly y |
| 2. quite x | 6. quite y |
| 3. slightly x | 7. extremely y |
| 4. neither x nor y | |

Thus, in this example, "Father" evokes slightly happy, quite hard, and slightly fast.

Stagner and Osgood (1946) adapted the semantic differential for the measurement of social stereotypes. The same stereotypes were re-measured at different times during the late 1940's, and the semantic differential was determined to be a feasible method of recording changes in social stereotypes.

Adjective scales, selected for their factorial composition, are clusters of adjectives that Osgood and his associates have termed "Evaluation," "Potency," and "Activity." Evaluation adjectives are those such as "good-bad" and "pleasant-unpleasant," or adjective pairs that make evaluative judgments. "Strong-weak" and "rugged-delicate" are examples of adjectives that share strength or Potency ideas. Activity

adjectives express motion and action--"fast-slow," "hot-cold" (Kerlinger, 1973:569). Although Osgood has documented a list of 76 scales, any pair of opposite-meaning adjectives can be used.

In general, attitude research done with the semantic differential has readily identified those adjectives designated as evaluative as being most dominant; these adjectives accounted for the largest proportional total variance. Using this approach, the researcher could merely sum all evaluative ratings to obtain the attitude "score." The semantic differential technique was evaluated against two attitudinal measuring instruments, Thurstone and Guttman-type scales; the findings of these comparisons support that the evaluative factor of the semantic differential is an index of attitude and that it is easy to administer and score (Osgood et al., 1957:195).

Although many researchers have used the semantic differential over the years (Triandis, 1959; Feather and Simon, 1975) one-word concepts or phrased concepts--for example "school" or "working during a strike"--have been used. However, situational semantic scales have also been successfully developed. Sedlacek and Brooks (1972) developed the Situational Attitude Scale (SAS) to show that there was a difference between what white students felt were socially acceptable attitudes toward blacks and what their own feelings were. This racial scale led to the development of a similar scale, the Situational Attitude Scale Toward Women (SASW) developed by Herman and Sedlacek (1972). The SASW examined the attitudes of men toward women in nontraditional sex roles. Herman and Sedlacek found the scale to be a valuable tool for measuring elusive and complex stereotyped attitudes.

Situational semantic differential instruments appear to measure those concepts for which they are intended. Additional studies exploring different concepts and situations specifically constructed for these concepts are warranted.

Existing Sex-Role Measurements

Numerous scales have been developed to investigate the many dimensions of sex roles and sex-role stereotyping. The main focus of most scales is the masculinity-femininity concept. Some of the best-known scales that use the masculinity and femininity concept are the Terman-Miles Attitude-Interest Analysis Test, the Masculinity-Femininity Scale of the Strong Vocational Interest Blank, and the Masculinity-Femininity scale of the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (Brogan and Kutner, 1976:31). Rosenkrantz et al. (1968) employed the semantic differential approach to develop a new sex-role questionnaire that measures perceptions of "typical" masculine and feminine behaviors. However, this scale, too, measures behaviors, attitudes, and personality characteristics that differentiate men from women. The Bem Sex Role Inventory, perhaps the best known of these scales, also contains a masculinity-femininity scale and personality characteristics selected on the basis of sex-typed social desirability (Bem, 1975:635).

If the researcher is interested in attitudes about specific sex roles or wishes to separate sex-role orientation from sex stereotypes, there are few scales available for use. Most of the behavioral attitude measurement techniques deal only with female role behaviors and

do not deal at all with attitudes concerning male behaviors (Brogan and Kutner, 1976:32).

Occupational stereotypes can be reliably described by the semantic differential technique, although work-related semantic differential studies have been few and very narrow in scope (Pratt, 1975:145).

For this particular study, the researcher developed the Situational Attitude Scale for Secretarial Occupations using the semantic differential technique.

SUMMARY

There is ample evidence that sex stereotypes have a damaging effect on both males and females. Studies cited substantiate social perceptions of occupational sex stereotyping. Very fine differentiations cannot be made, however, because of the unclear distinctions that many times separate actual sex discrimination from stereotyping.

Employment decisions are influenced by many variables, including the type of job in question, sex of the applicant, and sex of the rater. Due to the impact of federal legislation and the women's liberation movement, it seems that although sex discrimination is prohibited in either direction, more attention has been given to females entering traditionally male occupations than males entering traditionally female occupations. For whatever reasons, applicants with equal qualifications do not always have equal chances for job selection, solely on the basis of sex (Muchinsky and Harris, 1977:104).

Terborg and Ilgen (1975) state:

At the time of hiring, when little is known about the job applicant, it is relatively easy to categorize the female applicant as an undifferentiated member of the subgroup of women . . . these findings suggest that stereotypes influence sex discrimination most when little is known about the female's potential (i.e., hiring decision) and that the effect of sex-role stereotypes diminishes as more information about the female worker is obtained (373).

The Terborg study also indicates that uncertainty also applies to males entering a predominately female occupation.

Well-designed and carefully conducted research with the semantic differential consistently measures stereotypes and attitudes toward male and female sex roles. The design and format of the instrument itself makes a questionnaire of this type a logical choice to assess and analyze the attitudes of personnel officials toward sex-role differentiation in secretarial occupations.

Chapter 3

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the research methodology used in conducting this study. The following information necessary to the investigation is considered:

1. Selection of the population and sample.
2. Research design.
3. Instrument development.
4. Procedures for data collection.
5. Methods of data analysis.

THE POPULATION AND SAMPLE

The population of this study consisted of chapters of the American Society for Personnel Administration (ASPA) in Georgia. ASPA, a national professional organization of personnel and industrial relations executives in the private sector, has over 25,000 members, with 300 local chapters. Region 6 includes Alabama, Georgia, and Pensacola, Florida. There are twelve regional chapters and five college student chapters in Georgia. This study was concerned only with the regional chapters (Appendix A).

Chapters included in the sample were selected because of a willingness to participate, a balanced or relatively balanced male/female membership, and the location (urban or rural/suburban) of the chapters.

Using information obtained from Who's Who in ASPA: 1980, the researcher contacted the presidents of local chapters by telephone to explain the purpose of the study and to solicit their assistance. Individually typed letters explaining the nature of the problem, data collection procedures, and a sample copy of the survey instrument were then mailed to the chapter presidents. In a telephone follow-up conducted after the mailing was received, the president indicated the chapter's desire to be included in or deleted from the study. A time for data collection was also agreed upon. Seven chapters participated in the study.

DESIGN

The primary research design followed in this study was ex post facto. Kerlinger (1973:379) defined ex post facto research as:

. . . systematic empirical inquiry in which the scientist does not have direct control of independent variables because their manifestations have already occurred or because they are inherently not manipulable. Inferences about relations among variables are made, without direct intervention, from concomitant variation of independent and dependent variables.

In ex post factor research, direct control is not possible; neither experimental manipulation nor random assignment can be used by the researcher (Kerlinger, 1973:380).

A survey questionnaire was developed and administered at regularly scheduled ASPA chapter meetings to obtain the desired information from the respondents.

INSTRUMENT DEVELOPMENT

The questionnaire used in this survey was the Situational Attitude Scale for Secretarial Occupations (SASSO) developed by the researcher. As an initial step in the development of the instrument, a review of literature concerning sex stereotyping was conducted. Various studies dealing with skills required and characteristics needed for successful employment as a secretarial worker were also documented to insure that items included in the survey instrument reflected actual on-the-job situations.

Current literature substantiated the fact that most secretaries, regardless of their sex, performed a majority of tasks required under the categories of handling correspondence, performing clerical activities, performing stenographic activities, performing receptionist activities, and performing personal activities for the employer (Fredrickson, 1978; King et al., 1978; Erickson, 1972).

Situations described on the survey instrument were chosen because they would be most likely to elicit sex bias. Tasks included were chosen mainly from the category "performing personal activities for the employer," since many of these activities have a sex-role connotation. Social role criteria that included masculine/feminine role characteristics were also included, since many times these

characteristics are seen as acceptable for one sex but not for the other.

The semantic differential technique was used in the development of the attitude survey. The instrument consists of three elements: (1) a description of 30 secretarial situations to be evaluated in terms of their attitudinal properties, (2) five polar adjective pairs (opposite in meaning) anchored under each situation, and (3) a series of undefined scale positions with six steps.

The positive pole of each scale was varied from left to right randomly to counteract response set. For scoring consistency, each scale position was assigned a number from 1 (negative) for unfavorable poles, to 6 (positive) for favorable poles, as in the following example:

LADY

Rough 1 : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : 6 Smooth

or

Smooth 6 : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : 1 Rough

The semantic differential scale generally has seven pole positions; however, to avoid the response set of the neutral position (4), only six poles were positioned on the scale.

Following the rationale of Osgood (1957), the majority of adjective pair scales selected were evaluative; evaluative adjectives have been found to be the best indicators for use in attitude measurement.

Suci, Tannenbaum, and Kerrick (1975) found that the evaluation factor of the semantic differential is an index of attitude.

The pairing of five descriptive scales with 30 situational concepts in all possible combinations created a 150-scale test form. Items were defined as being the pairing of the particular situation described with the five adjective scales; thus the instrument had 30 items. Osgood found that for an instrument with 100 scales, approximately ten to fifteen minutes were required for the average adult to complete the semantic differential. It was estimated that approximately fifteen to twenty minutes would be required to complete the 150-scale semantic differential.

Two forms of the survey instrument were developed. Form A referred to secretarial workers as males; Form B referred to secretarial workers as females. The two forms had identical situations and adjective word pairs; only the sex of the secretarial worker referred to was different.

Instrument Validity

A panel of experts was chosen to assess the validity of the survey instrument. Each member was contacted by telephone, given an explanation of the nature of the problem, and asked to assist in the evaluation. Individually typed letters, the survey instrument, an evaluation form, and a postage-paid return envelope were then mailed to them.

The panel of experts consisted of two groups of three members each (Appendix B). Group A experts were asked to assess the content validity of the instrument. Oppenheim (1970) stated that a panel of experts should be selected to agree upon the content validity of statements in a questionnaire. Content validity, which is the degree to which a test covers the content area to be measured, is based on judgment (Ary et al., 1972:191). The three Group A panel members were chosen because of their individual experience and expertise in business education.

The panel members were asked to review the survey instrument and to indicate whether they felt:

1. The statement included a situation that was relevant to secretarial occupations.
2. The statement included a concept that could elicit sex bias.
3. The statement conveyed only one major meaning.
4. The 30 statements included were representative of situations found in secretarial occupations.

The panel was also asked to provide comments that would improve the clarity of directions, design and format, and the appropriateness of each situation described. Space was provided on the evaluation form for written comments.

Group B members were asked to assess the face validity of the instrument. The panel included three members who have expertise in the areas of sex stereotyping and sex bias.

This group was also asked to indicate whether they felt:

1. The statement included a situation that was relevant to male-female sex roles.
2. The statement included a concept that could elicit sex bias.
3. The statement conveyed only one meaning.

Group B panel members were also asked to include any written comments on the clarity or content of the instrument.

The two panels of experts were given both forms of the instrument (Form A and Form B). They were asked to evaluate only Form A, since the statements and adjective word pairs were identical; only the sex of the worker described was different.

After the evaluations were completed, a composite of results was compiled and necessary revisions or additions suggested by panel members were made.

Pilot Test of Survey Instrument

A pilot test was conducted by administering the revised Situational Attitude Scale for Secretarial Occupations to the Augusta, Georgia, chapter of the American Society for Personnel Administration on August 28, 1980. The pilot test was conducted at the regularly scheduled monthly meeting of the chapter.

The purpose of the pilot test was to establish an average time for completion of the instrument, to test the procedures in distributing and administering the instrument, and to test the reliability of the instrument.

The researcher attended the meeting to supervise data collection. The forms were distributed by a male and a female to help eliminate a sex-biased response. One-half of the male and female members completed Form A, and one-half completed Form B. A total of 29 chapter members were present and completed the instrument: 17 males and 12 females. Five of the completed forms were not usable. The mean time needed for completion of the Situational Attitude Scale for Secretarial Occupations was fourteen minutes.

Reliability of the Instrument

Reliability refers to the accuracy (consistency and stability) of measurement by a test (Isaac, 1978:89). Cronbach's Alpha was used to determine the internal consistency reliability of the survey instrument.

Based upon data from the 24 usable instruments completed at the pilot test, the reliability coefficients were calculated at the computer center at Georgia Southern College, Statesboro, Georgia, for all computational work. The SPSS Reliability Subprogram for Item and Scale Analysis was used.

The alpha coefficients showed that the reliability of both forms of the instrument, Form A and Form B, was high (Table 3). Both an item analysis and total instrument analysis were computed on the forms. Any item receiving a coefficient of .30 or below on the item analysis would not contribute to the total variance of the instrument. Only one item, number 21, of Form A was below .30; since the corresponding item on Form B had an alpha coefficient of .79, a decision was made

Table 3
Cronbach's Alpha Coefficients
for Reliability of SASSO

Form	Number of Respondents	Reliability
Form A	13	.93
Form B	11	.94

to include the item on the final form of the instrument (Tables 4 and 5). Therefore, no items were eliminated from the instrument. The final form of the Situational Attitude Scale for Secretarial Occupations had a total of 30 items.

Final Format of the Instrument

The final form of the Situational Attitude Scale for Secretarial Occupations has two parts. Demographic data were collected from the respondents on the first section. Respondents were asked to provide the following information:

1. Sex
2. Present job title
3. Number of total secretarial workers employed by their company; number of male and female secretarial workers employed by their company
4. Whether they had received orientation concerning sex equity legislation
5. Age
6. Educational level (highest degree earned)
7. Self-rating of their knowledge of the sex equity legislation

The second section consists of 30 situations with five adjective word pairs under each. The respondents mark their first reaction to each situation by making a response on each of the five semantic differential scales. They are told that there are no right or wrong answers; they are directed to mark each scale independently and to respond to each situation with their first impression (Appendix C and D).

Table 4
Cronbach's Alpha Coefficients for Reliability
Form A - Male

Item	Alpha
1	.44
2	.64
3	.95
4	.79
5	.85
6	.93
7	.88
8	.53
9	.76
10	.70
11	.92
12	.93
13	.84
14	.94
15	.91
16	.65
17	.87
18	.97
19	.76
20	.94
21	.00
22	.96
23	.77
24	.95
25	.68
26	.95
27	.79
28	.96
29	.86
30	.80

Table 5
Cronbach's Alpha Coefficients for Reliability
Form B - Female

Item	Alpha
1	.53
2	.83
3	.74
4	.58
5	.77
6	.90
7	.96
8	.63
9	.61
10	.84
11	.88
12	.89
13	.80
14	.83
15	.93
16	.44
17	.77
18	.81
19	.74
20	.57
21	.79
22	.88
23	.59
24	.80
25	.76
26	1.00
27	.83
28	.95
29	.98
30	.96

DATA COLLECTION

Procedures used in the pilot testing were also followed for the research study.

Six Georgia chapters of Region 6 of the American Society for Personnel Administration participated in the study. The number of respondents was 108. Chapters were chosen for the study because of a willingness to participate, a balanced or relatively balanced male/female membership, and the location (urban or rural/suburban) of the chapters.

The researcher attended four of the regularly scheduled monthly meetings of these chapters; a data collector was designated to attend two chapter meetings. The forms were distributed at the meeting of these two chapters and were then returned to the researcher by mail.

At the meetings, a male and a female distributed the forms to each of the chapter members in attendance. One-half of the male and female respondents completed Form A, the male form of the survey instrument. One-half of the male and female chapter members completed Form B, the female form of the instrument. The directions were included on the instrument; therefore, no oral directions were given. The mean time needed for completion of the Situational Attitude Scale for Secretarial Occupations was sixteen minutes.

DATA ANALYSIS

Demographic data describing the participants was collected in part one of the Situational Attitude Scale for Secretarial Occupations. These data were utilized in preparing a profile of the respondents who participated in the study.

To compare the sex-role attitudes, group mean scores were calculated based on the summed score of the items on the instrument that was completed by the respondents. Groupings were made according to two factors: sex of the personnel official completing the survey instrument, and sex of the secretarial worker described on the instrument. Group mean scores were also computed for each of the 30 items on the survey instrument.

A 2x2 factorial analysis of variance was used to compare the sex-role attitudes of the personnel officials on the SASSO summed score. This statistical method analyzes the independent and interactive effects of one or more independent variables on a dependent variable (Kerlinger, 1973:213). This analysis was used to answer research questions 1, 2, and 3.

The eta correlation coefficient, which gives an indication of how dissimilar the means on the dependent variable are within the categories of the independent variable, was computed (Nie and Associates, 1975:230). This coefficient was used to determine if there were significant relationships between the scores on the SASSO and the variables: (1) location of the ASPA chapter, (2) age of the personnel official,

(3) educational level (highest degree earned) of the personnel official, and (4) the self-rating by personnel officials of their knowledge of the related legislation. This analysis was used to answer research questions 4, 5, 6, and 7.

SUMMARY

This chapter has outlined the methods and procedures used in this study. The population and sample, as well as the research design, were discussed.

The development of the Situational Attitude Scale for Secretarial Occupations and the pilot test of the final form of the instrument were explained. The statistical analysis performed on the data collected from the respondents served as a basis for the results, conclusions, and recommendations provided in Chapters 4 and 5.

Chapter 4

RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to examine and compare the attitudes of male and female personnel officials toward sex-role differentiation in secretarial occupations. A secondary problem was to determine if there was a relationship between these attitudes and the variables of age, educational level (highest degree earned), urban or rural/suburban location of the ASPA chapter, and personnel officials' self-rating of knowledge of related legislation.

The statistical analysis and interpretation of the data presented in the study are based upon responses provided by personnel officials from chapters of the American Society for Personnel Administration (ASPA) in Georgia.

This chapter is divided into two sections. The first includes a description of the respondents; the second reports the findings of the data analysis for each of the research questions.

RESPONDENTS

Personnel officials from six chapters of the American Society for Personnel Administration, Region 6, were the respondents in this study. A total of 113 instruments were completed; 5 of these were not usable because they were incomplete.

A profile of the 108 personnel officials who participated in the study was developed utilizing demographic data collected on the

first part of the instrument. Table 6 summarizes the representation of responses by sex and location (urban or rural/suburban) of the ASPA chapter. Males completed 55.6 percent of the total usable responses, and females completed 44.4 percent. There was a greater number of male respondents in both urban and rural/suburban locations.

The number of participants who completed each of the two forms of the instrument (Form A, male, or Form B, female) is summarized in Table 7. The total number of male and female secretarial workers employed by the respondents' respective companies is shown in Table 8. There were a total of 5,165 secretarial employees. Of this total, 45 employees were male.

Table 9 presents a frequency distribution by age of respondents. The majority of male personnel officials were in the 31-40 age group (58.4 percent). The majority of female personnel officials were in the 20-30 age group (31.3 percent) and the 31-40 age group (35.4 percent).

The educational levels (highest degree earned) of respondents are given in Table 10. Among the male officials, 63.3 percent earned at least a bachelor's degree. Of the female officials, 58.3 percent earned at least a bachelor's degree.

Table 11 summarizes the respondents' self-rating of their knowledge of legislation that can affect the employment process. Over half of both male and female personnel officials rated their knowledge of related legislation as good, and 25 percent rated their knowledge as excellent.

Table 6
 Proportion of Male and Female Respondents

Respondents	<u>Total Group</u>		<u>Urban</u>		<u>Rural/Suburban</u>	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Male	60	55.6	31	53.4	29	58.0
Female	<u>48</u>	<u>44.4</u>	<u>27</u>	<u>46.6</u>	<u>21</u>	<u>42.0</u>
Total	108	100.0	58	100.0	50	100.0

Table 7

Number of SASSO Forms Completed by Respondents

Respondents	Total Group	Form A Male	Form B Female
Male	60	31	29
Female	<u>48</u>	<u>26</u>	<u>22</u>
Total	108	57	51

Table 8

Proportion of Male and Female Secretarial
Workers Employed by Companies Represented

Sex of Worker	Total Workers		Urban		Rural/Suburban	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Male	45	.9	8	.6	37	1.0
Female	<u>5,120</u>	<u>99.1</u>	<u>1,341</u>	<u>99.4</u>	<u>3,779</u>	<u>99.0</u>
Total	5,165	100.0	1,349	100.0	3,816	100.0

Table 9
Age Distribution of Respondents

Age Groups	<u>Total Group</u>		<u>Males</u>		<u>Females</u>	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
20-30	21	19.4	6	10.0	15	31.3
31-40	52	48.2	35	58.4	17	35.4
41-50	23	21.3	11	18.3	12	25.0
Over 51	<u>12</u>	<u>11.1</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>13.3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>8.3</u>
Total	108	100.0	60	100.0	48	100.0

Table 10
 Respondents' Educational Level
 (Highest Degree Earned)

Degree	<u>Total Group</u>		<u>Males</u>		<u>Females</u>	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
No degree	24	22.2	10	16.7	14	29.2
Bachelor's	66	61.1	38	63.3	28	58.3
Master's	16	14.8	10	16.7	6	12.5
Doctorate	<u>2</u>	<u>1.9</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3.3</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>0.0</u>
Total	108	100.0	60	100.0	48	100.0

Table 11
 Respondents' Self-Rating of Knowledge
 of Related Legislation

Self-Rating	<u>Total Group</u>		<u>Males</u>		<u>Females</u>	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Excellent	27	25.0	19	31.6	10	20.8
Good	54	50.0	31	51.7	25	52.1
Fair	26	24.1	10	16.7	12	25.0
Poor	<u>1</u>	<u>.9</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>0.0</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>2.1</u>
Total	108	100.0	60	100.0	48	100.0

FINDINGS RELATED TO RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Item scores and total instrument scores on the Situational Attitude Scale for Secretarial Occupations (SASSO) were used in answering the research questions. The SASSO consisted of 30 items with 5 scales each. Each scale had six positions that were assigned numerical values from 1, representing the most negative response, to 6, representing the most positive response; therefore, 30 was the highest possible score on each item, and 5 was the lowest possible score on each item.

A mean score for each of the 30 items was computed for both male and female personnel officials. Attitude scores for the entire instrument were determined by summing down the 30 items; 900 was the highest possible score, and 150 was the lowest. A mean score was then computed for each group of personnel officials.

Research Question 1 - Hypothesis 1:

To what extent do differences exist in the attitudes of male and female personnel officials toward secretarial workers?

The first research question dealt with the comparison of the attitudes of male and female personnel officials toward secretarial workers. To compare these attitudes, mean scores and standard deviations for the total instrument were calculated for male and female personnel officials (Table 12). A comparison of these attitude mean scores indicate that male respondents tended to give a more positive response than females on the total instrument, as shown by the higher mean score. However, a factorial analysis of variance (ANOVA) utilizing the

Table 12

Means and Standard Deviations of Attitude Scores
for Male and Female Respondents on the SASSO

Respondents	Mean	Standard Deviation
Male	587.50	73.96
Female	576.19	68.79

Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) revealed that there were no significant differences between the means when comparing the attitudes of personnel officials on the basis of their sex ($p > .05$). Table 13 summarizes the results of the ANOVA.

Research Question 2 - Hypothesis 2:

To what extent do differences exist in the attitudes of personnel officials toward male and female secretarial workers?

The second research question was answered by calculating means and standard deviations for both male and female personnel officials on each of the two forms of the Situational Attitude Scale for Secretarial Occupations. Form A described male secretarial workers; Form B described female secretarial workers. The total mean scores show that male and female personnel officials gave a more positive response on the female form of the SASSO instrument (Table 14). The factorial analysis of variance summarized in Table 13 also revealed that there was a significant difference when comparing means on the basis of the sex of the workers described on the two forms of the instrument ($p < .05$).

An additional verification is provided by a summary of the item mean scores and standard deviations for each of the 30 items on Form A (male) (Table 15), and Form B (female) (Table 16). The item mean scores for the male form of the instrument indicate that male personnel officials had higher mean scores on 15 of the items; females also had higher mean scores on 15 of the 30 items. On the female form of the instrument, male personnel officials' item mean scores were

Table 13

Factorial Analysis of Variance for Mean Attitude Scores by
Sex of the Personnel Official and Sex of the Worker Described

Source	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F
Main Effects	77044.74	2	38522.36	8.498*
Sex of Official	2667.43	1	2667.43	.588
Sex of Worker	73632.13	1	73632.13	16.244*
Sex of Official & Sex of Worker	36.62	1	36.62	.008
Residual	471425.56	104	4532.94	
Total	548506.92	107	5126.233	

*Significant at the .05 level

Table 14

Means and Standard Deviations for Males and Females
on Each Form (A and B) of the SASSO

Form of Instrument	<u>Total Group</u>		<u>Male Officials</u>		<u>Female Officials</u>	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Form A (Male)	557.25	84.82	561.70	86.09	552.81	79.59
Form B (Female)	609.45	42.53	615.07	45.40	603.82	39.67

Table 15

Item Means and Standard Deviations for Male and
Female Respondents on Form A (Male) of the SASSO

Item	Male Officials		Female Officials	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
1	20.42	5.61	* 21.27	4.63
2	17.45	8.76	* 19.08	6.50
3	19.55	6.80	* 19.81	5.81
4	19.07	5.82	* 20.00	5.96
5	* 16.65	7.50	15.39	6.20
6	21.10	7.30	* 22.62	5.98
7	19.36	6.40	* 22.00	5.99
8	22.32	5.66	* 22.92	4.69
9	21.45	7.03	* 22.77	6.30
10	10.07	5.34	* 10.96	4.72
11	* 18.68	7.47	15.04	5.50
12	* 21.45	6.49	17.54	5.97
13	* 16.81	7.31	12.92	4.82
14	* 11.36	6.75	9.19	5.47
15	18.55	7.08	* 20.23	8.37
16	* 16.26	5.18	15.15	4.58
17	22.68	6.38	* 25.23	5.96
18	* 21.78	6.96	19.27	7.50
19	* 21.00	5.17	18.31	6.54
20	* 20.09	5.34	* 22.31	4.28
21	* 22.03	5.22	22.00	5.51
22	* 19.45	7.76	18.04	6.95
23	* 16.03	5.99	* 16.31	5.53
24	14.39	7.94	* 18.15	5.74
25	* 14.81	5.36	13.46	4.15
26	13.87	8.21	* 19.65	7.30
27	* 25.23	4.40	24.85	4.77
28	* 17.68	7.45	15.15	9.05
29	* 23.10	6.71	19.12	7.40
30	* 18.26	7.31	15.08	7.08

*Asterisk indicates higher score for each item.

Table 16

Item Means and Standard Deviations for Male and
Female Respondents on Form B (Female) of the SASSO

Item	Male Officials		Female Officials	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
1	* 24.83	3.06	23.68	5.05
2	16.21	6.46	* 18.82	6.92
3	* 22.62	5.93	20.55	6.47
4	* 24.97	4.29	24.18	3.94
5	24.00	5.25	* 24.60	4.82
6	* 25.28	6.30	23.27	4.90
7	* 24.17	5.65	22.82	4.19
8	26.00	3.32	26.00	3.35
9	* 23.45	4.70	21.64	5.44
10	10.80	3.03	* 11.59	2.96
11	* 17.21	5.20	16.18	4.48
12	14.10	4.72	* 14.68	4.15
13	* 16.24	4.76	14.23	3.68
14	* 12.17	6.61	10.41	5.40
15	24.59	4.90	* 25.91	4.13
16	* 18.38	4.18	16.86	4.42
17	* 27.10	4.06	25.64	4.82
18	15.72	7.60	* 16.73	7.26
19	* 21.90	4.54	18.68	5.55
20	* 23.97	4.56	* 23.59	4.50
21	23.55	4.57	23.59	3.94
22	15.59	6.31	* 17.91	5.44
23	* 18.03	4.90	17.27	3.01
24	* 26.38	3.13	26.00	3.21
25	* 15.55	4.07	14.82	4.50
26	27.45	4.15	* 28.46	2.11
27	24.86	4.19	* 25.96	3.29
28	14.66	7.04	* 16.05	6.49
29	* 19.83	6.80	17.96	7.52
30	15.48	6.62	* 15.77	6.75

*Asterisk indicates higher score for each item.

higher than female personnel officials on 17 of the 30 items.

Research Question 3 - Hypothesis 3:

Is there an interaction between the sex of the personnel official and the sex of the worker described on the Situational Attitude Scale for Secretarial Occupations?

The significance of the main effects shown in Table 13 indicate that there were significant differences across the two variables, sex of the personnel official and sex of the worker described, on each form of the instrument. No significant interaction between the sex of the personnel official and sex of the worker described on the Situational Attitude Scale for Secretarial Occupations was revealed in the ANOVA ($p > .05$).

Research Question 4 - Hypothesis 4:

Is there a relationship between the location (urban or rural/suburban) of the ASPA chapter and personnel officials' attitudes toward male and female secretarial workers?

The eta coefficient correlational technique was used to answer this research question, as well as research questions 5, 6, and 7. Eta-squared, a correlation ratio that gives the proportion of variance in the dependent variable accounted for by the independent variable, was also calculated.

As shown in Table 17, the correlation coefficient indicates a very low positive relationship between the location of the ASPA chapter and personnel officials' attitude scores on the SASSO.

Table 17

Eta and Eta-Squared Correlation Coefficients for Location,
Age, Educational Level, and Self-Rating with Attitude Scores

	Location	Age	Educational Level	Self-Rating
Attitude Scores	.004 (.000)	.169 (.029)	.185 (.034)	.135 (.018)

*Scores in parenthesis are eta-squared.

Research Question 5 - Hypothesis 5:

Is there a relationship between age and the personnel officials' attitudes toward male and female secretarial workers?

Calculations of the eta coefficient, which are summarized in Table 17, provided the answer to this research question. There was a low positive relationship between age of the respondent and the scores of the respondents on the SASSO.

Research Question 6 - Hypothesis 6:

Is there a relationship between educational level (highest degree earned) and personnel officials' attitudes toward male and female secretarial workers?

As shown in Table 17, there was a low positive relationship between the respondents' educational level (highest degree earned) and the scores of the respondents on the SASSO.

Research Question 7 - Hypothesis 7:

Is there a relationship between the self-rating of knowledge of related legislation and personnel officials' attitudes toward male and female secretarial workers?

The relationship between the respondents' self-rating of their knowledge of related legislation is a low positive correlation, as shown in Table 17.

SUMMARY

This chapter has presented the results of the data analyses that were conducted to answer the seven research question.

An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to determine if differences existed between attitude scores, the sex of the personnel

official, and the sex of the worker described on the two forms of the SASSO. There were no significant differences between the means when comparing personnel officials on the basis of sex ($p > .05$). There was a significant difference when comparing means on the basis of the sex of the worker described on the two forms (A and B) of the instrument ($p < .05$).

Eta correlation coefficients were used to answer the four research questions concerning the relationship of variables with the scores attained by personnel officials on the SASSO. Low positive relationships were found between attitude scores and:

1. Location (urban or rural/suburban) of the ASPA chapter.
2. Age of the personnel official.
3. Educational level of the personnel official.
4. Self-rating of knowledge of related legislation by the personnel official.

Chapter 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter contains a summary of the study, including the background of the problem, problem statement, research procedures and analysis of the data; the presentation and discussion of conclusions based on the findings; recommendations; and problems for further research study.

SUMMARY

The effects of sex-role stereotyping and sex bias have historically limited the social, personal, and vocational options of many people. In the last decade, legislation was implemented that emphasized the need for the elimination of various forms of sex discrimination. Funds were mandated specifically to the educational sector in an attempt to end occupational inequality in all fields, including vocational education.

Business and office occupations is one of three vocational areas in which females comprise a majority of the students. Certain areas of the business cluster, particularly the secretarial and stenographic occupations, continue to be sex-typed despite legislation and changes in educational programming. The Occupational Outlook Handbook (1980) projects there will be an estimated 21.7 million clerical workers by 1990; it is necessary, therefore, that business and office occupations

increase enrollment of both male and female students in order to meet this ever-increasing need for office workers.

Although most research regarding occupational sex bias has concerned discrimination against women who attempt to enter traditionally male occupations, a review of related literature indicates that males are equally discriminated against as females, particularly when they attempt to enter traditionally female fields. Research studies regarding educational programs have been conducted primarily with students or educators. The lack of information regarding the way the private business sector and those in employment processing positions respond to males and females in specific job situations was of primary concern in this research study.

Statement of the Problem

The central problem of this study was to identify and compare the attitudes of male and female personnel officials concerning sex-role differentiation in secretarial occupations. A secondary purpose was to determine if there was a relationship between these attitudes and the following variables:

1. Location of the selected chapter (urban or rural/suburban).
2. Age of the personnel official.
3. Educational level of the personnel official.
4. Self-rating of knowledge of related legislation by the personnel official.

Seven research questions, which are included in the results section of this chapter, provided specific direction for the study.

Research Procedures

The participants in this study were members of six chapters of the American Society for Personnel Administration (ASPA), Region 6, in Georgia. There were 108 respondents. It was determined through a review of related literature that an appropriate instrument was not available to measure the attitudes of personnel officials toward secretarial workers. The instrument used to obtain the necessary data, the Situational Attitude Scale for Secretarial Occupations (SASSO), was designed by the researcher.

A systematic procedure, involving an intensive literature review, was used in identifying office situations that could be useful in measuring sex-role attitudes toward secretarial workers. Thirty situational statements were included on the instrument. Two forms of the instrument were developed; they were identical except for the sex of the worker described in the situational statements.

The 30 statements were submitted to two separate panels of experts for evaluation (Group A and Group B). Group A, which consisted of three business educators, assessed the content validity of the instrument. Group B was asked to evaluate the face validity of the instrument; this panel included three members who have expertise in the areas of sex stereotyping and sex bias. Revisions suggested by both panels of experts were made.

The Situational Attitude Scale for Secretarial Occupations was pilot tested by the researcher to test the procedures for administration of the instrument and to test the reliability of the instrument. The

researcher administered the instrument to a chapter of the American Society for Personnel Administration that was not to be included in the final data collection process. As a result of the pilot test, procedures for the administration of the instrument were refined, Both an item analysis and a total instrument analysis were completed on the two forms; the internal consistency reliability of both forms, A and B, was high--Form A, .93, and Form B, .94. The instrument was then administered to the members of six ASPA chapters during a regularly scheduled monthly meeting. One-half of the male and female chapter members completed Form A, the male form of the instrument, and one-half completed Form B, the female form of the instrument.

The first section of the SASSO related to specific demographic information. The second section contained 30 statements that related to office situations; respondents were instructed to mark their first reaction to each of the 30 situational statements by making a response on five semantic differential scales that were listed under each of the items. The SASSO was completed by 113 personnel officials; 5 instruments were not usable because they were incomplete. Thus, 108 (95.5 percent) of the total instruments were used in the final data analysis.

Analysis of Data

Demographic data were used in preparing a profile of the respondents who participated in the study.

Means for each of the 30 situational items and means for both forms of the instrument were computed by utilizing the numerical

values assigned to each scale. A factorial analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to test the differences between the means when comparing the attitude scores on the basis of the personnel officials' sex and the sex of the secretarial worker described on each of the two forms of the Situational Attitude Scale for Secretarial Occupations.

The eta correlation coefficient technique was used to determine if significant relationships existed between the sex-role attitude scores and the variables (location of the ASPA chapter, age, educational level, and self-rating of the personnel officials). The data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) (Nie and Associates, 1975), and the computer center at Georgia Southern College, Statesboro, Georgia.

SUMMARY OF RESULTS

The following are the results of the data analysis relating to the descriptive section of the instrument and to the research questions that were formulated for this study.

Description of Respondent Characteristics

A profile of the respondents indicated that:

1. Of the 108 respondents, 55.6 percent were male and 44.4 percent were female.
2. Fifty-eight of the personnel officials (53.7 percent) were located in urban locations, and 50 (46.3 percent) were located in rural/suburban locations.

3. The majority of the secretarial workers employed by the personnel officials' respective companies were female (99,1 percent).

4. The majority of male personnel officials were in the 31-40 age group (58.4 percent), and female personnel officials were primarily in the 20-30 age group (31.3 percent) and the 31-40 age group (35.4 percent).

5. A bachelor's degree was held by 63,3 percent of the male personnel officials, and 58,3 percent of the female personnel officials.

6. Of the total respondents, over three-quarters of the males and females rated their knowledge of legislation that can affect the employment process as excellent or good,

Findings for Research Questions

The findings related to the seven research questions central to the study are presented below:

Research Question 1 - Hypothesis 1:

To what extent do differences exist in the attitudes of male and female personnel officials toward secretarial workers?

Mean scores for the total instrument (Forms A and B) were calculated for both male and female personnel officials. A factorial analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to determine if there were significant differences in the attitude scores of the personnel officials according to their sex. No difference existed between the groups with respect to the sex of personnel officials ($p > .05$). Thus, similar attitudes toward secretarial workers were expressed by ASPA chapter members regardless of their sex.

Research Question 2 - Hypothesis 2:

To what extent do differences exist in the attitudes of personnel officials toward male and female secretarial workers?

The ANOVA performed on the total mean scores on each of the two forms of the Situational Attitude Scale for Secretarial Occupations revealed that there was a significant difference in the mean scores on the basis of the sex of the worker described on the two forms of the instrument ($p < .05$). The means indicate the following differences: Both male and female personnel officials gave a higher, more positive response on Form B of the instrument that referred to secretarial workers as females. Male personnel officials had higher, though not significantly higher, sex-role attitude scores than female personnel officials on both the male and female forms of the instrument.

Item mean scores calculated for the situational statements showed that male and female personnel officials scored equally high on 15 of 30 items on the male form (Form A) of the instrument. Male personnel officials had a higher mean score on 17 of the 30 situational items on the female form (Form B). The total mean and item mean scores indicate that male personnel officials have a more positive sex-role attitude toward male and female workers in the secretarial occupations.

The mean scores on the 30 individual items for both forms of the instrument indicate that male personnel officials were more positive than female personnel officials toward their own sex as well as the opposite sex. Male personnel officials had higher mean scores

for the following items on both forms of the instrument:

- No. 11 - salary for single secretary
- No. 13 - salary for married secretary
- No. 14 - wearing jeans to the office
- No. 15 - personal appearance
- No. 19 - watering plants
- No. 25 - secretary involved in gossip
- No. 29 - secretary in building alone

Female personnel officials were more positive than males on both forms of the instrument in only four instances:

- No. 2 - secretary traveling with employer
- No. 10 - secretary making personal telephone calls
- No. 15 - secretary answering the telephone
- No. 26 - secretary taking time off for birth of baby

Research Question 3 - Hypothesis 3:

Is there an interaction between the sex of the personnel official and the sex of the worker described on the Situational Attitude Scale for Secretarial Occupations?

Based on the analysis of variance performed, the interaction of sex of the personnel official and sex of the worker described on the two forms of the instrument was not significant ($p > .05$).

Research Question 4 - Hypothesis 4:

Is there a relationship between the location of the ASPA chapter and personnel officials' attitudes toward male and female secretarial workers?

Eta correlation coefficients used to determine if a relationship existed between the location (urban or rural/suburban) of the ASPA chapter and the personnel officials' attitude scores indicated an extremely low positive relationship.

Research Question 5 - Hypothesis 5:

Is there a relationship between age and the personnel officials' attitudes toward male and female secretarial workers?

The eta correlation coefficient calculated to determine if a relationship existed between age of the personnel official and their attitude scores indicated a low positive relationship.

Research Question 6 - Hypothesis 6:

Is there a relationship between educational level (highest degree earned) and personnel officials' attitudes toward male and female secretarial workers?

A low positive relationship between educational level (highest degree earned) of the personnel official and their attitude scores was shown by the computation of eta correlation coefficients.

Research Question 7 - Hypothesis 7:

Is there a relationship between the self-rating of knowledge of related legislation and personnel officials' attitudes toward male and female secretarial workers?

There was a low positive relationship between the self-rating by the personnel officials and their attitude scores based on the eta correlation coefficient.

CONCLUSIONS

Based upon the findings reported in this study, the following conclusions may be drawn.

1. It can be concluded that the personnel officials' sex did not significantly affect their attitudes toward secretarial workers. Male and female personnel officials responded in a similar manner to the

30 office situations described on the Situational Attitude Scale for Secretarial Occupations. These same attitudes were affected, however, by the sex of the secretarial worker described.

The scores on the instrument that referred to secretaries as female (Form B) were significantly higher than those scores on the form that referred to secretaries as male (Form A) for both male and female personnel officials. Therefore, because of these higher sex-role attitudes toward females, it can be concluded that both the male and female personnel officials view the appropriate sex-role of the secretary as female. The sex-role attitudes of both the male and female personnel officials are biased in favor of females. Thus, this study supports related literature that contends that a majority of both sexes believe that secretarial work is more congruent with the female sex role (Hesselbart, 1977; Fox, 1975; Levinson, 1975).

2. In view of their higher sex-role attitude scores on both forms of the instrument, the male personnel officials seemed to have a more positive sex-role attitude than female personnel officials toward both male and female secretarial workers. Likewise, the female personnel officials have a less positive sex-role attitude toward both their own sex and the opposite sex in secretarial positions. Contrary to the related literature (Shepard and Hess, 1975; Entwistle and Greenberger, 1972; Iglitzen, 1972; Spence and Helmreich, 1972), females were not "found to be more liberal at every age level than males."

3. The variables of: (1) location of the ASPA chapter, (2) age of the personnel official, (3) educational level of the personnel official, and (4) self-rating of the personnel official, were not closely related to the attitude scores.

The question is raised as to whether these variables are important in predicting sex-role attitudes, as is suggested in the related literature.

RECOMMENDATIONS

In view of the findings, the following recommendations are made:

1. Sex-role typing in the secretarial occupations is still evident in the private business sector. Since over three-quarters of the personnel officials rated their knowledge as excellent or good, it is recommended that sex-equity programs and workshops that relate to the private sector be reevaluated, and perhaps redesigned, to place an emphasis on the sex-role socialization process rather than on legislative mandates.

2. Based on the knowledge that the attitudes of personnel officials toward secretarial workers are affected by the sex of the worker, it is recommended that teacher educators, business teachers, guidance counselors, and placement officers make a concentrated effort to insure that students are familiar with the attitudes they may encounter in the job market.

3. It is recommended that the SASSO be further analyzed and refined so that it may possibly be expanded to include other occupational areas in the business cluster.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

During this study, a number of problems suggesting additional research were encountered. The following topics for further study are therefore recommended:

1. A study to determine the sex-role attitudes of government personnel officials.
2. A study to determine what differences exist between male and female secretarial workers as to perceived job satisfaction.
3. A study to determine to what extent discriminatory practices in selection and employment exist as perceived by office employees.
4. A study to determine if differences exist between male and female secretarial workers in terms of such factors as turnover, promotion, and absenteeism.
5. A study to determine how effective affirmative action programs have actually been in providing equal opportunities in office occupations for both males and females.
6. A study to examine and compare the sex-role attitudes of those in occupational areas that employ a larger number of male office workers (the military, for example).

7. A study to determine to what extent legislation to eliminate sex bias had had an impact on enrollment in business education,

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APPENDIX A
Region 6 Chapters and Location
Populations of the American Society
for Personnel Administration in Georgia

AMERICAN SOCIETY FOR PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION
Georgia Chapters

Chapter	Location Population
Athens	45,000
Atlanta	455,000
Augusta	53,300 * Pilot Test
Columbus	162,300 *
Covington	10,267
Dalton	20,000 *
Dublin	15,300 *
LaGrange	21,700
Macon	121,500 *
Milledgeville	11,601 *
Savannah	106,000 *
Valdosta	35,900

*ASPA chapters included in the study.

APPENDIX B
Panels of Experts to Determine
Content and Face Validity and Evaluation Forms

PANEL OF EXPERTS TO
DETERMINE CONTENT VALIDITY

Business Educators

Dr. Donald L. Campbell
University of Alabama
University, AL 35486

Dr. Russell Mercer
Business Education State Supervisor
Georgia State Department of Education
Atlanta, GA 30303

Dr. Patricia Ginn Moody
University of South Carolina
Columbia, SC 29210



COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

VIRGINIA POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE AND STATE UNIVERSITY

Blacksburg, Virginia 24061

DIVISION OF VOCATIONAL & TECHNICAL EDUCATION

July 8, 1980

Dear Vocational Educator:

As a phase of my dissertation, the attached statements will be mailed to selected personnel directors in order to identify their attitudes toward sex-role stereotyping in the secretarial occupations. For this study, sex-role stereotyping is defined as socially designated behaviors that differentiate between men and women.

The 30 situational statements represent related tasks performed by a secretary; these were chosen because they have possible stereotypic connotations. Careful refinement of these items is necessary. Your assistance is requested in the evaluation of these statements.

There will be two forms of the instrument; however, you need only evaluate one form, since the situations described on both forms are the same, with one exception: Form A situations involve a male secretary and Form B situations involve a female secretary.

As you read through the statements, please answer the questions found on the corresponding answer sheet. In addition, please include any written comments you may have concerning the statements, instrument directions, or the section designed to collect demographic data.

Should you have any questions regarding this study, please call Linda Munilla at . Thank you for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Linda S. Munilla
Graduate Student

Jeffrey R. Stewart, Jr.
Professor
Business Education

Enclosures

Using the answer sheet below, please answer the following three questions for each of the 30 situational statements found on the enclosed instrument:

- a. Does this statement include a situation that is relevant to the secretarial occupations?
- b. Does the situation include a concept that could elicit sex bias?
- c. Does this statement convey only one major meaning?

1. CONCEPT: Secretarial interview

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

2. CONCEPT: Secretary in supervisory capacity

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

3. CONCEPT: Secretary traveling with employer

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

4. CONCEPT: Secretary making and bringing coffee to boss

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

5. CONCEPT: Your child becoming a secretary

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

6. CONCEPT: Secretary asking for assistance

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

7. CONCEPT: Secretary's family obligation

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

8. CONCEPT: Promotion of typist to secretary

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

9. CONCEPT: Stenographer acting as receptionist

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

10. CONCEPT: Personal telephone calls made on the job

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

11. CONCEPT: Relationship between salary & marital status

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

12. CONCEPT: Duties involving manual labor

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

- a. Does this statement include a situation that is relevant to the secretarial occupations?
- b. Does the situation include a concept that could elicit sex bias?
- c. Does this statement convey only one major meaning?

13. CONCEPT: Relationship between salary & marital status

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

14. CONCEPT: Appropriate attire for office

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

15. CONCEPT: Telephone etiquette

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

16. CONCEPT: Physical appearance of secretarial candidate

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

17. CONCEPT: Stenographer taking minutes at meeting

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

18. CONCEPT: Responsibilities outside office hours

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

19. CONCEPT: Secretary watering employer's plants

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

20. CONCEPT: Overweight secretary

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

21. CONCEPT: Secretary's use of personal time

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

22. CONCEPT: Responsibilities outside office hours

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

23. CONCEPT: Secretary's attitude when criticized

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

24. CONCEPT: Show of appreciation for secretary

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

- a. Does this statement include a situation that is relevant to the secretarial occupations?
- b. Does the situation include a concept that could elicit sex bias?
- c. Does this statement convey only one major meaning?

25. CONCEPT: Secretary involved in office gossip

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

26. CONCEPT: Secretary's family obligation

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

27. CONCEPT: Promotion of secretary to sales representative

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

28. CONCEPT: Responsibilities outside office hours

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

29. CONCEPT: Security of secretary

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

30. CONCEPT: Smoking in office

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

ARE THESE SITUATIONS REPRESENTATIVE OF THOSE FOUND IN SECRETARIAL OCCUPATIONS?

Yes No

IF THE ANSWER IS NO, PLEASE LIST OTHER AREAS THAT COULD BE INCLUDED.

THANK YOU

PANEL OF EXPERTS TO
DETERMINE FACE VALIDITY

Sex Equity Experts

Dr. F. M. Asche
Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University
Blacksburg, VA 24060

Ms. Elizabeth Hawa
Supervisor of Vocational Education for Sex Equity
Virginia State Department of Education
Richmond, VA 23216

Ms. Loydia Webber
Vocational Education Equity Coordinator
Georgia State Department of Education
Atlanta, GA 30334

Using the answer sheet below, please answer the following three questions for each of the 30 situational statements found on the enclosed instrument:

- a. Does this statement include a situation that is relevant to male-female sex roles?
- b. Does the situation include a concept that could elicit sex bias?
- c. Does this statement convey only one major meaning?

1. CONCEPT: Secretarial interview

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

2. CONCEPT: Secretary in supervisory capacity

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

3. CONCEPT: Secretary traveling with employer

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

4. CONCEPT: Secretary making and bringing coffee to boss

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

5. CONCEPT: Your child becoming a secretary

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

6. CONCEPT: Secretary asking for assistance

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

7. CONCEPT: Secretary's family obligation

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

8. CONCEPT: Promotion of typist to secretary

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

9. CONCEPT: Stenographer acting as receptionist

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

10. CONCEPT: Personal telephone calls made on the job

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

11. CONCEPT: Relationship between salary & marital status

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

12. CONCEPT: Duties involving manual labor

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

- a. Does this statement include a situation that is relevant to male-female sex roles?
- b. Does the situation include a concept that could elicit sex bias?
- c. Does this statement convey only one major meaning?

13. CONCEPT: Relationship between salary & marital status

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

14. CONCEPT: Appropriate attire for office

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

15. CONCEPT: Telephone etiquette

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

16. CONCEPT: Physical appearance of secretarial candidate

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

17. CONCEPT: Stenographer taking minutes at meeting

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

18. CONCEPT: Responsibilities outside office hours

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

19. CONCEPT: Secretary watering employer's plants

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

20. CONCEPT: Overweight secretary

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

21. CONCEPT: Secretary's use of personal time

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

22. CONCEPT: Responsibilities outside office hours

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

23. CONCEPT: Secretary's attitude when criticized

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

24. CONCEPT: Show of appreciation for secretary

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

- a. Does this statement include a situation that is relevant to male-female sex roles?
- b. Does the situation include a concept that could elicit sex bias?
- c. Does this statement convey only one major meaning?

25. CONCEPT: Secretary involved in office gossip

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

26. CONCEPT: Secretary's family obligation

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yew No Uncertain

27. CONCEPT: Promotion of secretary to sales representative

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

28. CONCEPT: Responsibilities outside office hours

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

29. CONCEPT: Security of secretary

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain
- c. Yes No Uncertain

30. CONCEPT: Smoking in office

- a. Yes No Uncertain
- b. Yes No Uncertain

APPENDIX C
Situational Attitude Scale
for Secretarial Occupations
Form A - Male

APPENDIX D
Situational Attitude Scale
for Secretarial Occupations
Form B - Female

1. Kathie Davis, a secretary with your company, has applied for secretarial pool supervisor, a position that involves supervision of 15 stenographers.

asset	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	problem
improper	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	proper
masculine	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	feminine
surprising	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	not surprising
inappropriate	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	appropriate

2. Your secretary has reminded you of a regional meeting in Dallas on Thursday. She will accompany you to take minutes of the meeting.

expected	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	not expected
not routine	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	routine
comfortable	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	uncomfortable
improper	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	proper
inappropriate	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	appropriate

3. A secretary brings coffee she has just made to her employer.

embarrassing	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	not embarrassing
expected	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	not expected
not peculiar	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	peculiar
appropriate	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	inappropriate
uncomfortable	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	comfortable

4. An interview with Janet Jackson, a secretarial candidate, has just been completed.

good	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	bad
problem	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	asset
feminine	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	masculine
timely	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	untimely
cautious	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	receptive

5. Your daughter wants to become a secretary.

not embarrassing	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	embarrassing
supportive	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	not supportive
inappropriate	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	appropriate
normal	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	oddball
masculine	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	feminine

6. A secretary's electric typewriter has malfunctioned. She asks you for help.

tolerant	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	resentful
inappropriate	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	appropriate
irritating	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	not irritating
reasonable	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	unreasonable
proper	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	silly

7. A secretary's child is ill. She will need several days off to care for the child.

sympathetic	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	indifferent
justifiable	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	not justifiable
acceptable	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	unacceptable
unconcerned	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	concerned
inappropriate	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	appropriate

8. Jane Harper, a typist in your agency, has applied for a promotion to secretary. She can type 90 wpm and take shorthand at 120 wpm.

expected	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	not expected
impressive	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	unimpressive
skeptical	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	assured
competent	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	incompetent
feminine	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	masculine

9. As part of her daily routine, a member of the stenography pool is assigned to greet visitors at the reception desk in the main lobby for two hours each day.

reasonable	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	unreasonable
impressive	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	unimpressive
unacceptable	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	acceptable
distasteful	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	tasteful
embarrassing	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	not embarrassing

10. Numerous personal telephone calls are made by a secretary while she is on the job.

irritating	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	not irritating
masculine	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	feminine
proper	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	improper
not annoying	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	annoying
tolerant	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	intolerant

11. A secretary is unmarried. She earns \$700 per month.

sufficient	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	insufficient
satisfactory	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	unsatisfactory
inadequate	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	adequate
acceptable	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	unacceptable
not surprising	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	surprising

12. A secretary was informed that several pieces of heavy equipment would have to be moved to an adjoining room. She moved the equipment to the storage area.

necessary	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	unnecessary
strong	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	weak
not expected	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	expected
appropriate	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	inappropriate
proper	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	improper

13. A secretary, who is married and the mother of two children, makes \$700 per month.

inadequate	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	adequate
sufficient	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	insufficient
satisfactory	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	unsatisfactory
surprising	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	not surprising
unacceptable	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	acceptable

14. A stenographer wears her jeans to the office quite frequently.

proper	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	improper
distasteful	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	tasteful
irritating	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	not irritating
inappropriate	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	appropriate
tolerable	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	intolerable

15. When you call a business associate, the secretary says, "Mr. Carlson's office, Mary Harris speaking."

not funny	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	funny
surprising	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	not surprising
not routine	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	routine
expected	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	not expected
oddball	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	normal

16. A candidate being interviewed for a secretarial position is pretty and well built.

important	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	unimportant
unnecessary	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	necessary
degrading	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	not degrading
uncomfortable	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	comfortable
interested	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	indifferent

17. A stenographer from the steno pool has been asked to take minutes at a meeting. She will record and distribute these minutes.

routine	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	not routine
improper	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	proper
surprising	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	not surprising
asset	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	problem
reasonable	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	unreasonable

18. Several important documents need to be mailed immediately. The secretary will take them to the post office on her lunch hour.

unusual	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	usual
appropriate	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	inappropriate
not expected	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	expected
proper	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	improper
unnecessary	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	necessary

19. A secretary waters her employer's plants.

proper	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	improper
not degrading	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	degrading
inappropriate	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	appropriate
masculine	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	feminine
routine	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	not routine

20. An overweight secretary tells you she is on a diet to lose 30 pounds.

sympathetic	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	indifferent
tasteful	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	distasteful
not embarrassing	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	embarrassing
proper	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	improper
feminine	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	masculine

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ATTITUDES OF PERSONNEL OFFICIALS CONCERNING
SEX-ROLE DIFFERENTIATION IN SECRETARIAL OCCUPATIONS

by

Linda Bickford Munilla

(ABSTRACT)

The purpose of this study was to examine and compare selected personnel officials' attitudes toward sex-role differentiation in secretarial occupations. Attitudes and differences in attitudes of male and female personnel officials toward male and female secretarial workers in atypical office situations were examined using the Situational Attitude Scale for Secretarial Occupations (SASSO), a semantic differential instrument developed by the researcher. There were two forms of the instrument: Form A referred to male secretarial workers, and Form B referred to female secretarial workers. One-half of male and female respondents completed Form A and one-half completed Form B.

The instrument was administered to six chapters of Region 6 of the American Society for Personnel Administration (ASPA) in Georgia. There were 113 respondents.

A factorial analysis of variance was used to compare the sex-role attitude scores of personnel officials based on the sex of the official and the sex of the secretarial worker described on both forms of the instrument.

The ANOVA revealed that there were no significant differences between the means of the two groups when comparing the attitude scores

on the basis of the personnel officials' sex. Male and female personnel officials gave similar responses on the instrument.

There was, however, a significant difference when comparing the means on the basis of the sex of the workers referred to on the two forms of the instrument. Male personnel officials seemed to have a more positive sex-role attitude than female personnel officials toward both male and female secretarial workers. Therefore, it was concluded that female personnel officials have a more negative sex-role attitude toward both their own sex and the opposite sex in secretarial positions.

A secondary purpose of this study was to determine if there was a relationship between the attitudes of these personnel officials' and the following variables:

1. Location of the selected ASPA chapter (urban or rural/suburban)
2. Age of the personnel official
3. Educational level of the personnel official
4. Self-rating of knowledge of related legislation by the personnel official

Eta correlation coefficients were used to determine these relationships. These variables were not highly related to the sex-role scores since the eta correlation coefficients showed low positive relationships.