

AUTHORITARIANISM AND SEX ROLE STEREOTYPES: INFLUENCE ON THE ASSESSMENT  
AND SELECTION OF JOB APPLICANTS IN AN  
EMPLOYMENT INTERVIEW ANALOGUE STUDY

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## CURRICULUM STUDIORUM

Kathleen A. Simas was born July 2, 1947 in Santa Maria, California. She received the Bachelor of Arts degree in Psychology from the University of Santa Clara, Santa Clara, California in 1970. She obtained the Master of Arts degree in Psychology from the University of Ottawa in 1975. The title of her thesis was Hemispheric Functional Asymmetry and Lateral Differences in Galvanic Skin Response.

## ABSTRACT

The present study was designed to explore the effects of the variables of authoritarianism and sex of subject on the assessment and selection of male and female job applicants using an employment interview analogue situation. It was hypothesized that subjects scoring high on a measure of authoritarianism would differentially rate and select job applicants on the basis of the applicants' sex when all other qualifications were equated. More specifically it was anticipated that high authoritarian subjects of both sexes would rate female applicants as inferior to male applicants on the Evaluative factor of the semantic differential. It was also expected that high authoritarian individuals would select a male applicant as their first choice to hire significantly more frequently than would moderate or low authoritarian subjects.

The subjects in this study were 84 employees of the Federal government, 42 males and 42 females categorized into high, moderate and low authoritarian groups on the basis of their scores on a revised version of the F-Scale. An equal number of males and females comprised each group. All subjects had at least one year of experience in a position related to personnel selection and evaluation. Subjects were exposed to four videotaped segments in which job applicants were seen in interview for an entry level managerial position. Two of the applicants were male, and two were female. The videotaped interviews had been equated on all important variables except sex through preexperimental ratings by 20 subjects who were drawn from the same population as the experimental subjects. The experimental subjects rated each of the job applicants on a semantic differential instrument as well as two

Interpersonal Judgement Scales. Subjects were also asked to rank all four applicants in the order in which they would hire them. Following the experimental session, subjects were administered the Attitudes Toward Women Scale.

The results of the data analysis indicated that high authoritarian subjects evaluated male applicants more positively than female applicants. From an individual analysis of the Evaluative scales, however, it was apparent that this was only the case on purely Evaluative scales such as valuable-worthless and fair-unfair. High authoritarian subjects made no distinction between male and female applicants on Evaluative scales which were also related to ability; thus they rated male and female applicants as equally hardworking, responsible, intelligent, and competent. In line with traditional sex stereotypes, all subjects, regardless of level of authoritarianism, rated male applicants as more Potent than female applicants. Contrary to the results expected on the basis of traditional stereotypes, however, not all subjects rated male applicants as more Active than females. Only high authoritarians made this distinction, and in particular, high authoritarian males rated male applicants as more Active than females. When all of the semantic differential scales loading on the Activity factor in this study were considered, it was observed that high authoritarian females, in spite of having judged female applicants as less valuable than males, did not rate females as less active than male applicants. High authoritarian subjects also selected male applicants as their first choice to hire significantly more frequently than did subjects in the other nonauthoritarian groups.

The results of this investigation suggest the importance of considering attitudinal and personality variables in any attempt to delineate the determinants of sex-linked biases. Moreover, the data suggest that high authoritarian females may be discriminating against females for reasons that are different from high authoritarian males. While high authoritarian males' decisions not to hire females followed directly from their judgements that females were less active, stimulating, and decisive than males, high authoritarian females appeared to reject females even after having judged them as equal to men on these characteristics. It is suggested that these women may not share the stereotypic beliefs concerning the inadequacies of females for managerial positions that their male counterparts hold, but may be erecting barriers to the advancement of women out of a sense of personal threat. It is recommended that the results of this study be further investigated in selection processes at higher managerial levels, in aspects of employee promotion, development, and supervision beyond the selection process, and in other areas besides the employment setting.

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## Chapter I

### Review of the Literature

The practical and theoretical considerations which led to the hypotheses to be tested in this study are the subject of the following chapter. First, the results of investigations into the differential evaluation of the achievements and abilities of men and women will be presented. Second, the relationship of these findings to widely held cultural beliefs in the form of sex role stereotypes will be discussed. The nature and function of stereotypes within the authoritarian personality will then be reviewed with particular attention to stereotypes concerning sex roles. Finally, the formulation of the research problem and hypotheses will be presented.

### Differential Evaluation of Males and Females

The prejudicial devaluation of the abilities and achievements of women is a primary target of the current feminist movement. Recent investigations within the experimental laboratory, as well as in applied settings, lend support to charges of discrimination on the basis of gender, and delineate the conditions under which differential treatment may be expected.

Goldberg (1968) in a frequently quoted study reported that female subjects judged articles attributed to male authors as more valuable than

when the same articles were attributed to female authors. Numerous subsequent studies have attempted to replicate and elaborate Goldberg's findings. Dansker (Note 1) found that female but not male counsellors evaluated articles written by males more favorably than identical articles allegedly written by female authors. Hough and Allen (1975), however, report four unsuccessful attempts to uncover evidence of sex-linked biases leading to devaluation of female achievements. Likewise, Gold (Note 2) found no evidence of anti-female bias in females and a pro-female bias in males. Pheterson, Kiesler and Goldberg (1971) presented female subjects with paintings, varying the sex of the author and the status of the painting as an "entry" or a "winner" of an art contest. Works by males were more highly evaluated than works by females, but only under the "entry" condition. Results of the study suggest that furnishing subjects with specific information regarding the quality of performance will modify or eliminate the effects of prejudicial judgements against females. The implication of such findings, however is that women cannot expect unbiased evaluations until they have distinguished themselves by some obvious mark of success. Additional evidence that women may not devalue women who are regarded as already having achieved success is found in a study by Pheterson (Note 3). Using middle-aged relatively "uneducated" women as subjects, Pheterson found no differences in the evaluation of identical articles presented with the names of male or female authors. Since manuscripts presented as accepted publications probably imply a history of achievement, particularly to subjects who are not trained to be critical in their assessments of such works, the

ambiguity of the stimulus situation is thereby reduced, eliminating the necessity of resorting to preconceptions regarding sex differences in forming judgements of performance.

Although the above studies have typically presented accomplishments of males and females for subjects' evaluation, a number of experiments have employed either filmed or written descriptions of stimulus persons (SP) as targets of judgements, manipulating parameters such as the level of competence portrayed, the degree of aspiration or success orientation expressed and the sex role orientation of the SP. Studies of interpersonal attraction are relatively consistent in reporting a preference for competent versus incompetent male SPs (Helmreich, Aronson, and LeFan, 1970); however, results of studies using female SPs are less clear. Piacente, Penner, Hawkins, and Cohen (1974) exposed subjects to videotapes of demonstrations performed by male and female experimenters, varying the competency level portrayed. While no significant differences were found between the ratings of competent males and females, incompetent females were rated lower than incompetent males. Furthermore, competent female experimenters were judged less feminine than their incompetent female counterparts. It would thus appear that women engage in competent behavior at the risk of appearing less feminine. Contradictory results are presented by Deaux and Taynor (1973) who found that subjects rated high competent male applicants seen in videotaped interviews for a study abroad scholarship program as more competent and more intelligent than high competent female applicants; on the other hand, low competent males were rated less favorably than low competent females. Suggestive, but not conclusive evidence indicated that the observed effect was more pronounced in male than female subjects.

Seeking to clarify the role of competency in judgements of females Shaffer and Wegley (1974) varied the aspiration level of competent female stimulus persons. Although Deaux (1972) found that a capable female was preferred to an incapable female when both expressed traditional feminine interests and goals, Shaffer and Wegley hypothesized that this effect might not be generalizable to females exhibiting a strong success-orientation in traditionally male areas. As hypothesized, subjects rated a competent but non-success-oriented female to be more attractive as a social and work partner than a competent, success-oriented female. Nevertheless, the competent success-oriented female SP was judged more attractive as an employee.

While somewhat confusing, the results of studies investigating judgements of attractiveness of competent females, either in comparison to incompetent females or to competent and incompetent males, are not entirely inconsistent. Given that subjects in each experiment are provided with a particular set of circumstances within which judgements are to be made (e.g. assessment of the performance of experimenters versus selection of an applicant for a scholarship award or job position), it is not implausible that attractiveness ratings include consideration of these factors. Thus, although subjects may find no significant difference between the performances of competent male and female experimenters (Piacente et al., 1974), preference for a male over a female applicant when a limited selection is to be made may reflect subjects' conclusions that males are more likely to be devoted to career advancement and to be free to pursue their work unhampered by conflicting responsibilities for home and children. Likewise, when choosing a social or

work partner, subjects may prefer a capable female expressing sex-role consistent interests (feminine) and a low level of aspiration to either an incapable female or one expressing masculine interests and/or a high level of aspiration. However, instructions to select a candidate on the basis of her attractiveness to an employer may result in the choice of a sex-role-inconsistent (masculine), success-oriented female.

Support for this interpretation is derived from a study by Garske (1975) which examined the significance of situationally specific stimuli as determinants of attributions made about males and females. Garske argues that since attributions about personality characteristics are usually made in contexts where other supplemental information is supplied, the judgements made about stimulus persons should vary accordingly. Examining subjects' perceptions of a male and a female under three stimulus conditions, Garske found that although the stimulus of "adult male" and "adult female" elicited traditional and highly stereotypic attributions, the labels "male undergraduate" and "female undergraduate" resulted in almost identical descriptions. On the other hand, instructions to subjects to describe a "male graduate student" and a "female graduate student" led to attributions of more masculine characteristics to the female than to the male person! Garske concludes that, given a stimulus situation in which the roles of males and females are highly similar in terms of goals and lifestyles (i.e. undergraduates), the influence of differential beliefs about the sexes will be mitigated. On the other hand, information regarding the stimulus person's non-normative role behavior (i.e. a female graduate student) is sufficiently salient to reverse the attributions usually associated with adult gender categories.

In summary, it would appear that the differential perception and evaluation of males and females is modified by both the ambiguity of the context in which the judgement task is presented, and the situationally specific stimuli which shape the subjects' understanding of the decisions to be made.

In addition to external situational variables, it is probable that a variety of subject characteristics also influence judgements of males and females. In particular, the subject's underlying postulate structure in the form of attitudes may be important in guiding the inferential process upon which premises and deductions about perceptual stimuli are based (Sarbin, Taft, and Bailey, 1960). Attitudes are thus an integral part of the judgement process determining not only which stimuli will be attended to, but also how their significance is evaluated and interpreted.

Spence and Helmreich (1972b) explored the relationship of subjects' attitudes toward women as measured by the Attitudes Toward Women Scale (AWS) to judgements of female job applicants, varying the competency and sex-role orientation of applicants. In general, both male and female subjects preferred the competent female applicant expressing masculine interests (mathematics, science, sports). Interestingly, however, when subjects were categorized according to AWS scores, moderate and liberal males were seen to exhibit an almost equal preference for both the Masculine-Competent and the Feminine-Competent applicants. On the other hand traditional males devalued the

Feminine-Competent applicant, judging her as less likeable than the Feminine-Incompetent. In contrast, liberal males exhibited greater tolerance for the Masculine-Incompetent SP, preferring the Feminine-Incompetent least of all. Similar but nonsignificant effects were observed for female subjects with the exception of somewhat lower work likeability for the Feminine-Competent applicant. Spence and Helmreich suggest that their findings may be indicative of a pro-masculine bias on the part of liberal subjects who exhibit a marked preference for women expressing a masculine sex-role orientation. Thus, in the opinion of liberal subjects it is better to have adopted a masculine sex role orientation in spite of doing so inadequately, than to be both feminine in sex role orientation and incompetent. On the other hand, traditional subjects found it more unacceptable to have attempted the male role and failed than to have opted for a traditional feminine role and to be incompetent. Possibly the combination of femininity and incompetence is more consistent with this group's conservative views of women and hence more readily accepted.

The results of the laboratory studies discussed above, while employing college subjects in somewhat artificial situations, nevertheless indicate the serious limitations which may be placed upon the recognition and development of the talents and potential of women. One area in which this issue may be particularly salient is that of employment where overt and covert discrimination on the part of employers and supervisors may systematically exclude women from holding more responsible positions. While the women's liberation movement may have succeeded in modifying surface opinions by making

it unfashionable to openly express anti-female bias, one experiment in which subjects were motivated to report attitudes honestly by being led to believe that the experimenter had access to private attitudes through monitoring of physiological responses indicated that stereotypic notions regarding the sex-appropriateness of certain occupations persist (Hough and Allen, 1975).

A number of studies carried out with employers in applied work settings have examined the issue of differential treatment of males and females with respect to hiring decisions as well as questions of promotion, development, and supervision. Using resumés of hypothetical job applicants, preference for male over female candidates with equal qualifications has been found with respect to positions in academic departments of psychology (Fidell, 1970), school administration (Fleming, Note 4; Jones, Note 5), and within organizations at the managerial level (Dipboye, Fromkin, & Wilback, 1975; Rosen & Jerdee, 1974a, 1974b).

Fidell found that chairmen of psychology departments were willing to offer candidates presented in resumés a modal position of associate professor when the resumé was that of a male but a modal position of assistant professor when the candidate was presented as a female. Jones presented resumés of male and female counsellors to school administrators. It was observed that although no differences existed between male and female applicants in ratings of experience, education, emotional maturity, ability to get along with others, ability to organize and plan, or counselling skills, the final choice of which candidate to hire was more frequently a male. Moreover, those subjects choosing

a male candidate indicated an awareness that sex had been an influential factor in their choice. Fleming reports similar results with the additional finding that younger administrators, ages 25-39, exhibited significantly greater sex bias than older administrators.

Since the present research is primarily interested in the differential evaluation of males and females within the organizational setting, at the managerial level, several studies are of particular interest. Dipboye, Fromkin, and Wilback (1975) found that both college students and professional interviewers preferred male to female applicants presented in résumés as candidates for a managerial position. Terborg and Ilgen (1975) using an In-Basket task in which the sex of hypothetical characters was varied, found that although subjects expressed willingness to hire both a male and a female applicant, the starting salary suggested for the female applicant was considerably lower than that offered the male applicant. Moreover, the authors also found evidence of differential treatment of females once they were within the organization: tasks assigned to females were more often routine than challenging, and raises given male employees were more substantial than those to female employees. Similar findings of discrimination with regards to promotion, development, and supervision of females are offered by Rosen and Jerdee (1974a).

Rosen and Jerdee (1974b) observed that female applicants presented in resumé were selected for managerial positions significantly less often than were male applicants. Furthermore, when job requirements were varied in terms of the degree of importance of aggressive interpersonal behavior and

decisive managerial action, an even stronger tendency to reject females emerged. Rosen and Jerdee conclude that discriminatory behavior toward women appears to be based on a set of attitudes which depict women as lacking in the necessary qualities of toughness, stability, creativity, and judgement required in high-level managerial positions.

While considerable research has been directed towards the role of situational cues and stimulus person characteristics in the differential evaluation of males and females, relatively little attention has been given to sex role stereotypes as important attitudinal variables mediating subjects' judgements. Indications that devaluation of females is most likely to occur in relatively ambiguous contexts and where the situation defined is a traditionally masculine one, suggest that in these circumstances subjects may be relying upon pre-conceived notions regarding sex-linked characteristics. In support of this speculation, Terborg and Ilgen (1975) found that scores on a measure of stereotypic attitudes towards women as managers were related to subjects' initial decisions regarding the hireability of female applicants, but not to assessments made after they had had an opportunity for extensive contact with the female employee.

Stereotypes about the nature of sex differences tend to be closely related to sex role standards, that is, normative expectations about how the sexes ought to differ, (Ellis & Bentler, 1973; Kagan, 1964). Sex role stereotypes thus become normative criteria which individuals use to guide and evaluate their own behavior and that of others. It is with this in mind that the literature pertaining to the nature, development and implications of sex role stereotypes is discussed.

## Sex Role Stereotypes

The existence of general consensual beliefs about the differing characteristics of men and women is well documented (Beuf, 1974; Lunneborg, 1970; Mischel, 1970; Seward, 1946; Sherriffs & Jarrett, 1953). To a certain extent stereotypes concerning sex differences are widely held by both sexes (Jenkin & Vroegh, 1969) and transcend divisions of socioeconomic background, religion, marital status, and educational level (Broverman, Vogel, Broverman, Clarkson & Rosenkrantz, 1972). Moreover, these beliefs appear to be resistant to modification (Fernberger, 1948) and despite the apparent flux in contemporary sex role definitions, have remained virtually unchanged over the past two decades (Neufeld, Langmeyer & Seeman, 1974; Schultz, Note 6).

The characteristics encompassed by sex role stereotypes include differences in physical attributes, overt behaviors, and covert processes in the form of feelings, attitudes, motives and wishes (Kagan, 1964). Thus men are regarded as independent, objective, active, competitive, logical, skilled in business, worldly, adventurous, able to make decisions easily, self-confident, ambitious, and generally competent, while women are stereotypically viewed as gentle, sensitive to the feelings of others, tactful, religious, neat, quiet, interested in art and literature, and able to express tender feelings (Broverman et al., 1972; Sherriffs & McKee, 1957).

While one line of investigation has served to establish the existence, breadth, and content of sex role stereotypes, a number of studies present

evidence of differential values attached to the characteristics and behaviors ascribed to males and females (Lynn, 1959; Samara, Note 7). Thus a systematic preference for masculine over feminine characteristics has been found in ratings of the social desirability of a number of sex-typed attributes (Rosenkrantz, Vogel, Broverman & Broverman, 1968). McKee and Sherriffs (1957) indicate that this partiality may be more pronounced in women than in men, and is expressed as both an over-valuation of males (MacBrayer, 1960) and a derogation of female-linked behaviors (McKee & Sherriffs, 1957). Moreover, the values attached to stereotypic beliefs regarding sex differences pervade the self-descriptions of men and women to the extent that, while men emphasize desirable male characteristics, women emphasize female neuroticism. Popular preferences for a male over a female child have also been noted. Sears, Maccoby and Levin (1957) found a tendency for mothers to be happier about a pregnancy if they already had only daughters, less happy if they had only boys, and least happy if they had one of each. Similarly, Dinitz, Dynes and Clarke (1954) in a poll of several hundred university students found that when presented with the possibility of having only one child, 91% of the males and 66% of the females preferred a male child. Investigators also report that when the first child is a boy, the interval before a second child is conceived is three months longer than if the first child is a girl (Pohlman, 1969).

The profound influence of environmental factors upon sex role stereotypes is evidenced in cross-cultural investigations which report considerable

variation in differential socialization practices and role expectations for males and females (Arkoff, Meredith & Dong, 1963; Barry, Bacon & Child, 1957; Block, 1973; Mead, 1949). Seward and Larson (1968) indicate cultural differences in sex role concepts among adolescents within three industrialized western nations and Hartley (1959-1960) notes changes in American notions regarding sex roles following World War II. The transmission of cultural expectancies regarding sex-appropriate behavior is achieved through a number of socialization agents. In particular, the family provides an interpretation of socially defined sex roles which is conveyed from birth by means of a myriad of sex-typing techniques. Different modes of touching and handling male and female children, limitations upon available toys, verbal labels regarding what is appropriate for each sex, perceptual similarity to the like-sex parent and reinforcement of particular behaviors provide continuous cues as to expectancies related to sex role.

The key function of the same-sex parent in mediating sex role development has been elaborated by a number of authors (Kagan & Lemkin, 1960; Kagan, 1964; Sears, Rau & Alpert, 1965). Imitation of the same-sex parent has been found to be more pronounced in girls than in boys (Hartrup, 1962; Ward, 1973). Lynn (1959) attributes this tendency to the fact that while mothers provide a personal and individual model for female children, boys are oriented towards a more general cultural definition of masculinity. A somewhat divergent view of sex role development emphasizes the role of the father as the parent most responsible for sex role differentiation (Heilbrun, 1965). By engaging in instrumental exchanges with sons and expressive

interactions with daughters, the father is able to elicit and reinforce sex-appropriate behavior.

The perception of differences in parental attributes has been found as early as the age of three and is consistent throughout childhood and adolescence (Hartley, 1961; Kagan & Lemkin, 1960). Mothers are seen as more nurturant than fathers who are perceived as more punitive, more competent and as a more frequent source of power and fear. Moreover, children assimilate not only the content of sex role stereotypes, but the evaluative labels attached to them as well. The gradual adoption of prevailing social norms and values concerning masculine and feminine characteristics has been traced by Smith (1939) who reports that, in children age eight to fifteen (1) boys have a progressively better opinion of themselves while girls have a progressively poorer self-evaluation; and (2) boys have a progressively poorer opinion of girls while girls have an increasingly favorable opinion of boys. Furthermore, five to twelve times as many women as men recall having wished they were of the opposite sex (Gallup, 1955; Terman, 1938). While boys of all ages exhibit a marked preference for the masculine role, a similarly strong preference for the feminine role has not been found in girls. Brown (1958) reports that girls in grades 1-4 expressed a preference for the masculine role, a finding corroborated by other investigators (Lynn, 1959; Ward, 1973).

Not surprisingly, the greater social desirability of masculine traits complicates female sex role development and achievement of self esteem.

While the choice of role model is relatively simple for boys, girls are faced with the dilemma of identifying with the parent whom they perceive as the least competent. The detrimental effects of this process are evident in the finding that masculinity is associated with better adjustment in both males and females (Heilbrun, 1968) while poorer adjustment is associated with femininity (Heilbrun & Fromme, 1965). Connell and Johnson (1970) found that adolescent girls with low sex role identification (masculine) were equal in self-esteem to girls with high sex role identification (feminine) while in males only high sex role identification and high self-esteem were associated.

While parental attitudes and behaviors are probably the most critical factor in the learning of sex role behavior and the transmission of sex role stereotypes, other social agents including peers, teachers, and the communications media exert an increasingly stronger influence as the child reaches school age (Frueh & McGhee, 1975; Jennings, 1975; Levitan & Chananie, 1972; Saario, Jacklin & Little, 1973). Pressure to avoid sex-inappropriate behavior increases with age (Hartrup, Moore & Sager, 1963) and, in late elementary school, results in the emergence of sex differences in performance not evident at earlier stages (Stein & Smithells, 1969). Hence it would appear that, in areas such as achievement motivation, the assimilation of sex role standards precedes and encourages sex differences.

Despite the extensive learning of sex role standards and stereotypes in childhood, evidence indicates that, for most individuals, these distillations of cultural beliefs are neither ideal nor strictly normative.

Elman, Press and Rosenkrantz (1970) report that men's and women's ratings of their ideal male and female are more androgenous than their respective stereotypes. Likewise, Sherriffs and McKee (1957) found that subject's ratings of their real selves were less polarized than their ratings of sex role stereotypes. Although earlier investigations found women's self-ratings to incorporate more stereotypically feminine attributes than did men's self-ratings (McKee & Sherriffs, 1959), recent evidence indicates that women perceive themselves as maintaining a balance between a traditional feminine orientation and a more active search for fulfillment (Steinmann & Fox, 1966). Furthermore, women have been observed to choose more typically masculine attributes when rating their concept of the ideal female while men do not indicate a parallel desire for feminine characteristics when rating their ideal male. In view of the positive evaluation placed upon masculine traits in our culture, this trend is not surprising.

Related to the attributions which individuals make about themselves and about the ideal male and female are their conceptions or misconceptions regarding the beliefs of the opposite sex. Since individuals behave not only in terms of their own views of themselves, but also in terms of their judgements about what others think of them, this area holds important implications for the perpetuation or elimination of current sex role stereotypes. Kaplan and Goldman (1973) found that women attributed more extreme stereotypes concerning sex differences to both sexes than did men. While

women see themselves as incorporating both passive and active qualities, they believe that most men maintain a restrictive ideal for women which allows little in the way of self-assertiveness or achievement orientation (Steinmann & Fox, 1966). Empirical findings indicate, however, that while men do, in fact, reject certain characteristics of activity and personal dynamism as undesirable for women, their concept of the ideal women is by no means as traditional as that attributed to them by women. Similar misconceptions exist among men concerning the male ideal held by women. Steinmann, Fox and Farkas (1968) report that the men in their study thought that women would prefer them to be less active and more family-oriented when in fact women's ideal male was more active and assertive than the men had judged it to be. The full implication of the erroneous assumptions made by both sexes concerning the opinion of the opposite sex is uncertain. However, Elman et al. (1970) suggest that individuals are neither content with sex roles as they now exist nor with their relative position with respect to their own sex role. A shift toward more flexible sex-typing is thus apparent; however there is as yet little evidence to suggest that new formulations regarding sex roles are being openly discussed between men and women. Hence, without the consensual validation of significant others, the individual who perceives himself as possessing or wishing to possess qualities traditionally associated with the opposite sex, is left in a state of conflict. Furthermore, the continuing belief, particularly on the part of women, that men desire qualities of subservience and passivity which are, in reality, objectionable to both men and women, results in the persistence of behavior which may be both frustrating and dysfunctional.

While a number of authors have recently decried the contemporary shifts in traditional sex role patterns (Brown, 1971; Goldberg, 1973), increasing attention has been paid to the possible negative consequences of narrow sex role definitions for individual development. Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) note that social pressures to reinforce cultural sex role stereotypes sometimes result in rigid behavior which is unsuited to a wide variety of situations. A man, for example, who adopts an exaggerated masculine orientation may attain peer group prestige and may be effective in certain tasks which require active, aggressive behavior; however this may be at the expense of qualities necessary in a good father or husband. Other writers have examined the detrimental effects of sex role stereotypes on personality development (Stevens, 1971), achievement motivation (Berens, 1973; Horner, 1972; Stein & Smithells, 1969) creativity (Barron, 1957; Torrance, 1959), attitudes toward problem solving (Carey, 1958) and marital harmony (Komarovsky, 1950, 1967).

Restrictions upon personal growth may also be imposed by counsellors and mental health professionals who base their judgements of female clients upon traditional stereotypes (Brogan, 1972). Thomas and Stewart (1971) presented counsellors with audiotapes of female clients espousing traditional or nontraditional vocational goals. Traditionally feminine vocational goals were judged as more appropriate by inexperienced, but not by experienced counsellors. Furthermore, female counsellors judged clients holding deviate goals as more in need of counselling than traditionally-oriented clients. Broverman, Broverman, Clarkson, Rosenkrantz and Vogel (1970) provide

evidence that clinicians hold differing standards of mental health for males and females. The male standard, identical to the standard for a healthy adult, includes qualities of independence, assertion, and objectivity. The healthy female, on the other hand, is regarded as more submissive, less independent, less adventurous, more easily influenced, less aggressive, less competitive, more excitable in minor crises, and as having her feelings more easily hurt.

Considering the narrow boundaries of acceptable characteristics and behavior proscribed by sex role stereotypes, it is not surprising that women are only minimally represented in certain occupational categories. Prather (1971) contends that the barriers preventing women from entering the top echelons of business and the professions are embedded in sociopsychological conceptions of women and of the nature of work. Thus women are seen as lacking in certain necessary qualities of assertiveness and competence. At the same time, the world of work is defined in masculine terms, ignoring many of the services women perform continually, and devaluing those occupational categories in which women are in the majority (Touhey, 1974). Occupational roles as portrayed in the media reinforce the belief that work is a masculine prerogative (DeFleur, 1964).

Schein (1973) reports that the characteristics and attitudes attributed to successful middle managers are more commonly ascribed to men than to women. Bowman, Worthy and Greyser (1965) in a survey of successful executives of both sexes found that 41% of male executives view the idea of women in managerial positions with disfavor and 6% are strongly opposed to

the idea. Moreover, 90% of the male respondents and 51% of the female respondents viewed women as temperamentally unfit for employment at this level. Only 27% of the males admitted that they would feel comfortable working for a woman supervisor and 6% felt that men in general would accept this arrangement. Equally unfavorable attitudes towards women in professional and managerial positions have been reported by other authors (Bass, Krusell, & Alexander, 1971; Gilmer, 1961; Kaley, 1971).

The resistance of these attitudes to change is evident in the fact that similar responses emerged several years later in a study by Orth and Jacobs (1971). The authors conclude that the opinions of the executives polled reflect feelings about a woman's place in society and skepticism about the performance of women as managers. In particular, respondents verbalized the belief that women will marry and leave their positions, that they will resign when they begin to raise children, that they are uncomfortable in a man's world and that men are uncomfortable when they intrude upon it, that they are not dependable, are too emotional to deal with crises and that they are not transferrable when their husbands have equal or better jobs. The stereotypic nature of these beliefs is apparent when it is realized that they reflect outmoded behavioral norms and role expectations which are not consonant with the facts concerning females presently in the working force (i.e. that many women continue to work after marriage, particularly the college-educated, career-oriented woman who aspires to a managerial position, that the average woman has thirty productive years after her youngest child begins primary school, and that many women work out of economic necessity and/or are single heads of households.

The existence of these negative attitudes towards women in business and professional occupations is particularly disturbing in view of the fact that they result in a self-fulfilling prophecy. Hawley (1971; 1972) has pointed out that what women believe men think is appropriate female behavior may be an important determinant of their career choice. If the attitudes expressed above are communicated to women and if women do, in fact choose occupational pursuits in view of what men think, then it may be expected that women will continue to be underrepresented in certain fields.

Having established the existence of sex role stereotypes, their differential valuation by both males and females, and their consequences, particularly in terms of discrediting or disqualifying women for certain positions, there remains the question of the type of person who adopts and acts in accordance with these stereotypes. Several demographic variables have been studied in relationship to sex role stereotypes. Traditional concepts of sex roles are more often characteristic of individuals from lower socioeconomic backgrounds than those from middle or upper middle class families (Hartley, 1964; Jennings, 1975; Minuchin, 1965; Rabban, 1950). Mother's employment history has also been related to individual's beliefs about sex roles (Baruch, 1972; Hartley, 1959; Graham, 1970; Vogel, Broverman, Broverman, Clarkson & Rosenkrantz, 1970). Vogel et al. (1970) suggest that both women and men whose mothers were employed perceive smaller differences between masculine and feminine roles than do those with homemaker mothers. Furthermore, women's perceptions of sex role appear to be

more strongly influenced by mother's employment than are men's. Thus daughters of working mothers perceive women as more competent than do daughters of homemaker mothers and both daughters and sons of working mothers perceive men as more expressive and warm than do children of homemaker mothers. Siegal and Haas (1963) indicate that maternal employment is related to more egalitarian marital relationships and Blood and Hamblin (1958) found that husbands of working women participate to a greater extent in domestic tasks. Likewise, Hartley (1959-1960) found that sons of working mothers assigned domestic tasks to men more frequently than boys of non-working mothers. While the causal relationships among these findings are unclear (i.e. do women with less rigid sex role stereotypes to begin with more often choose to work, or does maternal employment necessitate less traditional sex role differentiation in the home), there appears to be consensus that variations in parental attitudes and behaviors are critical antecedents to children's understanding of sex roles and sex role stereotypes.

Several studies have attempted to delineate a profile of the individual who is most likely to adhere rigidly to sex role stereotypes and sex role standards. Ellis and Bentler (1973) found that in females, opposition to traditional sex role standards was related to intelligence, masculinity/femininity, liberalism, "extralegality", nonreligiousness, and disinterest in status-seeking. Samara (Note 7) concluded that teachers holding rigid sex role stereotypes were likely to be under 35 years of age, conservative in political attitude, from lower socioeconomic families and to have fathers who were unskilled, semiskilled, and professional. No relationship was

found between adherence to sex role stereotypes and marital status, number of children, race, mother's occupation, or religious preference. In contrast to these findings, Katelman and Barnett (1968) observed that among married women, traditionally-oriented females were less likely to be employed, were more often Catholic, 44 years of age or under, and had husbands who had completed at least high school. Nontraditionally oriented females, on the other hand, were more likely to be employed, to be Protestant, and to be 44 years of age or over.

The importance of family structure and parental models in the transmission of sex role stereotypes has been emphasized repeatedly. A highly traditional family ideology and stereotyped mode of perception are both characteristic of the syndrome labelled as authoritarianism by Adorno, Frenkel-Brunswick, Levinson and Sanford (1950). It is a major hypothesis of this study that the authoritarian personality may be particularly disposed to reliance upon sex role stereotypes and subsequently to the devaluation of women.

#### Sex Role Stereotypes in the Authoritarian Personality:

Authoritarianism as a personality dimension encompasses a complex of characteristics and attitudes which are believed to covary in certain individuals. These include a rigid adherence to middle class values (conventionalism), a submissive, uncritical attitude towards authority figures, a tendency to condemn individuals who violate conventional values, a preoccupation with issues of dominance and power, a generalized hostility

and destructiveness, a propensity towards the projection of unacceptable aspects of oneself, an exaggerated concern with sexual matters and a tendency toward rigidity and stereotypy (Brown, 1965). Since the construct of authoritarianism first received extensive study by Adorno, Frenkel-Brunswick, Levinson and Sanford (1950) hundreds of studies have investigated various aspects of the personality and cognitive functioning of the authoritarian character. Empirical evidence supports the hypotheses that the authoritarian individual is less tolerant of ambiguity (Kidd & Kidd, 1972; Millon, 1957; Zacker, 1973), tends to develop normative judgements in perceptual tasks more rapidly (Harvey, 1963; Millon, 1957), is less tolerant of trait inconsistency (Steiner, 1954; Steiner & Johnson, 1963), is more conforming (Vaughan & White, 1966; Silvan, Note 8), more concerned with status-seeking (Liberty, 1964), is ethnocentric (Berg, 1966; Frankel & Barrett, 1971; Hites & Kellog, 1964) and generally intolerant of deviant groups (Gray, Moody, Sellars & Ward, 1969; Moody, 1971; Rabkin, 1972; Smith, 1971). On the other hand, little support has been gained for the hypothesis that authoritarians are less socially perceptive in general (Crockett & Meidinger, 1956; Schulberg, 1961; Scodel & Friedman, 1956; Simons, 1966).

The stereotypy of the authoritarian individual may be regarded as the product of both personality and cognitive style. Brown indicates that intolerance of emotional ambiguity engendered by the harsh discipline of parents concerned with conventional appearances and social status, generalizes to an intolerance of perceptual and cognitive ambiguity. The need for

certainty prompts the authoritarian individual to form discrete black-and white categories; the inability to acknowledge undesirable aspects in himself results in the projection of these characteristics on to minority and deviant groups. Adorno et al. cite the tendency for the authoritarian to overgeneralize single traits, to apply a negative stereotype to groups as a whole, and to attribute characteristics which are basically contradictory since no individual could possess them all. Byron (Note 9), in administering the Kelly Role Construct Repertory Test to subjects categorized on the authoritarian dimension found that high authoritarians exhibited greater simplicity in differentiating conceptions of other persons. Moreover, their conceptions were more often judgemental than descriptive.

According to Frenkel-Brunswik (1954), the tendency toward rigid, exaggerated sex role stereotypes in authoritarian individuals is part of the more general tendency toward stereotypy and conventionality which has its origins in a particular family environment. Within the authoritarian home, emphasis is placed upon harsh discipline, clearly defined roles of dominance and submission, early suppression of unacceptable impulses, a concern for the social acceptability of values, the primacy of duty and obligations and the dichotomous conception of sex roles (Byrne, 1965). Quantitative investigations of this family orientation have been along two lines: studies of the self-reported attitudes of high authoritarian individuals toward family and child-rearing, and studies measuring descriptions of parents by individuals who have been found to be authoritarian.

Kates and Diab (1955) report that subjects with authoritarian beliefs emphasize the dependency and restriction of children. Block (1955) found that authoritarianism correlated positively with restrictive rather than permissive child-rearing techniques. Likewise Hart (1957) indicated a relationship between the use of non-love-oriented disciplinary techniques and mothers' authoritarianism. Similar relationships are reported by Thomas (1975). Levin and Spates (1968) indicate that authoritarianism is associated both with a traditional family ideology and a generally closed social milieu. These limit the individual to reliance on a small reference group to define normative family behavior.

In an examination of the relationship between rigid sex role stereotyping, family ideologies and the broader authoritarian-egalitarian continuum of personality, Levinson and Huffman (1955) constructed a forty-item Traditional Family Ideology Scale (TFI) measuring five aspects of the authoritarian personality syndrome: conventionalism, authoritarian submission, exaggerated masculinity and femininity, extreme emphasis on discipline and moralistic rejection of impulse life as they relate to parent-child, husband-wife, and general male-female relationships. With regard to the rigid dichotomization of male and female sex roles, the authors state:

"Masculinity" and "femininity" are conceived of as opposites, with no overlapping traits. These dichotomous conceptions have the function of maintaining male dominance and female subservience. The "real" man is master in the home, a good provider, and firm disciplinarian, one who tolerates no weakness in himself or others. His predominant personal traits are ruggedness, determination, assertiveness, and will power.

The corresponding feminine ideal is that of the "sweet", submissive, morally controlled woman who knows and keeps her place "in the home". An essential part of femininity, according to this conception, is the relative absence of aggressiveness, achievement aspiration, and sensuality. (p. 255).

Scores on the TFI were found to correlate both with scores on the Ethnocentrism Scale (-.65) and with the F-Scale of authoritarianism. The authors conclude that ideological orientations regarding family structure represent a specific instance of a broader authoritarian outlook.

As further support of the relationship between authoritarianism and attitudes towards the family, Ramirez (1967) found that Mexican-Americans whose culture emphasizes strict child-rearing and a sharp separation of sex roles scored higher on both the F-Scale and the TFI than did Anglo-Americans. Johnson, Johnson and Martin (1961) had subjects rate children's behaviors in terms of their appropriateness for one sex or for both. Authoritarian subjects from entrepreneurial occupational backgrounds assigned significantly more behaviors to one sex or the other, while non-authoritarians and authoritarians from bureaucratic occupational backgrounds rated more behaviors as neutral.

Similarly, Slotnick and Bleiberg (1974) administered an Occupational Sex-Typing Scale to male college students. High authoritarians rated significantly more occupations as appropriate to only one sex, delegating inferior job positions to females while reserving decision-making jobs for males. The authors conclude that this rigid occupational sex-typing reflects the authoritarian male's concern with his own prestige and success in the social hierarchy.

Authoritarian individuals describe their parents in a manner which supports the attitudes which the parents themselves express. Koutrelakos (1968) indicates that authoritarian subjects perceive their fathers as

having been authoritarian and as being closer to their concept of an ideal man than did non-authoritarians. Phares (1960) and Lyle and Levitt (1955) report similar findings. High authoritarianism has also been positively related to imitation of the same sex parent by both boys and girls (McDavid, 1959) and to mother-imitation and femininity in girls (Hartrup, 1962).

Wilkinson (1972) has hypothesized that the effects of authoritarian families may be different for male and female children. Authoritarian fathers reward displays of assertiveness and strength in their sons, encouraging them to glorify and strive for masculinity. Daughters, on the other hand may be required to display femininity in the form of submissiveness. Hence their sex-role proscription demands weakness and subservience, behaviors which are particularly demeaning to the authoritarian. The result is a double bind in which daughters simultaneously engage in feminine behavior in an exaggerated form, and seek to deny and escape their femininity.

This description of the developing authoritarian female parallels that by Loevinger (1962). In an extensive study of female personality patterns and child-rearing attitudes Loevinger depicts the authoritarian woman as rigidly conventional in her concept of women's social role, and at the same time rejecting her biological and homemaking roles. Given this negative self-image, it may be expected that both authoritarian females and males will exhibit a positive masculine bias and a corresponding negative view of women.

Evidence for the hypothesis that authoritarian females may be biased against females comes from a study by Fry (1975). High authoritarian women given a problem-solving task more often chose male-endorsed than female-endorsed solutions leading the author to conclude that these women devalue female competence as a result of their traditional masculine authority orientation. The existence of anti-female bias among successful career women has also been noted. Staines, Tavris, and Jayaratne (1974) describe the "Queen Bee" syndrome, typified by the countermilitant woman who has succeeded in combining a career and family and who takes the attitude that no barriers exist to women in the working world except those they erect themselves. The queen bee prides herself in her success which she attributes to her superiority and talent. In fact she is often the "token-female", patronized by her employer who pushes her up the executive ladder in return for her renunciation of any feminist leanings. The queen bee is likely to be even more traditional in her views of women's role than other women, endorsing ideals of subservience to her husband and attitudes which are clearly contradictory to her own professional ambitions.

As might be expected, several studies have found a relationship between authoritarianism and measures of feminist attitudes and behaviors. Centers (1963) found a positive correlation between authoritarianism and traditional attitudes towards women among both male and female subjects. Worell and Worell (1971) found that college females holding supportive views of the women's liberation movement were less conforming, more flexible, more internally-controlled and less authoritarian than females with nonsupportive views.

Finally, Pawlicki and Almquist (1973) in a study of members of activist women's groups found that members obtained lower F-scores, were more internally controlled and were more tolerant of ambiguity than were non-members. Moreover, the relationship between authoritarianism and membership in a women's group was obtained even when demographic factors such as age, education, income and political views were held constant.

In summary, it would appear that the authoritarian family structure with its emphasis upon the hierarchical relationship of husband-wife and parent-child, and its rigidly dichotomous conception of sex roles would be particularly conducive to the development of individuals who hold stereotypic beliefs concerning the nature of appropriate behavior for men and women. This may be expected to hold for both male and female authoritarians. Furthermore, the sex role stereotypes of these individuals may constitute normative criteria which influence their perception and evaluations of both themselves and of other people.

### Conclusion

A review of research findings to date suggests that, while sex-linked biases exist, it is difficult to specify the situational and stimulus person variables other than sex with which such judgements are likely to be associated. It would appear that differential evaluations are most likely to occur in relatively ambiguous situations in which the individual making the judgement has no recourse to external labels of achievement or competence, and where the situation defined is a traditionally masculine one.

The employment setting in which selection decisions are usually made on the basis of résumé and interview information exemplifies both a relatively ambiguous and a traditionally masculine situation.

Stereotyped beliefs regarding sex role differences may be expected to be particularly salient within this context. The existence of these wide spread, culturally-accepted beliefs concerning male and female role differences and the evaluative judgements attached to them is well established. In the employment setting, particularly in business and professional areas, these beliefs support the judgement that women are temperamentally unfit for leadership positions. While several studies have successfully related subjects' attitudes toward women to subsequent judgements of female stimulus persons, no attempt has been made to relate these judgements to the broader personality dimension of authoritarianism.

The development of stereotypic beliefs concerning sex roles has been traced to the early influence of parents, school, and media. The socialization process within the authoritarian family is particularly conducive to the adoption of stereotypic notions regarding the characteristics and roles of males and females. Both authoritarian men and women may be disposed to the over-evaluation of males and the devaluation of females.

### The Problem

The present study attempts to investigate the effects of the subject characteristics of authoritarianism and sex upon the evaluation and selection of male and female job applicants within an employment setting.

It was expected that both male and female subjects scoring high on a measure of authoritarianism would, in view of their adherence to rigid sex role stereotypes and the evaluative labels attached to these, rate male job applicants seen in videotaped interviews significantly more positively on the Evaluative factors of the semantic differential than female applicants with equivalent qualifications. Moderate and low authoritarian subjects were not expected to differ in their evaluative ratings of male and female job applicants. Moreover, in view of the emulation of masculine characteristics and derogation of female characteristics attributed to authoritarian individuals, it was anticipated that high authoritarian subjects would evaluate males significantly more positively and female significantly more negatively than would moderate and low authoritarians. In addition, it was predicted that all subjects, regardless of their scores on the authoritarianism scale would rate male job applicants as significantly more potent and more active than female job applicants on the Potency and Activity factors of the semantic differential. Finally, in making a selection decision, it was anticipated that high authoritarian subjects would rank a male applicant as their first choice significantly more often than a female applicant. No specific prediction was made with regard to the sex of the subject. However, since findings in this area are as yet contradictory with regard to effects of this variable, it was included as a potentially important parameter.

#### Research Hypotheses

1. High authoritarian subjects will evaluate male job applicants more positively than female job applicants on the Evaluative factor of the semantic differential.

2. High authoritarian subjects will evaluate male job applicants significantly more positively than will moderate or low authoritarians on the Evaluative factor of the semantic differential.
3. High authoritarian subjects will evaluate female job applicants significantly less positively than will moderate or low authoritarian on the Evaluative factor of the semantic differential.
4. Male job applicants will be rated significantly higher than female job applicants on the Potency factor of the semantic differential.
5. Male job applicants will be rated significantly higher than female job applicants on the Activity factor of the semantic differential.
6. High authoritarian subjects will select male rather than female job applicants significantly more frequently than will moderate or low authoritarian subjects as their first choice to hire.

## CHAPTER II

### METHOD

#### Subjects

The subjects in this study were 84 English-speaking Federal government employees, 42 males and 42 females, enrolled in two language schools. Subjects were selected from a pool of 144 volunteers and were assigned to one of three groups: High authoritarian ( $\underline{M}$  = 89.78), moderate authoritarian ( $\underline{M}$  = 71.32) and low authoritarian ( $\underline{M}$  = 56.43) on the basis of their scores on a revised version of the F Scale (Christie, Havel & Seidenberg, 1958). Subjects were chosen at random until 14 males and 14 females had been assigned to each authoritarianism group. All subjects had a minimum of 1 year of experience in employment selection and evaluation. There were no statistically significant differences between high, moderate and low authoritarians in age or number of years work experience in personnel-related positions. However, female subjects differed significantly from male subjects both in age ( $\underline{M}$  male = 38.64, range = 23-58 yrs;  $\underline{M}$  female = 31.50, range = 21-50 yrs.)  $\underline{F}$  (1,78) = 11.21,  $p < .001$ , and in work experience ( $\underline{M}$  male = 7.52, range = 1-32 yrs;  $\underline{M}$  female = 3.79, range = 1-14),  $\underline{F}$  (1,78) = 11.29,  $p < .001$ .

#### Apparatus

The revised version of the F Scale used in this study was developed by Christie, Havel and Seidenberg (1958), and is hereafter designated as the Revised F Scale (See Appendix A). Since the introduction of the original F Scale by Adorno, Frenkel-Brunswik, Levinson and Sanford (1950), a number of alternative instruments have subsequently been developed to measure the

complex of traits designated as authoritarianism. Of primary concern to users of the F Scale has been the influence of an acquiescent response set due to the unidirectional wording of the original items (Bass, 1955; Chapman & Bock, 1958; Cohn, 1953; Cronbach, 1946). Hence authors of revised scales have attempted either to develop new items to which negative responses are indicative of authoritarianism, or to reverse the original F Scale questions. The Christie et al. Revised F Scale exemplifies the second approach and has been cited by one author as the most precise and proven attempt to ameliorate the problem of acquiescence. (Brown, 1965).

The construction of the Revised F Scale involved the writing of psychological reversals for all of the original F Scale items found to be discriminating. In addition, four items which had been included in early pilot versions of the F Scale were also chosen. Two subscales were then devised, each containing 15 of the original F Scale items and 15 reversals of the remaining original items. Thus the two forms, Form A and Form B were mirror images of one another since a given item appeared in both versions, once in its original form, and once in the reversed form. An item analysis of the scores of two college populations was then undertaken. Twenty-two items were found to discriminate between high and low F-scorers in both groups, and the 20 most discriminating items were then selected for further analysis of response set. Subsequent testing of eight additional samples ranging from undergraduates to a group of Washington lobbyists using the final 20-item scale yielded correlations between original and reversed F scale items ranging from

$r = +.10$  to  $+.58$ , a considerable improvement over the negative correlations found in previous comparisons of original and reversed items. Interestingly, the scores of the lobbyist group and a graduate school sample displayed the highest internal consistency, leading the authors to conclude that, while undergraduates may display a high degree of acquiescent response set (i.e. lack of internal consistency), the importance of this variable decreases in samples where individuals are more mature in terms of ideological orientation and development.

Beck (Note 10) provides evidence in support of the Revised F Scale's freedom from acquiescence response set. Examining subjects' scores on the Revised F Scale, the original F Scale and Rokeach's Dogmatism Scale, and four measures of acquiescence response set, Beck found negligible correlations between the Revised F Scale and three content-free measures of acquiescence, ( $r = +.15$  to  $+.28$ ) and between the Revised F Scale and a content-biased measure of acquiescence, the Overall Agreement Scale ( $r = +.13$ ).

The Revised F Scale has been shown to discriminate between three regionally distinct samples selected on the basis of a priori judgements regarding differences in authoritarianism, and to be positively related to a measure of racial prejudice (Klein, 1963). Test-retest reliabilities over a one year period have been estimated at  $r = +.78$  in a graduate student sample (Christie et al., 1958). A pilot study of subjects ( $N = 30$ ) drawn from the population used in the present study indicated a correlation of  $r = +.66$  between the Revised F Scale and an alternative measure of authoritarianism, the Wilson-Patterson Conservatism Scale (Wilson & Patterson, 1968)

and a test-retest correlation of  $r = +.92$  on the Revised F Scale over a 6 week interval.

Scoring of the Revised F Scale follows the customary procedure used with the F Scale. Respondents are given six response alternatives ranging from agreeing strongly, somewhat, or slightly, to disagreeing strongly, somewhat, or slightly. No neutral opinion is included, but omissions are scored as neutral. The most authoritarian response to each item is scored as 7, the least authoritarian as 1, and omissions are scored as 4. Thus the range of possible scores is 140-20.

A brief biographical questionnaire was administered to each subject to obtain information concerning job classification, number of years work experience in a personnel-related position, age, marital status, and father's and mother's occupations (See Appendix B).

Six pilot videotapes of job applicants seen in interview were constructed for use in this study. From the six pilot tapes four tapes, two of male and two of female applicants were chosen on the basis of their similarity to one another for use in this experiment. Each taped segment was 5 minutes in length and depicted the applicant responding to questions posed by two off-camera interviewers, one male and one female. Applicants were played by students from introductory psychology classes who received credit for their participation. Selection of students to play the roles was based upon the necessity of equating the applicants as nearly as possible in physical appearance and portrayed level of competence. As described in a later section, equality of applicants was verified by means of a preexperimental rating.

The position for which job applicants were being considered was that of Administrative Trainee (AT), a managerial level position in the Federal

government for which external recruitment is routine. Choice of this classification was based upon the fact that it is an entry level position requiring a minimum of technical knowledge and familiarity with government structures and policy. Candidates are normally university graduates who display a potential for leadership, a willingness to accept responsibility, and an aptitude for organizational work, and who, if selected, are channeled into an 18 month managerial training program where they are prepared for positions at the middle and senior management level (Public Service Commission, 1975). The position of AT was also a suitable one for this study since it required general rather than specific knowledge on the part of the subjects and thus allowed sampling of individuals with personnel experience in diverse areas.

Construction of the scripts for the interviews was undertaken with the assistance of two full-time recruitment officers who routinely participate in AT selection interviews. Representative questions and responses were developed to cover content areas normally explored in typical interviews. These included academic background, extracurricular activities, summer employment experiences, career plans, personal assets and liabilities, and a question assessing personal judgement in a hypothetical work situation. Questions and answers were incorporated into scripts of equal length which were subsequently judged to be equal in portrayed competence by the assisting recruitment officers. Care was taken to maintain a similar order of information presentation within each interview (Springbett, 1958). The four scripts used in the study are found in Appendix C.

As a further aid in orienting the subjects to the individual job applicants a brief background description of each applicant was provided (See Appendix E).

All applicants were depicted as university students expecting to graduate with a Bachelor of Commerce (Honors) degree. Each had held three separate summer jobs, one of which was career-related. In addition, each candidate was credited with holding a responsible position within two extracurricular areas as well as with having four recreational interests.

A description of the position to be filled (Administrative Trainee in Personnel Administration) was also provided to ensure a common frame of reference among subjects (See Appendix E). Weiner and Schneiderman (1974) have commented on the usefulness of this technique in reducing potential bias due to subject differences in experience with particular jobs and job settings.

The semantic differential which was employed as the dependent measure in the experiment is a rating technique which may be described as a combination of controlled association and scaling procedures allowing subjects to allocate the meaning of a concept to a three-dimensional semantic space using a series of bipolar scales (Osgood, Suci & Tannenbaum, 1957). The three dimensions upon which concepts may differ, Evaluative, Potency and Activity (EPA) emerge in factor analytic studies using a wide variety of scales, concepts, and subjects (Miron, 1969; 1972).

The suitability of the semantic differential in studies where the objects of judgement are persons has been discussed extensively by Warr and Knapper, (1968). Semantic differential ratings can provide a well-rounded picture of the varied aspects of person perception both across various stimulus persons and across groups of subjects categorized on some relevant variable. At the same time, the range of concepts covered (persons) is homogeneous enough to avoid the difficulties of concept-scale interaction and variations in factor

structure across groups that is often encountered in semantic differential research (Heskin, Bolton & Smith, 1973; Kubinieć & Farr, 1971; Presley, 1969). Furthermore, the semantic differential has been proven to be particularly useful in the study of group differences in the stereotypic aspects of sex roles since the factors of Potency and Activity correspond to dimensions on which males and females are typically differentiated. Thus men are seen as relatively more potent and more active than women (Jenkin & Vroegh, 1969; Kagan & Lemkin, 1960; Reece, 1964).

The reliability and validity of the semantic differential is well-established. Warr and Knapper (1968) report a test-retest reliability of  $r = +.94$  over an 8 week interval. Internal consistency between sets of scales measuring the same factor has been estimated between  $r = +.76$  and  $r = +.56$ . Norman (1959) using a measure of the amount of shift expected in ratings relative to the shift that might be expected if ratings were random found that 40% of the scale ratings do not shift at all from test to test, 35% shift by one scale unit, and 25% shift by two or more scale units. In general, evaluative scales evoke fewer shifts.

Evidence of the predictive validity of the semantic differential comes from studies in which predictions have been made of such diverse behaviors as voting (Osgood, Suci and Tannenbaum, 1957) and psychiatric diagnoses (Marks, 1965; 1966). Concurrent validity has been established through comparison of the evaluative scales with alternative attitudinal measures (Proenza & Strickland, 1965). In the area of person perception, judgements of politicians are closely related to political belief (McGrath & McGrath, 1962), and semantic differential ratings yield similar results to those obtained using repertory grid techniques

(Jaspars, 1963).

The semantic differential used in this study consisted of 25 bipolar scales, the polar terms of which were separated by a 7-point rating scale. Nine of the scales were selected from the scales used in the original semantic differential investigations (Osgood et al., 1957, p. 37), three to represent each of the EPA factors. Choice of a scale was based upon its high factor loading on the factor it had been chosen to represent and its relevance to the person stimuli being judged. The nine scales selected from Osgood et al. and their factor loadings on the three factors are found in Appendix D.

In order to enhance the practical as well as the theoretical value of this study, 16 additional bipolar scales were included in the semantic differential instrument. These scales were selected on the basis of a priori judgements concerning their relevance and from other studies which have employed the semantic differential in a similar context (Hopper & Williams, 1973; Friedman & Gladden, 1964).

The 25 scales were presented in random order on each of the five pages of the rating instrument. The directions of the positive-negative poles of each scale were also randomly determined. The five concepts to be rated were indicated at the top of each page and were as follows: the subject's rating of the employee skills and qualities which he considered necessary for the described position, and the four job applicants seen in videotaped interviews. Standard semantic differential instructions preceded the presentation of the rating instrument. Examples of directions and scales are found in Appendix E.

In addition to completing the semantic differential for each of the observed applicants, subjects also responded to two questions taken from the Interpersonal Judgement Scale (Byrne & Wong, 1962). One question (IJS#1)

pertained to the subject's preference for supervising each applicant, the other (IJS#2) the subject's feelings about working with the applicant (See Appendix F).

A ranking form was also provided on which subjects were requested to indicate the order in which they would hire the four applicants (See Appendix G).

A short version of the Attitudes Toward Women Scale (AWS) was also administered to subjects in this study in an effort to obtain a clearer understanding of the relationship between authoritarianism and specific attitudes toward the role and rights of women (See Appendix H). The AWS (Spence & Helmreich, 1972a) is a 55-item Likert-type scale bearing on the vocational, educational, and intellectual roles of women, their freedom and independence, dating, courtship and etiquette, sexual behavior, marital relationships and obligations. The short version of the scale (Spence, Helmreich & Stapp, 1973) contains 25 items, each with four response alternatives ranging from agree strongly to disagree strongly. A score of 0 represents the most traditional and 3 the most contemporary, profeminist response, the total range of possible scores being 0-75. Items included in the short version were chosen from the longer version on the basis of their superior discriminating power. While the factor structure of the longer AWS has been shown to be multidimensional, the abbreviated version is unifactorial. Correlation between the two scales is estimated at  $r = +.97$ . The full scale AWS has been shown to reflect changing attitudes of women participating in a women's awareness group, and to discriminate between women who do or do not participate in feminist activities (Collins, Note 11). Test-retest reliability over a 2 week period is satisfactory ( $r = +.95$ ). Considering the high correlation between the long and short version of the

scale, it is reasonable to assume that this validity and reliability data are applicable to the short version as well.

### Procedure

Volunteers were recruited through written requests circulated to each classroom of the two language schools participating in the study. The research was introduced as an attempt to determine those job applicant characteristics which are most important in making an employment decision. Approximately 1,800 Federal employees received the request, 161 of whom responded positively. The respondents were invited to attend an introductory session in which they were informed of the time commitment required of participants and the location of the experiment. Subjects were then administered the Revised F Scale. Seventeen subjects were subsequently eliminated when it was found that although employed in a personnel office, their duties were primarily secretarial.

Scores on the Revised F Scale for the remaining 144 subjects ranged from 115-44 ( $M = 72.51$ ,  $SD = 14.42$ ). Assignment to experimental groups was made on the basis of mean item score as follows: High authoritarian (4.30+), moderate authoritarian (3.75-3.35) and low authoritarian (3.05-). These values are generally consistent with those of other studies employing the Christie et al. scale (Klein, 1963; Schulberg, 1961) although the mean score of the high authoritarian group is slightly lower than might be desired. Fourteen subjects were assigned to each authoritarianism x sex group for a total of 84 subjects.

From the remaining volunteers, 20 subjects were selected, 10 male and 10 female to assist in a preexperimental check on the equality of the stimulus films. Subjects in this sample participated in a viewing session in which

the four stimulus films were rated on an abbreviated semantic differential form similar to the one used in the actual experiment. Exposure to the films was preceded by the following instructions:

In each of these four videotapes you will observe a job applicant being interviewed for the position of Administrative Trainee. At the conclusion of each interview you will be asked to rate the candidate on a series of rating scales. Please remember to take all of the information into consideration before you make your judgement and do not complete the items on the rating scale until the videotaped segment is complete. Judge each applicant independently, guarding against any stereotypes which might favor or disqualify an individual on the basis of his or her sex.

A one-way repeated measures analysis of variance of the results of the preexperimental ratings indicated that there was no significant difference between any of the four applicants in ratings of attractiveness,  $F(3,57) = 1.22$ ,  $p > .05$ , competence,  $F(3,57) = .40$ ,  $p > .05$ , or intelligence,  $F(3,57) = .94$ ,  $p > .05$ . The four videotapes were therefore considered equivalent for purposes of the experiment. On the basis of over-all mean ratings of attractiveness ( $M = 5.05$ ), competence, ( $M = 5.33$ ) and intelligence ( $M = 5.66$ ) on the 7-point semantic differential scales, it was concluded that subjects perceived the applicants as slightly above average on these characteristics.

Experimental sessions were conducted in a classroom on the premises of the two language schools in which subjects were enrolled. Subjects participated in groups of three and were greeted at the door by the experimenter. Subjects

were cautioned not to speak to each other during the session and were seated in chairs positioned 75 cm. apart. A clipboard was provided with sealed packets containing the rating scales and subjects were requested to complete the first sheet, the biographical questionnaire. Upon completing the questionnaire, subjects were asked to read through the instructions for completing the semantic differential. When it was assured that the semantic differential instructions had been clearly understood, the written description of the position of Administrative Trainee was presented along with a semantic differential form on which the subject was requested to describe his concept of the appropriate employee skills and qualities for the described position.

The following instructions were then given aloud in addition to being provided in written form in each candidate's packet:

Having rated your concept of the appropriate employee skills and qualities for the job position of ADMINISTRATIVE TRAINEE, you will now be presented with four applicants for that position. You will be provided with a resumé of the applicant's personal data and a brief videotaped segment of the applicant being interviewed for the described position. Following the presentation of the interview, you will be asked to rate the applicant on a rating scale using the identical procedure as previously. Please remember to take all of the information into consideration before you make your judgement and do not complete the items on the rating scale until the videotaped segment is complete. Judge each applicant independently, bearing in mind the description of the job for which the individual is being considered.

These instructions were followed by presentation of the written background description of the first candidate and the videotaped interview. Following the videotape presentation the semantic differential and two IJS questions were completed. An identical procedure was maintained for the three remaining candidates.

Although effects due to the order of presentation (i.e. primacy and recency effects) have been shown to be minimal in interview studies where job applicants bear a high degree of similarity to one another (Holmes & Berkowitz, 1961) the order of the films was nevertheless counterbalanced to avoid this possibility. Seven orders were selected at random from the eight possible orders in which male and female applicants would be alternated. Two subjects in each of the experimental groups received one of the seven orders.

When all four applicants had been presented and rated, the following instructions were read aloud as well as being provided in written form on the ranking sheet:

Having viewed interviews of each job applicant you will now be asked to consider them as a group. Please rank each of the four applicants below in the order in which you would hire them, if you were an employer, beginning with your first choice.

Upon completing the ranking, the AWS was administered. Subjects were then thanked for their participation and requested not to discuss the research with other participants. Those subjects wishing to receive a follow-up of the

results of the experiment were requested to complete a self-addressed envelope.

The experimental design employed in this study was of the split-plot type described by Kirk (1968) and consisted of two between-block treatments (Sex of Subject and Authoritarianism) and one within-block treatment (Sex of Job Applicant). An alpha level of  $\alpha = .05$  was adopted for testing the hypotheses and the Tukey procedure was used for all post hoc comparisons.

## CHAPTER III

### Results

This chapter presents the results of the statistical analyses of the data used in testing the hypotheses presented in Chapter one. The first section details the results of the analyses of the semantic differential scales chosen to represent the EPA dimensions and subjects' responses to the two IJS questions. In addition the analysis of subjects' choices of which applicant to hire is presented. The second section contains the results of a factor analysis of all 25 semantic differential scales used in this study. Finally, the third section presents the results of correlational and chi-square analyses of subjects' demographic data. The chapter ends with a summary of the results of the statistical analyses.

#### Analysis of Variance of Evaluative, Potency, and Activity Scales

As described in the previous chapter, a total of nine scales were chosen from the original scales employed by Osgood et al. (1957), three scales to represent each of the three orthogonal factors derived from factor analytic investigations of semantic differential data. A score of 1 to 7 was assigned to each position of the 7-point rating scale, the value of 7 being assigned to the polar adjective representing the most positive end of the Evaluative scales, and the most potent and most active end of the Potency and Activity scales. A mean score on each factor was then derived for a subject by summing

his rating on the three scales representing the factor across the two applicants of the same sex and dividing the total by the number of scales (6). Thus each subject obtained six scores, an Evaluative, Potency, and Activity score for male and for female job applicants.

Since differences had been found between male and female subjects in age and number of years work experience, consideration was given to the possibility of employing one of these variables as a covariate in the main analyses. This strategy was rejected, however, when the highest correlation between either of these subject characteristics and the dependent variable was estimated at  $r = +.16$ . Given the small value of this relationship, little additional precision would be obtained by the technique of covariance.

In order to insure that subjects were utilizing a common frame of reference in terms of the job position which they had been asked to fill in the job description provided, an analysis of subjects' ratings of the appropriate employee skills and qualities was undertaken. A 2x3 analysis of variance of scores on each of the EPA factors using sex of subject and level of authoritarianism as independent variables revealed no significant differences between male and female subjects in their perceptions of the type of applicant desired on the Evaluative,  $F(1,78) = 1.03$ ,  $p = .32$ , Potency,  $F(1,78) = .24$ ,  $p = .99$ , or Activity factor,  $F(1,78) = 1.14$ ,  $p = .29$ . Nor was there a significant difference between subjects varying in authoritarianism in their perceptions of the type of applicant desired on the Evaluative,  $F(2,78) = 1.36$ ,  $p = .26$ , Potency,  $F(2,78) = .47$ ,  $p = .99$ , or Activity factor,  $F(2,78) = .60$ ,  $p = .99$ .

To test the major hypotheses of the study, three separate three-way analyses of variance were carried out with sex of subject, authoritarianism level of subject and sex of job applicant as independent variables. Separate analyses of variance were considered an appropriate approach in this case, given the orthogonal nature of the semantic differential factors. A summary of these analyses is contained in Tables 2-4. Means and standard deviations for each dependent variable for each experimental condition are presented in Tables 5 and 6. Variances were tested using the  $F_{\max}$  procedure and were found to meet the requirement of homogeneity.

Hypothesis 1 stated that high authoritarian subjects would rate male job applicants more positively than female job applicants on the Evaluative factor of the semantic differential. As shown in Table 2, a significant authoritarianism of subject by sex of job applicant interaction was obtained for Evaluative scores,  $F(2,78) = 7.33, p < .001$ . Analysis of simple effects (Appendix I, Table 7) indicated that high authoritarian subjects showed a significant difference in their Evaluative ratings of male and female applicants,  $F(1,78) = 12.42, p < .001$ . High authoritarian subjects of both sexes rated male applicants significantly more positively than females, thus supporting Hypothesis 1. The interaction is illustrated in Figure 1.

Hypothesis 2 stated that high authoritarian subjects would rate male job applicants significantly more positively than would moderate or low authoritarian subjects. Analysis of simple effects indicated a significant difference between Evaluative ratings of high, moderate, and low authoritarians

Table 2  
 Summary of Analysis of Variance  
 Effects of Sex and Authoritarianism of Subject  
 and Sex of Job Applicant  
 on Evaluative Scores

Source of Variance	<u>SS</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>
Sex (S)	.51	1	.51	.76
Authoritarianism (F)	1.34	2	.67	1.00
S X F	1.32	2	.66	.99
R:SF	52.42	78	.67	
Applicant (A)	.29	1	.29	1.61
S X A	.48	1	.48	2.67
F X A	2.65	2	1.32	7.33*
S X F X A	1.04	2	.52	2.89
AR:SF	13.93	78	.18	

$F_{.95} (1,78) = 3.96$

$F_{.95} (2,78) = 3.11$

\* $p < .001$

Table 3  
 Summary of Analysis of Variance:  
 Effects of Sex and Authoritarianism of Subject  
 and Sex of Job Applicant  
 on Potency Scores

Source of Variance	<u>SS</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>
Sex (S)	.43	1	.43	.83
Authoritarianism (F)	.18	2	.09	.17
S X F	4.00	2	2.00	3.85*
R:SF	40.85	78	.52	
Applicant (A)	27.90	1	27.90	77.50***
S X A	.03	1	.03	.08
F X A	3.37	2	1.68	4.67**
S X F X A	.26	2	.13	.36
AR:SF	28.31	78	.36	

$$F_{.95} (1,78) = 3.96$$

$$F_{.95} (2,78) = 3.11$$

$$*p < .03$$

$$**p < .01$$

$$***p < .001$$

Table 4  
 Summary of Analysis of Variance:  
 Effects of Sex and Authoritarianism of Subject  
 and Sex of Job Applicant  
 on Activity Scores

Source of Variance	<u>SS</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>
Sex (S)	.45	1	.45	.73
Authoritarianism (F)	.40	2	.20	.32
S X F	4.09	2	2.05	3.31*
R:SF	48.06	78	.62	
Applicant (A)	1.44	1	1.44	5.33**
S X A	.10	1	.10	.37
F X A	2.67	2	1.34	4.96***
S X F X A	.42	2	.21	.78
AR:SF	20.96	78	.27	

$$F_{.95} (1,78) = 3.96$$

$$F_{.95} (2,78) = 3.11$$

$$*p < .05$$

$$**p < .03$$

$$***p < .01$$

Table 5  
Means and Standard Deviations of Dependent Variables  
for Sex by Authoritarianism Experimental Groups

Authoritarianism	Sex of Subject			
	Male		Female	
	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
<u>Evaluative Dimension</u>				
High	5.35	.76	5.69	.63
Moderate	5.45	.48	5.36	.72
Low	5.26	.61	5.34	.73
Total	5.36	.62	5.47	.71
<u>Potency Dimension</u>				
High	4.31	.88	4.61	.90
Moderate	4.74	.59	4.30	.61
Low	4.62	.63	4.46	1.01
Total	4.56	.73	4.46	.86
<u>Activity Dimension</u>				
High	5.05	.72	5.48	.55
Moderate	5.49	.47	5.18	.71
Low	5.12	.72	5.32	.82
Total	5.22	.67	5.33	.70
<u>IJS #1</u>				
High	5.04	1.03	5.64	.74
Moderate	5.73	.76	5.32	.83
Low	5.61	.96	5.52	.88
Total	5.46	.96	5.49	.82
<u>IJS #2</u>				
High	5.04	1.09	5.64	.84
Moderate	5.66	.84	5.48	.82
Low	5.43	.99	5.41	.86
Total	5.38	.98	5.51	.84

Table 6  
Means and Standard Deviations of Dependent Variables  
for Authoritarianism by Sex of Job Applicant Experimental Groups

Authoritarianism	Sex of Job Applicant			
	Male		Female	
	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
<u>Evaluative Dimension</u>				
High	5.73	.62	5.32	.75
Moderate	5.43	.56	5.39	.66
Low	5.20	.58	5.40	.74
Total	5.45	.62	5.37	.72
<u>Potency Dimension</u>				
High	5.07	.58	3.86	.73
Moderate	4.79	.56	4.24	.60
Low	4.88	.76	4.20	.79
Total	4.92	.64	4.10	.72
<u>Activity Dimension</u>				
High	5.53	.46	5.01	.75
Moderate	5.40	.59	5.27	.64
Low	5.17	.84	5.26	.70
Total	5.37	.66	5.18	.70
<u>IJS = 1</u>				
High	5.39	.90	5.29	.99
Moderate	5.41	.78	5.64	.85
Low	5.39	.84	5.73	.96
Total	5.40	.83	5.55	.94
<u>IJS = 2</u>				
High	5.48	.93	5.20	1.08
Moderate	5.52	.81	5.63	.86
Low	5.29	.80	5.55	1.02
Total	5.43	.84	5.46	1.00

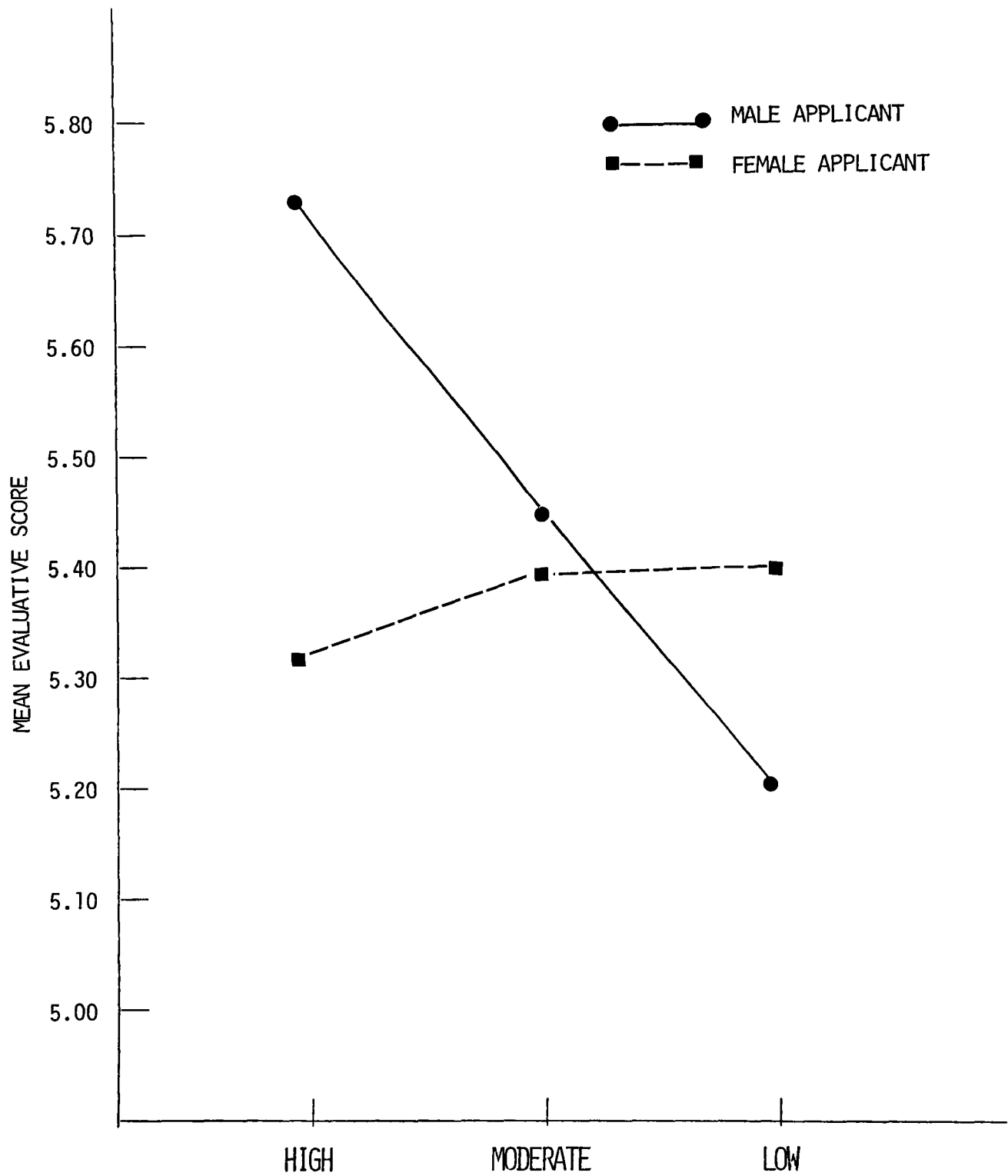


Figure 1. Ratings of male and female job applicants on the Evaluative factor by high, moderate and low authoritarian subjects.

for the male applicant,  $F(2,156) = 4.49, p < .03$ . A Tukey post hoc test revealed that high authoritarian subjects of both sexes evaluated male applicants significantly more positively than did low authoritarians,  $q(3,78) = 3.82, p < .05$ . No significant differences were found, however, between high and moderate or between moderate and low authoritarians in their ratings of male applicants. Thus support was gained for that part of the hypothesis predicting more positive evaluations of male applicants by high as compared to low authoritarians. However, no support was gained for that part of the hypothesis predicting a significant difference between high and moderate authoritarians in their ratings of male applicants.

Hypothesis 3 stated that high authoritarian subjects would evaluate female job applicants significantly less positively than would moderate or low authoritarians. As shown in Table 7, analysis of simple effects for differences between levels of authoritarianism in Evaluative ratings of female job applicants did not support this hypothesis,  $F(2,156) = .14, p > .05$ .

Hypothesis 4 stated that male job applicants would be rated significantly higher than female applicants on the Potency factor of the semantic differential. A summary of this analysis is found in Table 3. The analysis revealed both a main effect for sex of job applicant,  $F(1,78) = 77.50, p < .001$ , and an interaction between authoritarianism of subject and sex of job applicant,  $F(2,78) = 4.67, p < .01$ . Analysis of simple effects (Appendix I, Table 8) indicated that all subjects, regardless of level of authoritarianism, rated male applicants as more potent than female applicants, in support of Hypothesis 4. The relationship is illustrated in Figure 2. No significant differences were found between authoritarianism groups in their ratings of male job applicants nor of female

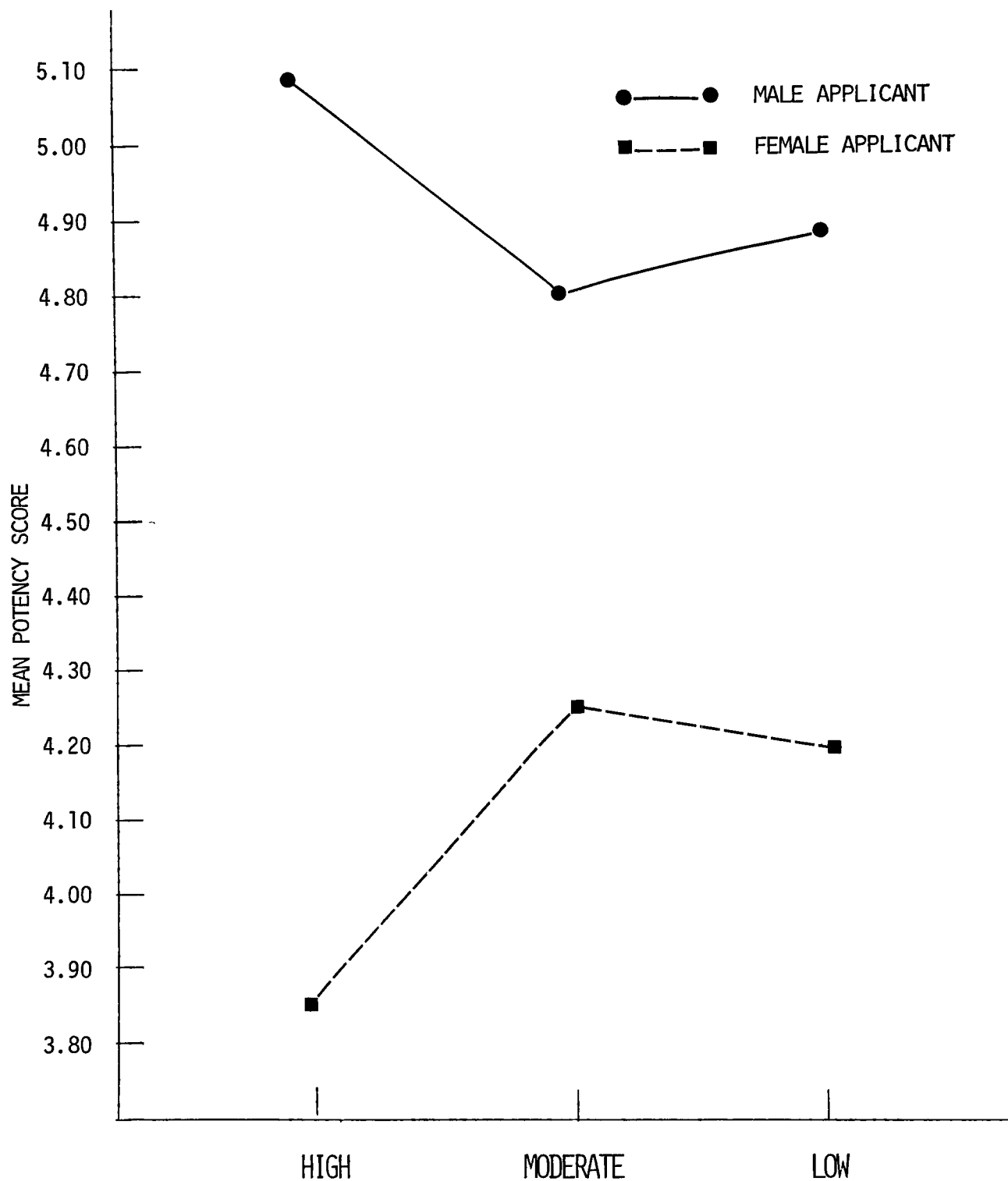


Figure 2. Ratings of male and female job applicants on the Potency factor by high, moderate and low authoritarian subjects.

job applicants.

An additional and unpredicted interaction was observed between sex of subject and level of authoritarianism,  $F(2,78) = 3.85$ ,  $p < .03$ . Analysis of simple effects (Appendix I, Table 9) indicated a significant difference between male and female subjects in the moderate authoritarianism group,  $F(1,78) = 5.35$ ,  $p < .03$ . Inspection of the means of these two groups showed that moderate authoritarian males rated all job applicants significantly higher on the Potency factor than did moderate authoritarian females (See Figure 3).

Hypothesis 5 predicted that male job applicants would be rated significantly higher than female applicants on the Activity factor of the semantic differential. As seen in Table 4, the analysis of variance yielded a significant main effect for sex of job applicant,  $F(1,78) = 5.33$ ,  $p < .03$ , and a significant interaction between authoritarianism of subject and sex of job applicants,  $F(2,78) = 4.96$ ,  $p < .001$ . Simple effects analysis (Appendix I, Table 10) led to the conclusion that only high authoritarians exhibited significant differences in their ratings of male and female job applicants,  $F(1,78) = 14.00$ ,  $p < .001$ . This relationship is illustrated in Figure 4. High authoritarian subjects of both sexes rated male job applicants as significantly more active than female applicants. Thus Hypothesis 5 was supported only for the high authoritarian group.

An unpredicted sex of subject by authoritarianism interaction was also obtained in the analysis of Activity scores,  $F(2,78) = 3.31$ ,  $p < .05$ . In the analysis of simple effects (Appendix I, Table 11) a significant difference was obtained between male and female subjects in the high authoritarian group,

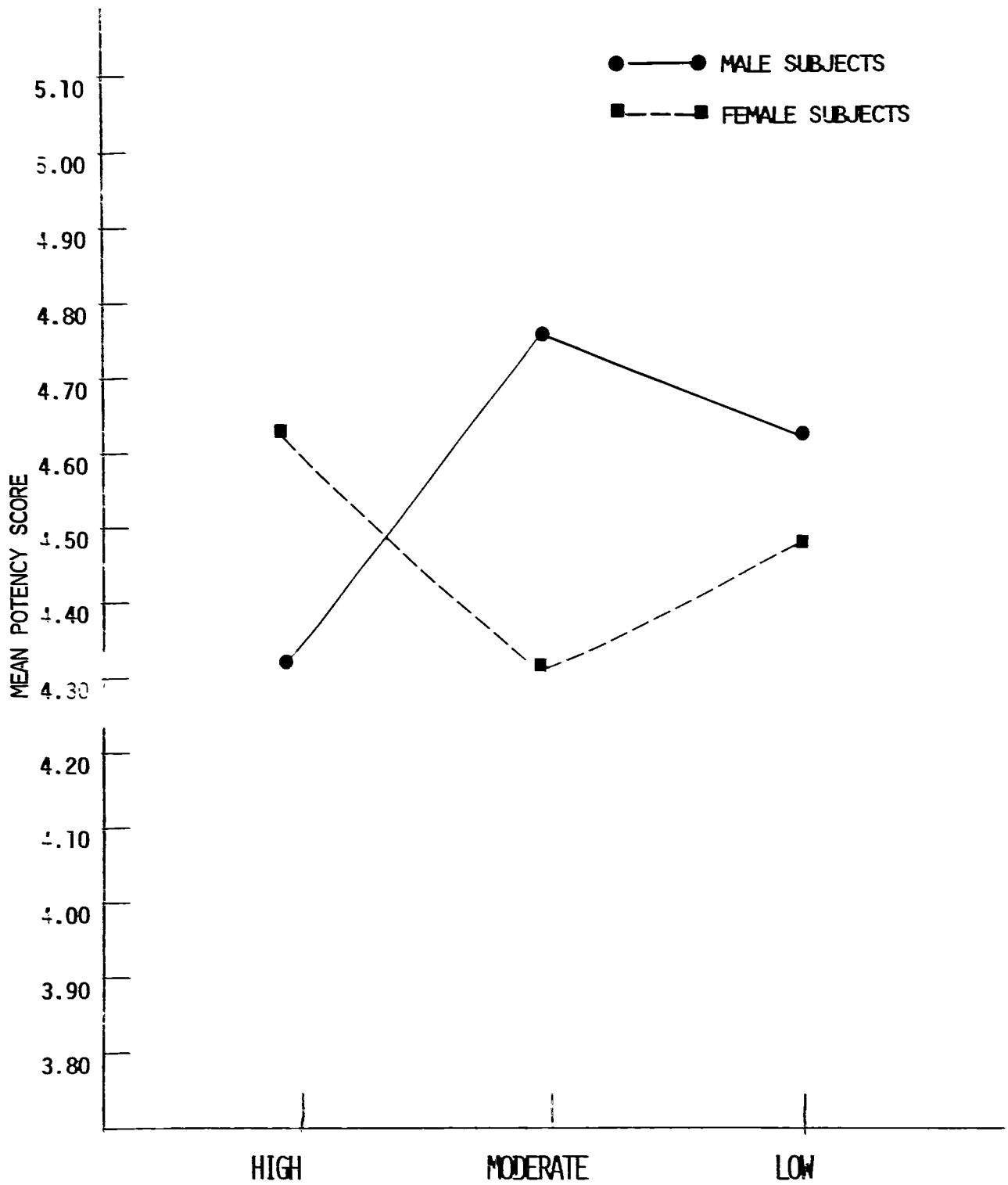


Figure 3. Ratings of job applicants on the Potency factor by male and female subjects of high, moderate and low authoritarian groups.

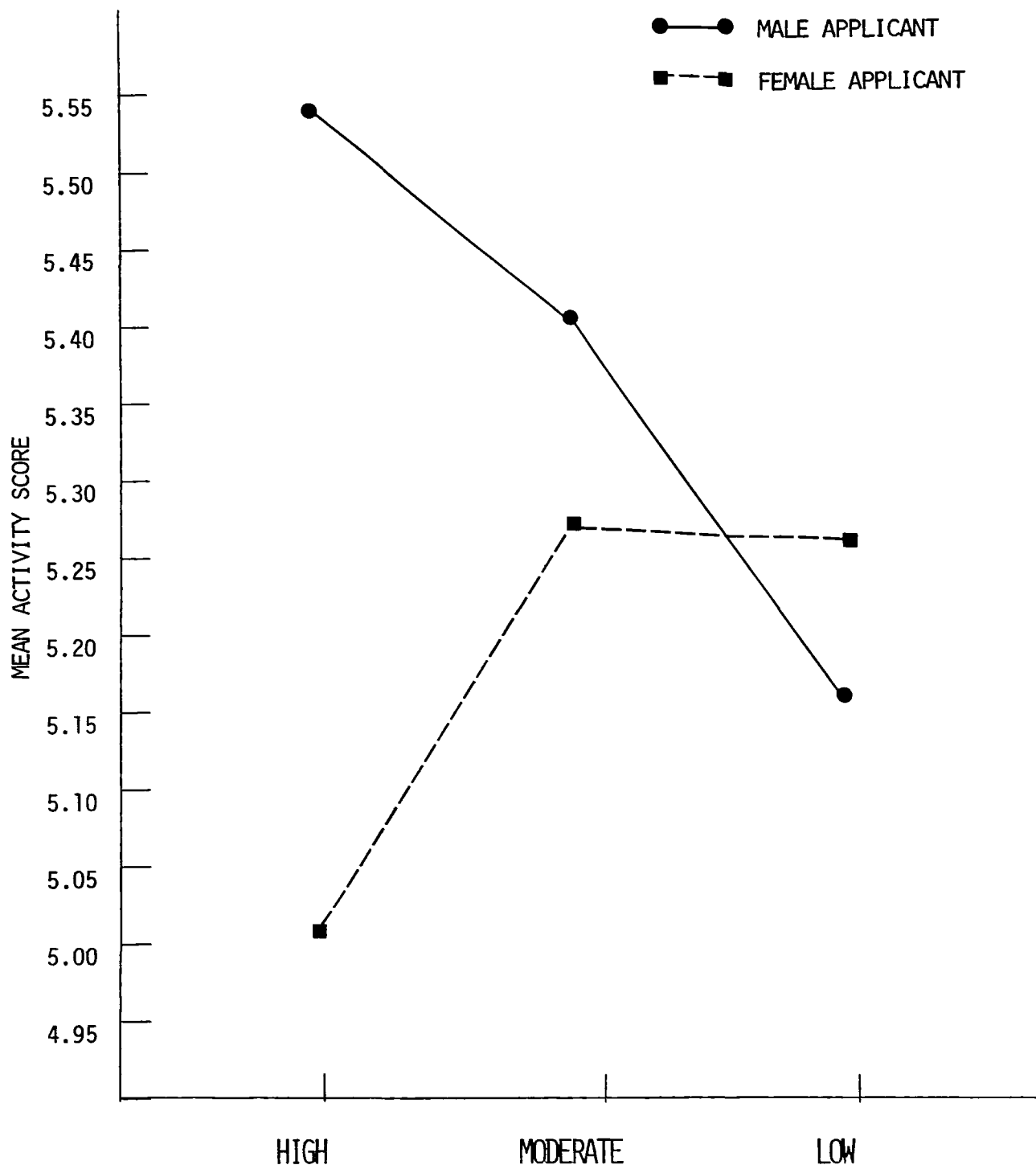


Figure 4. Ratings of male and female job applicants on the Activity factor by high, moderate and low authoritarian subjects.

$F(1,78) = 4.23, p < .05$ . High authoritarian females rated all applicants as significantly more active than did high authoritarian males (See Figure 5).

As described in the preceding chapter, each subject also responded to two questions designated as the Interpersonal Judgement Scales. One of the scales (IJS #1) required that the subject indicate how much he would like supervising each applicant; the other scale measured to what degree the subject felt he would like working with the applicant (IJS #2). No specific hypotheses were formulated regarding these scales. The summary of the analysis of variance is found in Appendix J. A significant sex of subject by authoritarianism interaction occurred,  $F(2,78) = 4.16, p < .03$ . Simple effects analysis (Appendix K, Table 14) indicated a significant difference between male subjects of high, moderate, and low authoritarianism levels,  $F(2,78) = 4.24, p < .03$ . Tukey post hoc procedures revealed a significant difference between high and moderate authoritarian males,  $q(3,78) = 3.91, p < .05$ , but not between high and low or moderate and low authoritarian males. Thus moderate authoritarian males indicated a significantly greater willingness to supervise all applicants than did high authoritarian males.

The analysis of simple effects also showed a significant difference in the IJS#1 ratings of male and female subjects in the high authoritarian group,  $F(1,78) = 5.67, p < .03$ . Inspection of the means for these two groups led to the conclusion that high authoritarian females expressed a significantly greater preference for supervising all job applicants than did high authoritarian males.

A summary of the results of the analysis of variance for IJS#2 is contained in Appendix J. There were no significant main effects nor significant interactions

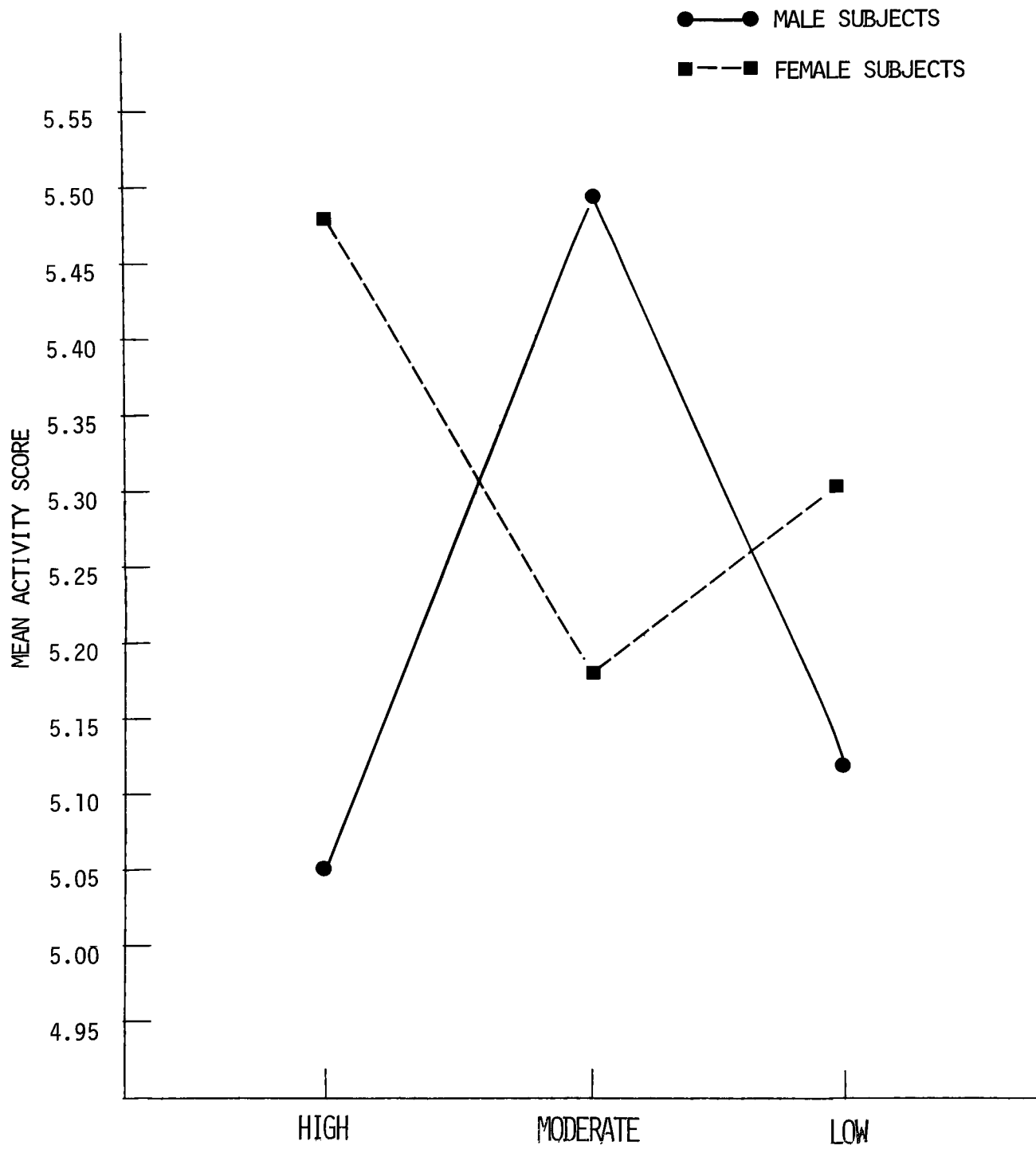


Figure 5. Ratings of job applicants on the Activity factor by male and female subjects of high, moderate and low authoritarianism groups.

in this analysis. Thus it may be concluded that there were no significant differences between experimental groups in their preferences for working with job applicants.

Hypothesis 6 predicted that high authoritarian subjects would select a male rather than a female job applicant as their first choice to hire significantly more frequently than would subjects in the moderate or low authoritarian groups. Separate chi-square analyses were performed for male and female subjects to determine the degree of association between authoritarianism and choice of a male or a female job applicant. Summaries of these analyses are found in Appendix L. As predicted, the results indicated a significant association between authoritarianism and choice of a male applicant for male subjects,  $\chi^2 (2) = 9.42$ ,  $p < .01$ , Contingency coefficient ( $C$ ) = .43, as well as for female subjects,  $\chi^2 (2) = 9.36$ ,  $p < .01$ ,  $C = .43$ . Examining the differences between male groups using t-tests for uncorrelated proportions indicated that high authoritarian males chose a male applicant as their first choice significantly more frequently than did moderate authoritarian males ( $p < .05$ ) but not low authoritarian males. High authoritarian females, on the other hand, chose a male applicant significantly more frequently than did low authoritarian females ( $p < .05$ ) but not moderate authoritarian females. Hypothesis 6 was therefore supported for both male and female subjects.

### Results of the Factor Analysis

In order to explore the factor structure underlying subjects' ratings on the 25 semantic differential scales in this study, a factor analysis was undertaken using the principal components method with iterations. A 25x25

correlation matrix was produced representing the intercorrelations among the scales, treating each subject's rating of male and female job applicants as a separate replication. Thus the effective  $N$  in determining the matrix was the number of subjects (84) times the number of concepts (2). Using the principal components method, the number of factors to be extracted from the unreduced correlation matrix was determined. The main diagonal elements of the correlation matrix were then replaced with initial estimates of communalities. The same number of factors were extracted from this reduced matrix and the variance accounted for by these new factors became communality estimates. The diagonal elements were then replaced with these communalities. Five such iterations were required to achieve convergence. The estimated communalities, eigenvalues and percentage of total variance accounted for by each of the 25 variables is shown in Appendix M. Rotation to simple structure was accomplished using the orthogonal varimax procedure. The varimax rotated factor matrix is reproduced in Appendix N.

The three major factors extracted in the factor analysis accounted for 62.1% of the total variance. Factor 1, accounting for 77.6% of the common variance appears to be primarily an Evaluative-Ability factor having high loadings on scales such as responsible-irresponsible, fair-unfair, valuable-worthless, hardworking-lazy, intelligent-unintelligent, and competent-incompetent. Factor 2, accounting for 17.7% of the common variance may be termed as primarily a Potency factor with high loadings on scales rugged-delicate, hard-soft, dominant-submissive, aggressive-unaggressive, masculine-feminine, and independent-dependent. Finally, Factor 3, accounting for 4.7% of the common variance seems to represent an Activity factor, having high loadings

on scales stimulating-boring, sharp-dull, decisive-indecisive, creative-noncreative, and fast-slow.

With the exception of scales good-bad, active-passive and weak-strong, the scales of the semantic differential instrument appear to load on those dimensions which they had been chosen to represent. In the case of good-bad, the scale's highest factor loading is indeed on the Evaluative-Ability factor, Factor 1; however, the magnitude of this factor loading (.46) does not approach that of the other scales loading on this factor. The scale active-passive, on the other hand, appears to load equally on all three factors, and weak-strong loads substantially on both Factors 2 and 3.

In order to assess the significance of group differences on the three factors, factor scores were computed for each subject's rating of male and female job applicants on each of the three factors. The factor scores were computed first by transforming the subjects' raw scores on the rating scales to standard scores. Each of the standard scores for the 25 scales was then weighted by the magnitude of its factor loading on each of the three factors. A composite factor score for each individual's rating of male and female applicants on each factor was then derived by summing the individual's factor score across the 25 scales. By this method, the process of deriving weighted linear composite scores for the three factors included each variable on every factor, but the weights applied to an individual's standard score varied with the factor loading (Weiss, 1971). Thus the factor score for an individual on Factor 1 may be expressed as follows:

$$F_1 = fsc_{11}z_1 + fsc_{21}z_2 + fsc_{31}z_3 + \dots + fsc_{25,1}z_{25}$$

where  $fsc_{11}$  is the factor score coefficient for Scale 1 on Factor 1 and  $z_1$  is

the subjects' standardized score on Scale 1.

Analyses of variance ( $2 \times 3 \times 2$ ) were performed on the subjects' scores for each of the three factors. Summaries of these analyses are contained in Appendix 0. No significant main effects or significant interactions were obtained in the analysis of factor scores on Factor 1. Thus it may be concluded that there were no significant differences between experimental conditions or among job applicants for ratings on this factor.

Since the results of this analysis were somewhat surprising, given the group differences found using the summed Evaluative scales, a separate scale-by-scale analysis was undertaken using the six scales showing the highest loadings on this factor. It was noted that four of the scales (responsible-irresponsible, hardworking-lazy, intelligent-unintelligent, competent-incompetent) might be properly termed personal effort and ability characteristics, while the remaining two scales (fair-unfair, valuable-worthless) had been found by Osgood to be strictly Evaluative in meaning. The possibility was therefore entertained that subjects might be making some discriminations among applicants along these lines. Analysis of variance results indicated no significant differences in subjects' ratings of male and female applicants on scales responsible-irresponsible, hardworking-lazy, intelligent-unintelligent, or competent-incompetent. However, high authoritarian subjects of both sexes rated male applicants as significantly more valuable,  $F(1,78) = 4.22$ ,  $p < .05$ , and more fair,  $F(1,78) = 7.02$ ,  $p < .03$ , than female applicants.

The analysis of variance of factor scores on Factor 2 yielded two significant main effects, one for sex of subject,  $F(1,78) = 4.37$ ,  $p < .05$ , the other for sex of job applicant,  $F(1,78) = 188.63$ ,  $p < .001$ . Inspection of the mean

factor scores of male and female subjects indicated that male subjects rated all applicants significantly higher on this factor than did female subjects. Furthermore, subjects of both sexes rated male applicants as significantly higher on this dimension than female applicants.

The analysis of factor scores on Factor 3 resulted in two significant interactions, a two-way interaction between authoritarianism and sex of job applicant, and a three-way sex of subject by authoritarianism by sex of job applicant interaction,  $F(2,78) = 3.84, p < .03$ . Analysis of simple effects indicated that high authoritarian males rated female applicants significantly lower than male applicants on Factor 3,  $F(1,78) = 7.18, p < .01$ . On the other hand, moderate authoritarian males rated male applicants significantly lower than female applicants on Factor 3,  $F(1,78) = 6.45, p < .03$ . The same was true for low authoritarian males,  $F(1,78) = 5.60, p < .03$  (See Figure 6, Appendix P). Likewise, male subjects in high, moderate and low authoritarian groups also differed from each other in their ratings of female applicants on Factor 3,  $F(2, 156) = 6.83, p < .005$ . Tukey post hoc analysis indicated a significant difference between ratings of female applicants by high and low authoritarian males,  $q(3,78) = 3.17, p < .05$ , and between ratings of female applicants by high and moderate authoritarian males,  $q(3,78) = 5.00, p < .05$ . In both cases high authoritarian males rated female job applicants significantly lower on Factor 3 than did moderate or low authoritarian males.

A difference was also found between male and female subjects in the high and moderate authoritarian groups. High authoritarian male subjects rated

female job applicants significantly lower on Factor 3 than did high authoritarian females,  $F(1,156) = 5.33, p < .03$ . On the other hand, moderate authoritarian males rated female job applicants significantly higher on Factor 3 than did moderate authoritarian females,  $F(1,156) = 4.14, p < .05$ . Figure 7 in Appendix P illustrates this relationship.

To summarize the results of the three-way interaction on Factor 3, high authoritarian males rated female job applicants lower on Factor 3 both in comparison to their own ratings of male applicants, and in comparison to ratings of female applicants by high authoritarian females and by moderate and low authoritarian males. Moderate and low authoritarian males, however, rated female applicants higher than male applicants on Factor 3, and moderate authoritarian males rated female job applicants higher on Factor 3 than did moderate authoritarian females.

#### Analyses of Demographic Data

Analysis of the AWS scores indicated that these ranged from 29 to 75 for the sample as a whole ( $M = 57.88, SD = 10.32$ ), a considerably more liberal average score than that reported in other studies employing this scale. Moreover, female subjects were somewhat more liberal ( $M = 60.07, SD = 10.64$ ) than male subjects ( $M = 55.69, SD = 9.63$ ).

Pearson product moment correlation coefficients were calculated to assess the relationship between subjects' raw scores on the Revised F Scale, the AWS, age, and the number of years work experience in a personnel-related position. Negative correlations were observed between Revised F Scale scores and AWS scores,  $r = -.43, p < .001$ , between subjects' age and AWS scores,  $r = -.15, p < .08$ , and between number of years work experience and AWS scores,

$r = -.11$ ,  $p < .16$ . Thus liberal attitudes toward women were associated with low scores on authoritarianism, with being younger in age, and with having less work experience. No relationship was found between Revised F Scale scores and age,  $r = +.04$ ,  $p = .36$ , or number of years work experience,  $r = -.02$ ,  $p = .45$ .

Separate chi-square analyses were computed for male and female subjects to determine the association between high, moderate, and low authoritarianism and father's and mother's occupations. A summary of these analyses is presented in Appendix Q. Similarly, chi-square analyses were conducted to determine the relationship between subjects' attitudes toward women and father's and mother's occupations. A summary of these analyses is presented in Appendix R.

There was no statistically significant association between the level of authoritarianism of male or female subjects and father's occupation when this variable was dichotomized into white and blue collar categories. A significant association was found, however, between authoritarianism of male subjects and mother's occupation categorized as having been a working or homemaker mother,  $\chi^2(2) = 7.47$ ,  $p < .03$ ,  $C = .39$ . Results of t-tests indicated that high authoritarian males had significantly fewer working mothers than did moderate males ( $p < .05$ ) but not low authoritarian males. No relationship was found between authoritarianism of female subjects and mother's occupation.

In order to conduct the chi-square analyses between subjects' attitudes toward women and demographic variables, individuals were categorized according to AWS scores into conservative, moderate and liberal groups. This division, made so as to allocate one-third of the subjects to each group, was somewhat

arbitrary since the distribution of AWS was negatively skewed, and the conservative group was not as conservative as might have been desired. However, it was felt that this division adequately represented the conservative, moderate, and liberal dimensions of attitudes toward women in this particular population.

Chi-square analysis of the association between male attitudes toward women and father's occupation yielded a significant relationship,  $\chi^2(2) = 6.01$ ,  $p < .05$ ,  $C = .35$ . Males who were more liberal in their attitudes toward women more frequently had fathers with white collar occupations as compared to both moderate and conservative males ( $p < .05$ ). For female subjects, the association between attitudes toward women and father's occupation was not significant. Likewise, there was no significant association between attitudes toward women of male or female subjects and mother's occupation.

As a final step in examining the data, a discriminant function analysis was undertaken to determine whether groups of subjects choosing a male or a female applicant in their final selection decision could be distinguished on the basis of any of the questionnaire or demographic variables. Five variables (Revised F Scale, AWS, number of years work experience in a personnel-related area, age, and father's occupation) were employed in the analysis. Father's occupation was scaled according to a socioeconomic index developed for 320 occupations in Canada (Blishen, 1967). Since this scale does not provide an index for the category of housewife, data regarding mother's occupation could not be included in the analysis.

A stepwise discriminant function analysis was performed using the Wilks criteria for controlling the stepwise selection of variables, and with groups categorized according to whether the subject had chosen a male or a

female job applicant in the final selection decision. Three of the variables (Revised F Scale, AWS, and number of years work-experience) were selected before the F-level associated with the Wilks' lambda was insufficient for further computation. The standardized and unstandardized discriminant function weights derived in the analysis are presented in Table 30 (Appendix S). The eigenvalue associated with the discriminant function was .18318 and the canonical correlation measuring the association between the discriminant function and the variables was .39. As shown in Table 31 (Appendix T), application of the discriminant function coefficients to the 84 cases entered into the analysis revealed that 63.10% of these could be correctly classified as having chosen a male or a female applicant in their final selection decision. More specifically, 58.5% of those choosing a male applicant and 71.0% of those choosing a female applicant were correctly classified.

#### Summary of the Results of the Statistical Analyses

With regard to the main hypotheses of this study, the following results were obtained:

1. High authoritarian subjects of both sexes rated male job applicants significantly more positively than female job applicants on the Evaluative factor of the semantic differential, in support of Hypothesis 1.

2. High authoritarian subjects of both sexes rated male applicants more positively than did low authoritarian subjects on the Evaluative factor of the semantic differential. No significant difference was observed, however,

between the ratings of high and moderate authoritarians on this factor. Support was thus obtained for that part of Hypothesis 2 predicting a difference between high and low authoritarians while support was not obtained for that part of the hypothesis predicting a significant high-moderate difference.

3. Contrary to Hypothesis 3, high authoritarians did not evaluate female job applicants more negatively than moderate or low authoritarian subjects.

4. As predicted in Hypothesis 4, male job applicants were rated significantly higher on the Potency factor of the semantic differential, regardless of the level of subject authoritarianism.

5. High authoritarian subjects of both sexes rated male applicants significantly higher than female applicants on the Activity factor of the semantic differential. No significant differences were observed between the ratings of male and female applicants by moderate and low authoritarian groups.

6. High authoritarian males chose a male applicant as their first choice to hire significantly more frequently than moderate but not low authoritarian males. High authoritarian females chose a male applicant significantly more frequently than low but not moderate authoritarian females.

In addition to the results pertaining to the main hypotheses, several additional and unpredicted differences were obtained:

7. Moderate authoritarian males rated job applicants significantly higher on the Potency dimension than did moderate authoritarian females.

8. High authoritarian females rated all job applicants higher on the Activity dimension than did high authoritarian males.

9. Moderate authoritarian males indicated a significantly greater willingness to supervise all job applicants than did high authoritarian males.

10. High authoritarian females indicated a significantly greater willingness to supervise all applicants than did high authoritarian males.

11. No statistically significant difference was obtained between the experimental groups in their preference for working with male or female job applicants.

The results of the factor analysis of the 25-scale semantic differential instrument yielded the following results:

12. Three major factors were extracted in the factor analysis bearing a high degree of similarity to Osgood's Evaluative, Potency, and Activity factors.

13. There was no significant difference between factor scores on Factor 1 for any of the experimental groups. Furthermore, male and female applicants were rated as equally responsible, hardworking, intelligent and competent by all subjects. However, high authoritarian subjects of both sexes rated male applicants as more valuable and more fair than female applicants.

14. Male subjects rated all job applicants significantly higher on Factor 2 than did female subjects.

15. Male applicants were rated significantly higher than female applicants on Factor 2 by all subjects.

16. High authoritarian males rated female applicants significantly lower than male applicants on Factor 3.

17. High authoritarian males rated female applicants significantly lower on Factor 3 than did high authoritarian females and moderate and low authoritarian males.

18. Moderate and low authoritarian males rated female applicants significantly higher on Factor 3 than male job applicants.

19. Moderate authoritarian males rated female job applicants significantly higher on Factor 3 than did moderate authoritarian females.

Finally, with regards to the correlational and chi-square analyses, the following results were obtained:

20. Negative correlations were obtained between subjects' attitudes toward women and scores on the Revised F Scale, age, and number of years work experience in a personnel-related field.

21. Chi-square analyses yielded a significant association between the authoritarianism of male subjects and mother's occupation. High authoritarian males less frequently had a working mother as compared to moderate but not low authoritarian males.

22. A significant association was observed between male attitudes toward women and father's occupation. Males who were liberal in their attitudes toward women more frequently had fathers with white collar occupations as compared to both moderate and low authoritarian males.

23. The results of a discriminant function analysis revealed that groups of subjects choosing a male or a female applicant in their final selection decision could be differentiated on the basis of three variables: Revised F Scale, AWS, and number of years work experience in a personnel-related area. Moreover, using the derived discriminant function coefficients, correct predictions could be made for 63.10% of the cases used in the analysis.

## CHAPTER IV

### Discussion

In this chapter a discussion of the results obtained in the statistical analyses will be undertaken. The first part of the chapter deals with the findings related to the analyses of the semantic differential data. This is followed by a discussion of the results of the analysis of the Interpersonal Judgement Scales and the data related to the subjects' selection of one of the job applicants as their first choice to hire. Consideration is then given to the demographic variables included in this study. The chapter ends with a discussion of the implications of this study for future research.

### Analyses of the Semantic Differential

The emergence of a factor structure bearing a high degree of similarity to Osgood's EPA structure, although reassuring for the purposes of this study, is not altogether surprising. Warr and Knapper (1968) point out that by using pre-selected groups of scales, chosen so as to represent particular semantic differential dimensions, the researcher has already to a certain extent biased the factor structure in a particular way. Nevertheless, the finding of three orthogonal dimensions in subjects' ratings of male and female applicants offers support to the utility of these factors in judgements of person stimuli, and, in particular, of persons differing on the characteristic of sex.

The three factors, labelled Factors 1-3 to distinguish them from the scales used in the main analyses, accounted for 62.1% of the extracted

variance. This figure is comparable to that of other semantic differential studies (Warr & Knapper, 1968; Williams, 1970). The finding of a large evaluative component accounting for the greatest percentage of common variance is also in line with previous research.

Three of the nine scales selected to represent the EPA factor structure, when considered in terms of their factor loadings, appeared to differ slightly from the meaning originally intended. The scale good-bad, while having its highest loading (.46) on Factor 1 (Evaluative-Ability), did not attain a factor loading comparable to that of the other two scales chosen to represent the Evaluative factor, valuable-worthless (.70) and fair-unfair (.74). One possible interpretation of these results is that subjects were using the neutral position of the semantic differential scale to indicate the irrelevance of these adjectives to the judgement task. This may be particularly true if the scale was given an aversive moral connotation by subjects who were then reticent to apply this label to job applicants.

In addition, it was noted that scales active-passive, and weak-strong, although chosen to represent the Activity and Potency dimensions respectively, did not have their highest loading on these factors in the present study. Active-passive took on both an Evaluative-Ability (.44) as well as a Potency (.50) connotation. Weak-strong, on the other hand, loaded substantially on both Factor 2 (.51) and Factor 3 (.51), thus appearing to have both a Potency and an Activity connotation for subjects. The most apparent interpretation of these nuances in scale meaning is that they are probably

the product of the particular judgement context in which subjects were placed. Given the description of an entry level managerial position for which job applicants were to be considered, qualities indicative of activity (active-passive, decisive-indecisive) are important qualifications, and hence may be expected to co-vary with other Evaluative-Ability characteristics. Other studies (Gulliksen, 1958; Heskin, Bolton, & Smith, 1973; Kubinieć & Farr, 1971) have noted a shift in scale meanings, particularly toward the Evaluative dimension, when the concepts rated are affective in nature. Individual's responses to other persons may be expected to be emotionally-loaded and hence the results of the factor analysis in this study are not surprising. As Kubinieć and Farr point out, it is not always safe to make presumptions about the meaning dimensions represented by particular scales when the basis of the data is a concept class different from the one under investigation. The finding of such a shift in the present study emphasizes the importance of including a factor analytic exploration of the structure of individual semantic differential instruments with particular concepts and contexts.

The findings of the analyses of summed scale scores on the EPA factors and the factor scores generated as a result of the factor analysis are, with several notable exceptions, relatively consistent. The discussion of findings related to these two sets of scores will therefore be undertaken together.

The analysis of summed scales representing the Evaluative factor confirmed the hypothesis that high authoritarian subjects of both sexes would evaluate male applicants more favorably than female applicants. Furthermore,

high authoritarian subjects differed from low authoritarians primarily in terms of their over-evaluation of males rather than a devaluation of female applicants. This finding is similar to that reported by McKee and Sherriffs (1957) who noted that the difference in subjects' ratings of males and females were not due to any unfavorable view of women, but only to the extremely high regard expressed for males.

An interesting discrepancy emerged in the analysis of subjects' scores on Factor 1. Since this factor appeared to represent an Evaluative-Ability factor, analysis of factor scores might be expected to yield similar results to those of the summed scales representing the Evaluative factor. When, however, no significant differences were found between the scores of any of the experimental groups on this factor, a scale-by-scale analysis was undertaken to examine the six scales loading highest on this factor. Warr and Knapper (p.72) present a convincing defense for this approach, contending that much valuable information is sometimes lost in the summation process used in determining factor scores.

Such was the case in the present analysis. The examination of scales indicated that while male and female applicants were considered similar in terms of what might be considered personal ability and effort scales (responsible-irresponsible, hardworking-lazy, intelligent-unintelligent, competent-incompetent), high authoritarian subjects had rated female job applicants lower than male applicants on scales which were more purely evaluative in meaning (valuable-worthless, fair-unfair). Thus it would appear that high authoritarians were aware of the personal qualifications

of females, but nevertheless persisted in considering them as less valuable than the male applicants. These findings echo those of past studies which have indicated the frequently irrational nature of sex discrimination whereby females are rated on a par with males on all important counts save the final assessment of their over-all worth as an employee (Jones, Note 5). In this study, the inclusion of background information for each applicant may have served to establish a history of competent performance for both males and females. Nevertheless, it did not prevent the authoritarian group from eventually differentiating their assessments of the two sexes.

With regard to the analysis of scores on the summed Potency scales and the factor scores on Factor 2, the results are consistent in supporting this dimension as an enduring one on which males and females are stereotypically differentiated. This finding is in agreement with that of a number of other studies (Jenkin & Vroegh, 1969; Kagan & Lemkin, 1960; Reece, 1964) and interestingly, includes the only characteristics (ruggedness, dominance, aggression) on which research has consistently found reliable sex differences (Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974).

The fact that males of all levels of authoritarianism rated all applicants higher on this factor than did females when factor scores were considered is an intriguing finding. That only moderate authoritarian males exhibited this effect in the analysis of summed scale scores is perhaps due to the decreased reliability of using these scales as compared to the 25 scales used in arriving at subjects' factor scores. A number of studies have indicated that males perceive aggressive content more readily than females. Moore (1966) found

that in children age 8-16, boys reported a violent scene presented in a binocular rivalry task significantly more often than did girls. Kagan & Moss (1962) found that girls required longer tachistoscopic exposure times to recognize aggressive scenes. Thus it may be that males are more prone to attributing characteristics of dominance and ruggedness to others whether these are actually exhibited by the stimulus person or not.

The findings related to the Activity scales and Factor 3 are by far the most confusing, and the most difficult to interpret. In general, it would appear that the activity dimension does not differentiate between males and females in the manner sometimes claimed. In analyses of both sets of scores, only high authoritarian subjects exhibited a consistent discrepancy in their ratings of males and females on this dimension. Moreover, the analysis of factor scores yielded the additional findings that high authoritarian males perceived female applicants as less active than did authoritarian females, and that moderate and low authoritarian males actually discriminated in the reverse direction, crediting the female applicants with being more active than the males.

The responses of high authoritarian males to female applicants on Factor 3 bears a striking resemblance to the qualities of personal dynamism which McKee and Sherriffs (1959) found were often denied to women by men. These included adjectives such as aggressive, courageous, daring, deliberate, dominant, dynamic, forceful, independent, and sharp-witted, terms which represent both Potency and Activity items of the semantic differential. But in the present study, moderate and low authoritarian males not only did not deny the qualities of the Activity dimension to female applicants, they in fact saw

them as more active than the male applicants. A possible explanation for this finding is presented in Garske's study (1975). Garske predicted that, given non-normative behaviors on the part of a stimulus person, subjects would respond to this violation of their expectations by making more extreme attributions in a manner opposite to that expected on the basis of traditional stereotypes. His predictions, made on the basis of a model taken from attribution theory concerning judgements of out-of-role behavior, were confirmed. Lay and Cumming (1972) found the same tendency toward extreme and unexpected judgements when subjects' expectations of a member of an ethnic group were violated. A similar explanation might be invoked to explain the ratings of moderate and low authoritarian males. While the stereotypic beliefs of high authoritarian males regarding sex roles may be so fixed as to be resistant to modification by discrepant information, those of moderate and low males may be more flexible and subject to change by information from the context in which their judgements are being made.

If such an explanation is adopted, however, it poses the additional question of why a similar effect was not obtained on the Potency scales when the expectations of moderate and low authoritarian males were also violated by the female applicants. The most logical answer would appear to be that beliefs about male and female differences on these characteristics are more entrenched and less easily reversed.

One additional finding from the analysis of the summed Activity scales and Factor 3 scores remains to be explained. That is, the finding that high authoritarian males and females differed in their ratings of applicants. In the analysis of summed Activity scales, high authoritarian females rated

all applicants as more active than did high authoritarian males, while in the analysis of Factor 3 scores this difference occurred only in the rating of female applicants. It would appear, then, that high authoritarian females did not share the belief of their male counterparts that the female applicants lacked the characteristics comprising Factor 3. Nevertheless, high authoritarian females devalued female applicants on the summed Evaluative scales, and chose male applicants more often than did low authoritarian females. The conclusion tentatively drawn from this pattern of responses is that high authoritarian females may be exhibiting an anti-female bias, not because of their stereotypic beliefs about males and females, but because they regard other females as a threat to their own success. Thus these women resemble in some ways the "Queen Bee" described earlier.

#### Results of the Interpersonal Judgement Scale

The results of the analysis of the IJS #1 scores indicated that both high authoritarian females and moderate authoritarian males were more willing to supervise all applicants than were high authoritarian males. No ready explanation accounts for these findings. However, it is possible that for high authoritarian females the opportunity to supervise other employees represents a status symbol as well as a chance to exercise their personal power. While it might have been predicted that high authoritarian males would also be concerned with these issues, Wilkinson's discussion of the development of inferiority feelings in authoritarian females provides a possible explanation for this discrepancy. According to this hypothesis,

authoritarian females, socialized in a milieu which encourages them to adopt a subservient role while at the same time glorifying male qualities, may seek ways of maintaining an appearance of exaggerated femininity and simultaneously escape from this undesirable position. Gaining authority over others may provide such an opportunity, and may thus be more important to these women than to authoritarian males. On the other hand, high authoritarian males may have felt that supervising a relatively low level position such as AT would be demeaning. The difference between moderate and high authoritarian males is amenable to a similar explanation. The moderate male group may be more agreeable in general, and less reticent to supervise employees in such low level positions. They may also be more willing to supervise an individual when the supervision requires considerable personal involvement in training the employee.

#### Analysis of Subjects' Selection Decisions

The results of the chi-square analyses of subjects' choice of a male or female applicant as their first choice to hire indicated that both high authoritarian males and females chose more male than female applicants as their first choice to hire. Among male subjects the difference between high and moderate males reached significance, but that between high and low males did not. Among females this difference was significant for high and low but not for high and moderate groups. Both the low authoritarian male and moderate authoritarian female groups were nearly equally divided in their choices. It would thus appear that while the high authoritarians of both sexes were biased in a pro-male direction, the moderate males and low females exhibited a similar

pro-female bias. At least two interpretations of these results are plausible. One is that these two groups actually prefer female managers and value the unique qualities that women bring to the management setting. The other is that they are responding to the current feminist concern with women's rights and are attempting in their selection decisions, to make up for previous injustices. It is still unclear, however, as to why moderate rather than low authoritarian males showed this pro-female response.

In general, the results of this analysis are consistent with those of a number of other studies indicating a preference for males over females in the final selection decision (Rosen & Jerdee, 1974b; Fleming, Note 4; Jones, Note 5), however, it would appear that this preference may not be as widespread as first claimed. The results of the discriminant function analysis in this study indicate that individuals who prefer a male or a female applicant may be distinguished on the basis of certain variables, the most important of which relate to personality and attitudinal characteristics. Furthermore, the present study offers the additional information derived by having assessed subjects' judgements of job applicants on relevant meaning dimensions prior to the actual selection decision. From this information it may be inferred that the preference of high authoritarian subjects for a male rather than a female applicant follows directly from these individuals' judgements of females as less active (i.e. stimulating, sharp, decisive, creative, and fast) and hence as less valuable than male applicants.

#### Results of the Analyses of Demographic Variables

With regards to the AWS, it was noted that the scores of the sample

used in this research were somewhat more liberal than expected. Several possible explanations for this finding are apparent. First, the group could, in fact be more liberal than the population in general. This, however, seems unlikely on an intuitive basis. Secondly, since subjects were Federal employees who were probably aware of their employer's current concern with the status of women, they may have been motivated by a desire to respond in a socially acceptable fashion. Thirdly, and probably most plausible, is the inadequacies of the AWS itself. These have been discussed extensively already by Collins (Note 11) who points out the inadequate liberal ceiling of the scale. particularly in view of the rapid change in publicly-expressed attitudes in general on this issue over the past five years. Use of the newly-developed liberal items suggested by Collins might have produced a more normal distribution of subjects in the present study.

The expected relationship between authoritarianism and conservative attitudes toward women was found. This result supports and enhances the generalizability of similar results from other studies (Centers, 1963; Pawlicki & Almquist, 1973; Worrell & Worrell, 1971). In addition, the scores on the AWS were found to be related to age and experience, and to father's occupation for male subjects; however, AWS scores were not related to father's occupation for female subjects nor to mother's occupation for subjects of either sex. The finding that liberal AWS scores were associated with being younger and less experienced is in contradiction to the results reported by some other studies (Samara, Note 1). Samara found that younger teachers held more rigid stereotypes

about sex roles than did older, more experienced teachers. Samara's teachers, however, differ from the subjects in this study in that they occupied roles which required that they exert a direct socializing influence on children, a responsibility that may have been taken more seriously by younger teachers who are less self-assured and who are thus probably quicker to react to what might be deviant role behavior. The positive relationship observed in this study between AWS and age and experience is understandable since younger ( and hence less experienced) individuals are more likely to have been influenced by the gradual shift in sex role definitions over the past two decades and by the impact of the women's liberation movement.

The relationship for male subjects between liberal attitudes toward women and father having a white collar occupation supports the contention that individuals from middle class homes draw fewer distinctions between sex roles than do those from working class backgrounds (Minuchin, 1965). That this held for male and not female subjects may have been due to two considerations. First, the women in this study have, by the very fact that they are working, discarded certain beliefs about the appropriate feminine role. This in turn is related to the second observation, that AWS scores for female subjects were even more liberal than expected. Moreover, AWS scores for female subjects were even more liberal than those of males. These two facts may have attenuated any existing relationship between AWS scores of female subjects and father's occupation.

Having a working rather than a homemaker mother has previously been related to holding more liberated attitudes toward sex roles, particularly

among women. No such relationship was found in this study. It is felt, however, that this may be partly due to the limited information that was available concerning the circumstances surrounding maternal employment. Thus, no distinction was made between mothers who worked by choice and those who worked out of necessity. The use of finer distinctions in categorizing maternal employment might have yielded other results. In support of this interpretation are the results cited in a review by Hicks and Platt (1970) of studies related to marital satisfaction. The authors point out that subjects' reports of marital satisfaction may not only be related to whether or not the wife works, but to whether she works out of choice or out of necessity.

A relationship was also noted between scores on the Revised F Scale for male subjects and mother's occupation, with high authoritarian males more frequently having a homemaker mother than moderate authoritarian males. The difference between high and low authoritarian males, while in the same direction, was not significant. This result is understandable in view of the dichotomy of sex roles that is believed to characterize the authoritarian family, in which the woman's place is most definitely in the home. A similar relationship was not found between authoritarianism and mother's occupation for female subjects. This finding may again be attributable to the fact that the female sample is unique, being composed entirely of working women who probably have a somewhat different personal history from that of females in general.

In final summary, the results of the study bear several important implications for the body of social psychological theory. First, a clear relationship has been demonstrated between the measured trait of authoritarianism and the differential evaluation of male and female stimulus persons. Secondly, this assessment has been shown to result in discriminatory treatment of females in the form of a hiring decision. A clear link has thus been established between the psychological domains of attitude and behavior. Not only do individuals differ in the degree of stereotypy with which they perceive men and women, but they use these perceptions as the basis of judgements and actions vis à vis individual persons.

#### Conclusions and Implications for Future Research

In conclusion, the findings of this study suggest the importance of considering certain subject variables, and in particular attitudinal and personality variables in any attempt to delineate the determinants of sex-linked biases. From the analyses of the semantic differential instrument it would appear that authoritarian individuals of both sexes differentiate between males and females in a manner which over-values males in spite of judging males and females equal with regards to responsibility, competence, and intelligence. In addition, authoritarian males regard females as lacking in important qualities indicative of activity (i.e. that females are less stimulating, sharp, decisive and creative) than males. These differences

in judgements are related to a preference for male over female applicants in making a final selection decision.

Future research efforts might well be concentrated on exploring the generalizability of these findings (1) to selection processes at higher managerial levels; (2) to processes beyond the selection decision such as employee promotion, development, and supervision; and (3) to other areas besides the employment setting such as vocational counselling. If authoritarianism is a relatively stable and enduring characteristic of individuals, its influence may be expected to emerge in these situations as well. Furthermore, contrary to the argument of Terborg and Ilgen (1975) that the influence of sex role stereotypes may be expected to diminish with increased contact with female employees, the authoritarian individual may be relatively impervious to such influences and may be even more discriminating in dealing with females as they begin to advance up the career ladder.

An important difference also emerged in this study between male and female high authoritarians. Results suggest that high authoritarian females may be devaluing women, not because they regard them as lacking in certain necessary managerial qualities, but because they view other women as a threat to their own positions. Administrators and those concerned with pinpointing the sources of discrimination in employment settings might well be cautioned against concluding that it is only males (furthermore, that it is all males) who are the source of barriers to female equality.

The use of the AWS in the present study served to strengthen the proposed link between the general complex of characteristics labelled authoritarianism

and a more specific attitudinal component involving beliefs about the rights and roles of women. Given the somewhat inadequate liberal ceiling of this scale as noted in the analysis of scores, future researchers using similar populations might consider using several newly developed items intended to alleviate this problem (Collins, Note 11). Furthermore, with the continued investigation of the factor structure of this scale in its full length version, the use of the now somewhat unstable subscales may become more feasible. This would allow a clearer understanding of those particular areas in which authoritarians differ in their beliefs regarding women. Such knowledge may be useful in developing and disseminating programs of attitude change among personnel administrators.

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APPENDIX A  
Revised F Scale

The following are statements with which some people agree and others disagree. Please mark each one in the left margin, according to the amount of your agreement or disagreement, by using the following scale:

- |                     |                        |
|---------------------|------------------------|
| +1 slightly agree   | -1 slightly disagree   |
| +2 moderately agree | -2 moderately disagree |
| +3 strongly agree   | -3 strongly disagree   |

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. Nowadays more and more people are prying into matters that should remain personal and private.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. It is highly unlikely that astrology will ever be able to explain anything.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. No weakness or difficulty can hold us back if we have enough will power.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. If it weren't for the rebellious ideas of youth, there would be less progress in the world.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. It is essential for learning or effective work that our teachers or bosses outline in detail what is to be done and exactly how to do it.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 6. Sex crimes, such as rape and attacks on children, deserve more than mere imprisonment; such criminals ought to be publicly whipped or worse.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 7. Most people don't realize how much our lives are controlled by plots hatched in secret places.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 8. What youth needs most is strict discipline, rugged determination, and the will to work and fight for family and country.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 9. In spite of what you read about the wild sex life of people in important places, the real story is about the same in any group of people.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 10. Every person should have complete faith in some supernatural power whose decisions he obeys without question.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 11. Books and movies ought to give a more realistic picture of life even if they show that evil sometimes triumphs over good.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 12. The artist and professor are probably more important to society than the businessman or manufacturer.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 13. An urge to jump from high places is probably the result of unhappy personal experiences rather than something inborn.

- \_\_\_\_\_ 14. Most of our social problems would be solved if we could somehow get rid of the immoral, crooked, and feebleminded people.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 15. No sane, normal, decent person could ever think of hurting \* a close friend or relative.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 16. One of the most important things children should learn is when to disobey authorities.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 17. People ought to pay more attention to new ideas, even if they seem to go against the Canadian way of life.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 18. Human nature being what it is, there will always be war and conflict.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 19. Most honest people admit to themselves that they have sometimes hated their parents.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 20. The findings of science may someday show that many of our most cherished beliefs are wrong.

APPENDIX B  
Biographical Questionnaire

The information requested below will be helpful in carrying out a detailed analysis of the data collected in this study. You will not be asked to identify yourself by name, but merely to supply the relevant factual information.

Thank you for your cooperation.

JOB CLASSIFICATION: \_\_\_\_\_

NUMBER OF YEARS IN PRESENT CLASSIFICATION: \_\_\_\_\_

TOTAL NUMBER OF YEARS EXPERIENCE IN A POSITION RELATED TO  
EMPLOYEE SELECTION AND EVALUATION: \_\_\_\_\_

AGE: \_\_\_\_\_

MARITAL STATUS: \_\_\_\_\_

FATHER'S OCCUPATION (during major portion of working years):

\_\_\_\_\_

MOTHER'S OCCUPATION (during major portion of working years):

\_\_\_\_\_

APPENDIX C  
Scripts of Job Applicant Interviews

## MALE APPLICANT #1

INTERVIEWER (I):

DANIEL FERGUSON (DF):

I: Mr. Ferguson, I'd like you to tell us something about your courses up to now in University. How have they helped you to prepare for your career?

DF: I decided to do a Bachelor of Commerce degree because it gave me a broad background in business and administration, and at the same time I could take courses in personnel administration which is the thing I'm most interested in.

I: Which courses in your program have you found most valuable?

DF: The courses in personnel administration have been really helpful. They've covered everything from manpower planning to performance appraisal. I guess I like things that are practical rather than theoretical.

I: While you've been in University, how have you spent your evenings and free time?

DF: Well, I like to be outdoors - scuba-diving, playing hockey. I'm a nature person. I also read a lot, mainly biographies on political figures and oceanography - that's a side interest of mine. At school last year I was educational activities chairman for the last two semesters.

I: What kinds of duties did you have as activities chairman?

DF: Well, I was responsible for contacting people in business and government to be guest speakers at the monthly meetings of the Commerce Club - that's a school organization in our Faculty. I also helped out in a kind of week-end seminar where people from major companies would come and talk about working in their organization.

I: I see your summer job last year was as a research assistant. What see you learn about personnel administration from that?

DF: That was really the first chance I've had to see what it is really like in a personnel office. My job changed from week to week, so what I was doing at times was pretty trivial. But at other times it was quite an experience. For example, last summer my supervisor asked me if I'd like to sit in on an interviewing session and that allowed me to develop some interviewing skills.

- I: From what you've seen of personnel work, what is your idea of a good personnel administrator?
- DF: Probably the most important quality in a personnel administrator would be the ability to encourage people to do their work well, let them be independent and not be constantly hovering over them every minute of the day. I know I don't like that and I'm sure other people don't enjoy it either. People like to think that you have confidence in them.
- I: What do you find most attractive about the idea of working in personnel administration?
- DF: Well, I like working with people rather than ideas and things. It's an area where I can see the results of my work and where I can develop my talents. It's a field that's fast changing and people are no longer satisfied simply with a paycheck, they expect other kinds of job satisfaction.
- I: What particular aspect of personnel administration are you interested in?
- DF: I haven't had much experience, so I haven't given that much thought. But I have found Staffing to be quite interesting.
- I: From your point of view, Mr. Ferguson, what's the greatest personal asset you would bring to a position like personnel administrator?
- DF: The greatest personal asset I think that I could offer is the ability to work hard and to have an open mind to learning new things.
- I: And how about things that cause you difficulty? What would you consider your greatest liability as an employee?
- DF: Well, I find it hard to stick to things that are boring and repetitive . . . assembly line work, for example, I wouldn't be very good at.
- I: If you were in a supervisory position, say a personnel administrator, how would you handle a situation where one of the clerks in your office was always coming in late?
- DF: Well, we couldn't let this go on very long, because other people in the office would say, 'Why is this guy getting away with this and we can't.' I would take this person apart, privately, and ask him what was wrong. It would sort of depend on whether he was always late or whether he was usually on time in the past and had suddenly started slacking off. It would depend on the circumstances interfering with his work. After we had talked the situation over, I think I would then make my decision.

## MALE APPLICANT #2

INTERVIEWER (I):

GERALD BRADLEY (GB):

I: Mr. Bradley, I'd be interested to hear something about your course work in University. Has there been any part of that that you've found particularly useful?

GB: Well, I've been generally satisfied with the courses I've taken. I took a broad variety of courses, during the first and second year especially, and I can't think of any that weren't necessary. I guess the ones I enjoyed the most were those in industrial relations and staff development because they involve working with people.

I: Are there any courses or aspects of the program which you disliked?

GB: That's hard to say because there were a lot of courses I took at the time that I didn't like taking, but I'm glad I did take them. I guess the courses in accounting were those that I didn't like because I didn't find them interesting and they were difficult.

I: What about when you're not in school, how do you occupy yourself in your free time?

GB: I do some lay-outs for the student year book. I also do some rock-collecting, and reading on the subject. I also enjoy horseback riding, I do that as often as I can.

I: I see you've also put down that you've spent some time as Co-chairman of the Faculty Orientations Committee. What kinds of duties did that involve?

GB: The committee was set up to introduce a program to welcome the in-coming first year students. Basically what we do is set up academic and social gatherings for these students and make them feel at home. We did most of the preparation during the spring and summer and we also had some third and fourth year students come in - they volunteered their services to correspond with these students before they came to the University. We've gotten some pretty good feedback from the students who went through the orientation so we think it was a success.

I: Mr. Bradley, I'd like to hear something about your summer job as a student assistant for the management consultant firm. Has your experience there been helpful in preparing you for a career?

- GB: Yes, I think so. I spent most of my time last summer doing research for a firm who would be using the information to develop a career orientation program for their personnel. It was a new phase in their personnel services so I got to see the planning and carrying out of the whole program. I think it was useful because now at least I know something of what goes on in a personnel office.
- I: Having had that experience in a personnel office, do you have any idea of what aspect of personnel administration you'd eventually like to get into?
- GB: That's hard to say because I think that there are a lot of areas that I really enjoy . . . I guess something dealing with Staff Development and Training.
- I: In your opinion, how would a good manager approach the area of Staff Development and Training?
- GB: Well, he'd have to have a good knowledge of all the opportunities, and know how to get information across to people. He'd have to know something about human communications, how to evaluate his program - whether he really is getting across to people as quickly as possible.
- I: What kinds of personal qualities do you have that you feel would be valuable in a personnel position, especially something in Development and Training?
- GB: I've had some experience in working with the media, I have a good idea of what goes into that. I also like to be in a teaching situation where I'm getting information across to people.
- I: Is there anything about yourself that you feel might be a drawback as an employee?
- GB: Well, I like to work . . . if there's not enough work or if I'm not doing enough work, I'll go out and look for something. I suppose that might cause some problems.
- I: How would you handle this type of situation . . . say several of the of the employees in your office came to you and they were complaining about someone who was their immediate supervisor, they wanted you to speak to this person, for example. How would you handle this situation?
- GB: That's touchy, because it's important not to take sides. I guess what I would do would be to listen to their complaints and once I'd done that, see the person involved and hear his or her story. I guess the next thing to do would be to get them in a group and discuss the problem. I've found that in a group situation with all the channels of communication open, without any outside interference, there's usually some decision and understanding to come out of it. It's important to get this type of thing out of the way as quickly as possible before it gets out of hand.

## FEMALE APPLICANT #1

INTERVIEWER (I):

KAREN MILLER (KM):

I: Miss Miller, I see that you are taking a Bachelor of Commerce degree in University. What aspect of your program have you enjoyed the most?

KM: I think that there are two aspects that I found quite interesting. The first aspect would be the personnel-related courses which is the area I would eventually like to get into; the second would be finance. I was quite interested in my financial administration and accounting courses this year, and I enjoy the challenge of working to make up a budget.

I: Looking back, is there any part of your program that you would have changed if you had had the opportunity?

KM: No, I don't think so, I was quite satisfied with my program this year. Oh, but perhaps there should be an internship in the classes, more emphasis on students getting work-related experience. Maybe if a student could get a job with a company and get course credit for it, it would prove beneficial.

I: I see that you have a number of interests outside your studies . . . could you tell us a bit about those?

KM: Yes, well I read quite a lot, and I'm also interested in antique bottles. I have a fair number of them . . . I collect them. And if I can't afford to collect them, I talk to people who have collections. I'm also a volunteer on the University radio station. I'm an announcer, or, if I'm not doing that, I just work doing whatever has to be done.

I: You are also a member of the Student Services Committee . . . what do you do in that capacity?

KM: The committee itself is in charge of all student services, such as the cafeteria, and the counsellors in the residences who are in charge of each floor. It depends on the matters at hand . . . we discuss things like the quality of the food in the cafeteria, if the counsellors are available to the students or not. We have the power to change things, like getting a new food service in the cafeteria.

I: Miss Miller, have you held any jobs over the summer that you feel have been particularly valuable as far as preparing you for your career?

- KM: Well, just recently, this summer I was hired by a temporary employment agency. They had an employment service where businesses and companies could fill the gaps in their personnel when people went on summer holidays. I would answer the phones, take requests on the phone, and interview people who were looking for jobs. I'd also make decisions with the help of my supervisor on which people were suited for which particular job. I thought it was quite a valuable experience in learning to deal with people.
- I: Have you had any opportunity to think about what aspect of personnel administration you might be interested in?
- KM: I haven't thought about it too much at this point, but I'm quite interested in Staff Relations. I think a person would really have to be exposed to the field before making a decision.
- I: What are some of the personal qualities you like to see in a manager, say someone in personnel administration?
- KM: I think that anyone in that situation would really have to be able to communicate with people, and shouldn't isolate himself. If you isolate yourself, there's a pretty good chance that you wouldn't know what is going on in your office. I also think that it's important that when you communicate with people you don't put the person off, particularly in unpleasant matters that have to be discussed.
- I: In terms of your own personal assets, what do you think would be your greatest contribution to a position like personnel administrator?
- KM: I think one asset would be that I listen well. I'm also quite thorough. I want all the facts in front of me before I reach a decision.
- I: How about drawbacks? Is there anything that causes you difficulty?
- KM: Perhaps one drawback would be that I have to have order in anything that I do. If something isn't well organized, then I have to stop and organize it before I can do any work.
- I: How about a situation like the following: Say an employee in your office is causing you difficulty because he or she tends to work in a disorganized fashion. How would you handle the situation?
- KM: I think you'd have to analyze it in terms of its consequences. If I was the only one having difficulty with this person, and if he was getting his work done, even though it was in a disorganized manner, I guess I would just have to learn to live with it, there would be nothing I could do. But if he was interfering with the general efficiency of the office, like disrupting people and his work wasn't up to par, then I think I'd just have to take him aside and try to get him to put some order into his work. I think you'd really have to play this by ear. It depends on the circumstances involved.

## FEMALE APPLICANT #2

INTERVIEWER (I):

MARY HAMILTON (MH):

I: Miss Hamilton, in what way have the courses you've taken helped to prepare you for your career?

MH: Well, the courses I've taken have mainly combined practical approaches and theory. For instance, one of the courses I took in personnel management required us to study the approaches to job specification and evaluation. We were required to do a project in this course where we, individually, drew up job specifications for certain jobs, in hopes of giving us first-hand information about the area.

I: Are there any courses in your curriculum that you have particularly disliked?

MH: Well, taxation was one of the courses I took, and the material was rather dry and there's not too much you can do with it to make it interesting. However, most of my courses have been in personnel management, which is my interest.

I: What sorts of extra-curricular activities have you participated in while you've been in University?

MH: I was a reporter on the school newspaper at one time and I really enjoyed that job because it kept me in touch with the views of the students on certain problems. I find that sometimes, if your busy, you tend to lose contact with the students' views and with what's going on in the student environment. I also was a member of the volleyball team at one time and I'm currently a member of the Faculty Selections Committee.

I: What kinds of things were you involved in as a member of the Selections Committee?

MH: Well, the committee itself meets once a month, and it discusses criteria for selecting new students to the Faculty of Management Sciences. It's also responsible for hiring new faculty members. It's been a good experience for me because I've gotten to know the faculty better, and also, it had given me a chance to express my views in the area as well.

I: Have any of your summer jobs been particularly valuable in terms of preparing you for your career?

MH: The only job that has dealt with management sciences at all was my last summer's job where I work as an intern for an insurance company. There I worked with a group of people and I collected personnel data to design an in-service training program for the company. Once the data was collected I worked along with the others and wrote up the report.

I: You've indicated an interest in personnel administration. What aspects of that field do you find most attractive and why?

MH: Well, I like to be of service to other people and I find that personnel management fulfills this function. Also, it gives me a sense of accomplishment when I deal with people and their problems. Right now the area of Staff Relations and Development interests me and I hope to go into it.

I: What do you think would be your greatest strength as an administrator?

MH: People tell me that I have a lot of patience with people, so I guess that would count in my favor. I also really like working with people . . . it gives me a great deal of pleasure.

I: Do you think that there are any aspects of personnel administration that you might not like?

MH: The only part that I think would be a bit tedious would be the paper work. It takes a lot of time, and I don't find it terribly worthwhile. I like dealing with people more.

I: Have you ever had a boss or a supervisor whom you particularly admired, and what things about that person did you admire the most?

MH: Hmm . . . I never had a boss or a supervisor whom I particularly admired, but I worked closely with two people at one point and I really admired them because when they dealt with their clients they made them feel like they were really being listened to and really being understood. When you're dealing with people that's most necessary, because a positive relationship between the two people is important.

I: How would you handle a situation in which you, as an administrator, had to sell an idea to your staff that you knew they weren't going to like?

MH: I'd first have to look at the idea and decide what their objections to the idea would be, and then I'd work on figuring out the advantages of the idea. Then when I presented the idea to them I'd make it seem as if the disadvantages were a lot less than the advantages. It's necessary in such a situation to make a good argument for the idea or it's just not going to be accepted. I guess I'd also approach them individually before any meeting in hopes of giving them some positive attitudes toward the idea.

APPENDIX D

Factor Loadings of Semantic Differential Scales

Table 1  
Rotated Factor Loadings of Osgood Scales

Scales	Evaluative	Factor	
		Potency	Activity
<u>Evaluative</u>			
good-bad	.88	.05	.09
valuable-worthless	.79	.04	.13
fair-unfair	.83	.08	-.07
<u>Potency</u>			
strong-weak	.19	.62	.20
hard-soft	-.48	.55	.16
rugged-delicate	-.42	.60	.26
<u>Activity</u>			
active-passive	.14	.04	.59
sharp-dull	.23	.07	.52
fast-slow	.01	.00	.70

<sup>a</sup>from Osgood, C., Suci, G. & Tannenbaum, P. The measurement of meaning. Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois Press, 1957.

APPENDIX E  
Semantic Differential Instrument

On the following pages you will be asked to rate your concept of the appropriate employee skills and qualities required for a particular job position. You will be given a description of the position and a set of adjective scales on which to record your ratings. Each scale will be defined by a pair of adjectives and will be divided into seven steps.

If you feel that your concept of the appropriate employee skills and qualities for the described position is very closely related to one end of the scale, you should place your checkmark as follows:

brave    ✓ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_    cowardly

OR

brave    \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : ✓    cowardly

If you feel that your concept of the appropriate employee skills and qualities is quite closely related to one or the other end of the scale (but not extremely) you should place your checkmark as follows:

cruel    \_\_\_\_\_ : ✓ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_    kind

OR

cruel    \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : ✓ : \_\_\_\_\_    kind

If you feel that your concept of the appropriate employee skills and qualities is slightly related to one side as opposed to the other (but is not really neutral), then you should check as follows:

honest    \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : ✓ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_    dishonest

OR

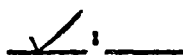
honest    \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : ✓ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_    dishonest

If you consider your concept of the appropriate employee skills and qualities for the described position to be neutral on the scale, both sides of the scale equally associated with the concept, or if one scale is completely irrelevant, then you should place your checkmark in the middle space:

pleasant    \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : ✓ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_    unpleasant

IMPORTANT:

- (1) Place your checkmark in the middle of spaces, not on the boundaries:



THIS



NOT THIS

- (2) Be sure to check every scale -- do not omit any.
- (3) Never put more than one mark on any single scale.

Sometimes you may feel as though you have had the same item before on the questionnaire. In any event, do not look back and forth through the items. Do not try to remember how you checked similar items. Make each item a separate and independent judgement. Work at a fairly high speed. Do not worry or puzzle over the scales. It is your first impression that is of interest. On the other hand, please do not be careless, because we want your true impressions.

ADMINISTRATIVE TRAINEE : PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION

The position to be considered is that of an Administrative Trainee (AT) within the area of Personnel Administration (PE).

Individuals recruited into the Administrative Trainee Program participate in a two-year on-the-job training program aimed at developing effective, bilingual administrators with management skill in specific fields such as program administration, personnel administration, financial administration, administrative services, organization and methods, information services, purchasing and supply or commerce officers.

The aim of the AT program is to select the best candidate from among these University graduates indicating a potential for leadership and an aptitude for organizational work. Following an initial period of orientation in which AT's consider a variety of administrative positions within various departments, each is offered a specific position, usually in the individual's area of interest.

Administrative Trainees expressing an interest in the area of Personnel Administration may expect to work in one of the following fields: Staffing, Human Resources and Planning, Employee Training and Development, Staff Relations, and Classification and Compensation. They also work as generalists, combining several of these specialties.

Please use the rating scale which you will find on the following page to describe your concept of the appropriate employee skills and qualities required for the position of Administrative Trainee within the area of Personnel Administration.

ADMINISTRATIVE TRAINEE: PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION

dependent	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	independent
dull	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	sharp
strong	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	weak
incompetent	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	competent
submissive	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	dominant
fair	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	unfair
good	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	bad
unattractive	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	attractive
soft	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	hard
subjective	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	objective
mature	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	immature
masculine	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	feminine
hardworking	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	lazy
worthless	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	valuable
decisive	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	indecisive
active	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	passive
responsible	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	irresponsible
slow	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	fast
intelligent	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	unintelligent
impractical	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	practical
unaggressive	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	aggressive
calm	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	excitable
delicate	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	rugged
boring	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	stimulating
creative	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	noncreative

Having rated your concept of the appropriate employee skills and qualities for the job position of ADMINISTRATIVE TRAINEE, you will now be presented with four applicants for that position. You will be provided with a resumé of the applicant's personal data and a brief videotaped segment of the applicant being interviewed for the described position. Following the presentation of the interview you will be asked to rate the applicant on a rating scale using the identical procedure as previously. Please remember to take all of the information into consideration before you make your judgement and do not complete the items on the rating scale until the videotap segment is completed. Judge each applicant independently, bearing in mind the description of the job for which the individual is being considered.

NAME: Daniel Ferguson

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WORK EXPERIENCE:

May 1973-August 1973	Fairlane Hotel	Bellhop
May 1974-August 1974	YMCA Summer Camp	Youth Counselor
May 1975-August 1975	Eastern Electric Co.	Research Assistant

EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND:

September 1972-June 1976	University of Ottawa Faculty of Management Sciences Bachelor of Commerce (Honors)
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EXTRA-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES, OFFICES HELD, HOBBIES:

Chairman of Educational Activities Committee - Commerce Club  
Secretary - Scuba diving club  
Reading  
Oceanography  
Hockey  
Scuba Diving



NAME: Karen Miller

WORK EXPERIENCE:

May 1973- August 1973	Finley's Department Store	Clerk
May 1974- August 1974	University Radio Station	Announcer
May 1975-August 1975	Kleinast Employment Agency	Employment Counselor

EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND:

September 1972-June 1976	University of Ottawa Faculty of Management Sciences Bachelor of Commerce (Honors)
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EXTRA-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES, OFFICES HELD, HOBBIES:

Student Representative - Student Services Committee

Announcer - University Radio Station

Reading

Antique-hunting

Swimming

Ballet

## KAREN MILLER

irresponsible	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	responsible
valuable	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	worthless
indecisive	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	decisive
sharp	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	dull
masculine	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	feminine
unfair	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	fair
independent	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	dependent
attractive	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	unattractive
hardworking	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	lazy
aggressive	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	unaggressive
passive	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	active
stimulating	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	boring
practical	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	impractical
submissive	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	dominant
excitable	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	calm
competent	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	incompetent
objective	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	subjective
slow	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	fast
bad	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	good
hard	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	soft
weak	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	strong
mature	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	immature
intelligent	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	unintelligent
rugged	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	delicate
noncreative	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	creative

NAME: Gerald Bradley

WORK EXPERIENCE:

May 1973- August 1973	Red Coach Inn	Waiter
May 1974- August 1974	Hills Riding Academy	Riding Instructor
May 1975- August 1975	Simms Management Consultants	Student Assistant

EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND:

September 1972-June 1976	University of Ottawa Faculty of Management Sciences Bachelor of Commerce (Honors)
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EXTRA-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES, OFFICES HELD, HOBBIES:

Co-Chairman - Management Sciences Faculty Orientation Committee  
 Assistant Editor - Student Yearbook  
 Reading  
 Gemology - rock collectin  
 Horseback riding  
 Squash

responsible	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	irresponsible
strong	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	weak
dull	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	sharp
rugged	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	delicate
unaggressive	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	aggressive
good	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	bad
incompetent	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	competent
independent	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	dependent
practical	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	impractical
noncreative	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	creative
hardworking	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	lazy
submissive	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	dominant
feminine	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	masculine
active	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	passive
immature	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	mature
subjective	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	objective
hard	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	soft
calm	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	excitable
unfair	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	fair
slow	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	fast
decisive	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	indecisive
intelligent	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	unintelligent
unattractive	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	attractive
valuable	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	worthless
boring	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	stimulating

NAME: Mary Hamilton

WORK EXPERIENCE:

May 1973-August 1973	Parkhill Medical Clinic	Receptionist
May 1974-August 1974	Newman DayCamp	Youth Counselor
May 1975-August 1975	Dow Life Insurance Co. Personnel Division	Student Intern

EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND:

September 1972-June 1976	University of Ottawa Faculty of Management Sciences Bachelor of Commerce (Honors)
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EXTRA-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES, OFFICES HELD, HOBBIES:

Student Representative - Faculty Selection Committee

Reporter - Student Newspaper

Reading

Astronomy

Volleyball

Bicycling



APPENDIX F  
Interpersonal Judgement Scales

---

CHECK ONE:

1.  I feel that I would probably like supervising this person very much.  
 I feel that I would probably like supervising this person.  
 I feel that I would probably like supervising this person to a slight degree.  
 I feel that I would probably neither like nor dislike supervising this person.  
 I feel that I would probably dislike supervising this person to a slight degree.  
 I feel that I would probably dislike supervising this person.  
 I feel that I would probably dislike supervising this person very much.

CHECK ONE:

2.  I feel that I would probably very much enjoy working with this person.  
 I feel that I would probably enjoy working with this person.  
 I feel that I would probably enjoy working with this person to a slight degree.  
 I feel that I would neither particularly enjoy nor particularly dislike working with this person.  
 I feel that I would probably dislike working with this person to a slight degree.  
 I feel that I would probably dislike working with this person.  
 I feel that I would probably dislike working with this person very much.

APPENDIX G  
Ranking Form

Having viewed interviews of each job applicant, you will now be asked to consider them as a group. Please rank each of the four applicants below, in the order in which you would hire them, if you were an employer, beginning with your first choice.

1. \_\_\_\_\_
2. \_\_\_\_\_
3. \_\_\_\_\_
4. \_\_\_\_\_

APPENDIX H

Attitudes Toward Women Scale

The statements below describe attitudes toward the role of women in society which different people have. There are no right or wrong answers, only opinions. You are asked to express your feelings about each statement by indicating whether you:

(A) Agree strongly

(C) Disagree mildly

(B) Agree mildly

(D) Disagree strongly

Please indicate your opinion by circling the letter which corresponds to the alternative which best describes your personal attitude. Please respond to every item.

- |   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Swearing and obscenity is more repulsive in the speech of a woman than a man.  | A | B | C | D |
| 2. Women should take increasing responsibility for leadership in solving the intellectual and social problems of the day.   | A | B | C | D |
| 3. Both husband and wife should be allowed the same grounds for divorce.  | A | B | C | D |
| 4. Telling dirty jokes should be mostly a masculine prerogative.  | A | B | C | D |
| 5. Intoxication among women is worse than intoxication among men.   | A | B | C | D |
| 6. Under modern economic conditions with women being active outside the home, men should share in household tasks such as washing the dishes and doing the laundry. | A | B | C | D |
| 7. It is insulting to women to have the "obey" clause remain in the marriage ceremony.  | A | B | C | D |
| 8. There should be a strict merit system in job appointment and promotion without regard to sex.  | A | B | C | D |
| 9. A woman should be as free as a man to propose marriage.  | A | B | C | D |
| 10. Women should worry less about their rights and more about becoming good wives and mothers.  | A | B | C | D |
| 11. Women earning as much as their dates should bear equally the expense when they go out together.   | A | B | C | D |
| 12. Women should assume their rightful place in business and all the professions along with men.  | A | B | C | D |

13. Women should not expect to go to exactly the same places or to have quite the same freedom of action as a man. A B C D
14. Sons in a family should be given more encouragement to go to college than daughters. A B C D
15. It is ridiculous for a woman to run a locomotive and for a man to darn socks. A B C D
16. In general, the father should have greater authority than the mother in the bringing up of the children. A B C D
17. Women should be encouraged not to become sexually intimate with anyone before marriage, even their fiancés. A B C D
18. The husband should not be favored by law over the wife in the disposal of family property or income. A B C D
19. Women should be concerned with their duties of childrearing and housetending, rather than with desires for professional and business careers. A B C D
20. The intellectual leadership of a community should be largely in the hands of men. A B C D
21. Economic and social freedom is worth far more to women than acceptance of the ideal of femininity which has been set by men. A B C D
22. On the average, women should be regarded as less capable of contribution to economic production than are men. A B C D
23. There are many jobs in which men should be given preference over women in being hired and promoted. A B C D
24. Women should be given equal opportunity with men for apprenticeship in the various trades. A B C D
25. The modern girl is entitled to the same freedom from regulation and control that is given to the modern boy. A B C D

APPENDIX I

Analysis of Simple Effects for  
Main Analysis of Evaluative, Potency and Activity Scores

Table 7

Analysis of Simple Effects:  
 Authoritarianism of Subject by Sex of Job Applicant Interaction  
 for Evaluative Scores

Source of Variance	<u>SS</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>
F at A <sub>1</sub> (Male)	3.87	2	1.93	4.49*
F at A <sub>2</sub> (Female)	.12	2	.06	.14
Error (pooled)	66.35	156	.43	
A at F <sub>1</sub> (High)	2.36	1	2.36	12.42**
A at F <sub>2</sub> (Moderate)	.02	1	.02	.11
A at F <sub>3</sub> (Low)	.56	1	.56	2.95
Error	13.93	78	.18	

$$F_{.95} (2,156) = 3.00$$

$$F_{.95} (1,78) = 3.96$$

$$*p < .03$$

$$**p < .001$$

Table 8

Analysis of Simple Effects:  
 Authoritarianism of Subject by Sex of Job Applicant Interaction  
 for Potency Scores

Source of Variance	<u>SS</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>
F at A <sub>1</sub> (Male)	2.49	2	1.25	2.84
F at A <sub>2</sub> (Female)	1.06	2	.53	1.20
Error (pooled)	69.16	156	.44	
A at F <sub>1</sub> (High)	20.45	1	20.45	56.81*
A at F <sub>2</sub> (Moderate)	4.30	1	4.30	11.94*
A at F <sub>3</sub> (Low)	6.52	1	6.52	18.11*
Error	28.31	78	.36	

$F_{.95} (2,156) = 3.00$

$F_{.95} (1,78) = 3.96$

\* $p < .001$

Table 9

Analysis of Simple Effects :  
 Sex of Subject by Authoritarianism of Subject Interaction  
 for Potency Scores

Source of Variance	<u>SS</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>
F at S <sub>1</sub> (Male)	2.79	2	1.39	2.67
F at S <sub>2</sub> (Female)	1.39	2	.69	1.33
S at F <sub>1</sub> (High)	1.28	1	1.28	2.46
S at F <sub>2</sub> (Moderate)	2.78	1	2.78	5.35*
S at F <sub>3</sub> (Low)	.36	1	.36	.69
Error	40.85	78	.52	

$$F_{.95} (1,78) = 3.96$$

$$F_{.95} (2,78) = 3.11$$

\*p < .03

Table 10

Analysis of Simple Effects :  
 Authoritarianism of Subject by Sex of Job Applicant Interaction  
 for Activity Scores

Source of Variance	<u>SS</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>
F at A <sub>1</sub> (Male)	1.30	2	.65	1.48
F at A <sub>2</sub> (Female)	1.78	2	.89	2.02
Error (pooled)	69.02	156	.44	
A at F <sub>1</sub> (High)	3.78	1	3.78	14.00*
A at F <sub>2</sub> (Moderate)	.22	1	.22	.81
A at F <sub>3</sub> (Low)	.11	1	.11	.41
Error	20.96	78	.27	

$$F_{.95} (1,78) = 3.96$$

$$F_{.95} (2,156) = 3.00$$

\* $p < .001$

Table 11

Analysis of Simple Effects:  
Sex of Subject by Authoritarianism of Subject Interaction  
for Activity Scores

Source of Variance	<u>SS</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>
F at S <sub>1</sub> (Male)	3.21	2	1.61	2.60
F at S <sub>2</sub> (Female)	1.29	2	.64	1.03
S at F <sub>1</sub> (High)	2.62	1	2.62	4.23*
S at F <sub>2</sub> (Moderate)	1.40	1	1.40	2.26
S at F <sub>3</sub> (Low)	.54	1	.54	.87
Error	20.96	78	.27	

$F_{.95} (1,78) = 3.96$

$F_{.95} (2,78) = 3.11$

\* $p < .001$

APPENDIX J

Summary of Analysis of Variance  
for Interpersonal Judgement Scales

Table 12

Summary of Analysis of Variance:  
Effects of Sex and Authoritarianism of Subject  
and Sex of Job Applicant  
on IJS #1

Source of Variance	<u>SS</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>
Sex (S)	.05	1	.05	.05
Authoritarianism (F)	1.61	2	.81	.89
S X F	7.58	2	3.79	4.16*
R:SF	70.91	78	.91	
Applicant (A)	1.01	1	.50	.81
S X A	.86	1	.86	1.39
F X A	1.52	2	.76	1.23
S X F X A	.17	2	.08	.13
AR:SF	48.69	78	.62	

$F_{.95} (1,78) = 3.96$

$F_{.95} (2,78) = 3.11$

\* $p < .03$

Table 13

Summary of Analysis of Variance:  
 Effects of Sex and Authoritarianism of Subject  
 and Sex of Job Applicant  
 on IJS #2

Source of Variance	<u>SS</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>
Sex (S)	.79	1	.79	.82
Authoritarianism (F)	1.56	2	.78	.81
S X F	4.82	2	2.41	2.51
R:SF	75.17	78	.96	
Applicant (A)	.04	1	.04	.06
S X A	.01	1	.01	.01
F X A	2.27	2	1.14	1.58
S X F X A	.81	2	.41	.57
AR:SF	56.24	78	.72	

$$F_{.95} (1,78) = 3.96$$

$$F_{.95} (2,78) = 3.11$$

APPENDIX K

Analysis of Simple Effects for  
Interpersonal Judgement Scale #1

Table 14

Analysis of Simple Effects:  
Sex of Subject by Authoritarianism of Subject Interaction  
for IJS #1

Source of Variance	<u>SS</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>
F at S <sub>1</sub> (Male)	7.72	2	3.86	4.24*
F at S <sub>2</sub> (Female)	1.47	2	.74	.81
S at F <sub>1</sub> (High)	5.16	1	5.16	5.67*
S at F <sub>2</sub> (Moderate)	2.36	1	2.36	2.59
S at F <sub>3</sub> (Low)	.11	1	.11	.13
Error	70.91	78	.91	

$F_{.95} (1,78) = 3.96$

$F_{.95} (2,78) = 3.11$

\* $p < .03$

APPENDIX L

Chi-Square Analyses of Choice of Job Applicant

Table 15

Chi-Square Analysis for the Association between Choice of  
Applicant to Hire and Authoritarianism of Male Subjects

Authoritarianism	Sex of Applicant Chosen		Total
	Male	Female	
High	12	2	14
Moderate	4	10	14
Low	7	7	14
Total	23	19	42

$$\chi^2 = 9.42, \underline{df} = 2, \underline{p} < .01$$

$$\text{Contingency Coefficient } (\underline{C}) = .43$$

Table 16

Chi-Square Analysis for the Association between Choice of  
Applicant to Hire and Authoritarianism of Female Subjects

Authoritarianism	Sex of Applicant Chosen		Total
	Male	Female	
High	11	3	14
Moderate	8	6	14
Low	3	11	14
Total	22	20	42

$$\chi^2 = 9.36, \text{ df} = 2, p < .01$$

$$\text{Contingency Coefficient } (C) = .43$$

## APPENDIX M

Communalities, Eigenvalues and Percentage of Variance  
for Semantic Differential Scales

Table 17

Estimated Communalities, Eigenvalues and  
Percentage of Total Variance for Semantic Differential Scales

Scales	Estimated Communality	Factor	Eigenvalue	% of Variance	Cum. % of Variance
responsible-irresponsible	0.65587	1	11.45923	45.8	45.8
valuable-worthless	0.67301	2	2.94762	11.8	57.6
decisive-indecisive	0.70324	3	1.12876	4.5	62.1
sharp-dull	0.70401	4	0.93511	3.7	65.9
masculine-feminine	0.48416	5	0.87925	3.5	69.4
fair-unfair	0.63251	6	0.76522	3.1	72.5
independent-dependent	0.59012	7	0.67561	2.7	75.2
attractive-unattractive	0.47969	8	0.58044	2.3	77.5
hardworking-lazy	0.59035	9	0.56284	2.3	79.7
aggressive-unaggressive	0.66255	10	0.51828	2.1	81.8
active-passive	0.71298	11	0.47850	1.9	83.7
stimulating-boring	0.70903	12	0.46582	1.9	85.6
practical-impractical	0.67290	13	0.42072	1.7	87.3
dominant-submissive	0.67337	14	0.39599	1.6	88.9
excitable-calm	0.30195	15	0.38674	1.5	90.4
competent-incompetent	0.70323	16	0.33917	1.4	91.8
objective-subjective	0.49854	17	0.31702	1.3	93.0
fast-slow	0.63111	18	0.27245	1.1	94.1
good-bad	0.34962	19	0.26825	1.1	95.2
hard-soft	0.62731	20	0.23988	1.0	96.1
strong-weak	0.70217	21	0.22542	0.9	97.1
mature-immature	0.63164	22	0.20786	0.8	97.9
intelligent-unintelligent	0.65169	23	0.20087	0.8	98.7
rugged-delicate	0.60045	24	0.16808	0.7	99.4
creative-noncreative	0.54002	25	0.16072	0.6	100.0

APPENDIX N

Varimax Rotated Factor Matrix for  
Semantic Differential Scales

Table 18  
 Varimax Rotated Factor Matrix  
 for Semantic Differential Scales

Scales	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
responsible-irresponsible	0.77723	0.15908	0.20675
valuable-worthless	0.69697	0.13464	0.34549
decisive-indecisive	0.52339	0.37092	0.52677
sharp-dull	0.45741	0.27937	0.64928
masculine-feminine	-0.00292	0.67299	-0.10028
fair-unfair	0.74361	0.09854	0.22780
independent-dependent	0.26824	0.64691	0.25418
attractive-unattractive	0.55328	-0.00965	0.24692
hardworking-lazy	0.72493	0.24299	0.12517
aggressive-unaggressive	0.09201	0.70053	0.40248
active-passive	0.43998	0.49953	0.49800
stimulating-boring	0.39468	0.23615	0.68872
practical-impractical	0.55815	0.22845	0.51415
dominant-submissive	0.12485	0.72143	0.32143
excitable-calm	-0.46328	-0.02577	-0.00837
competent-incompetent	0.60223	0.12485	0.51236
objective-subjective	0.56126	0.21395	0.28874
fast-slow	0.32571	0.46473	0.51867
good-bad	0.46093	0.09337	0.24264
hard-soft	0.02840	0.72988	0.30394
strong-weak	0.36291	0.50506	0.50743
mature-immature	0.53225	0.19396	0.41783
intelligent-unintelligent	0.65715	0.05067	0.41702
rugged-delicate	0.13844	0.77044	0.05346
creative-noncreative	0.36237	0.29126	0.52489

APPENDIX 0

Summaries of Analyses of Variance of  
Factor Scores on Factor 1-3

Table 19

Summary of Analysis of Variance:  
 Effects of Sex and Authoritarianism of Subject  
 and Sex of Job Applicant  
 on Factor 1 Scores

Source of Variance	<u>SS</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>
Sex (S)	4.89	1	4.89	3.82
Authoritarianism (F)	.21	2	.10	.08
S X F	5.18	2	2.59	2.02
R:SF	100.10	78	1.28	
Applicant (A)	.17	1	.17	.46
S X A	.16	1	.16	.43
F X A	2.11	2	1.05	2.84
S X F X A	.81	2	.40	1.08
AR:SF	28.81	78	.37	

$$F_{.95} (1,78) = 3.96$$

$$F_{.95} (2,78) = 3.11$$

Table 20

Summary of Analysis of Variance:  
 Effects of Sex and Authoritarianism of Subject  
 and Sex of Job Applicant  
 on Factor 2 Scores

Source of Variance	<u>SS</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>
Sex (S)	1.97	1	1.97	4.37*
Authoritarianism (F)	.85	2	.43	.96
S X F	2.05	2	1.02	2.26
R:SF	35.52	78	.45	
Applicant (A)	71.68	1	71.68	188.63**
S X A	.22	1	.22	.58
F X A	1.93	2	.96	2.53
S X F X A	.44	2	.22	.58
AR:SF	29.37	78	.38	

$F_{.95} (1,78) = 3.96$

$F_{.95} (2,78) = 3.11$

\* $p < .05$

\*\* $p < .001$

Table 21  
 Summary of Analysis of Variance:  
 Effects of Sex and Authoritarianism of Subject  
 and Sex of Job Applicant  
 on Factor 3 Scores

Source of Variance	<u>SS</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>
Sex (S)	.28	1	.28	.34
Authoritarianism (F)	1.56	2	.78	.95
S X F	3.77	2	1.89	2.30
R:SF	63.81	78	.82	
Applicant (A)	1.55	1	1.55	2.82
S X A	.01	1	.01	.02
F X A	5.64	2	2.82	5.13*
S X F X A	4.22	2	2.11	3.84*
AR:SF	43.23	78	.55	

$F_{.95} (1,78) = 3.96$

$F_{.95} (2,78) = 3.11$

\* $p < .03$

APPENDIX P

Illustration of Simple Simple Effects Analysis  
for Factor 3

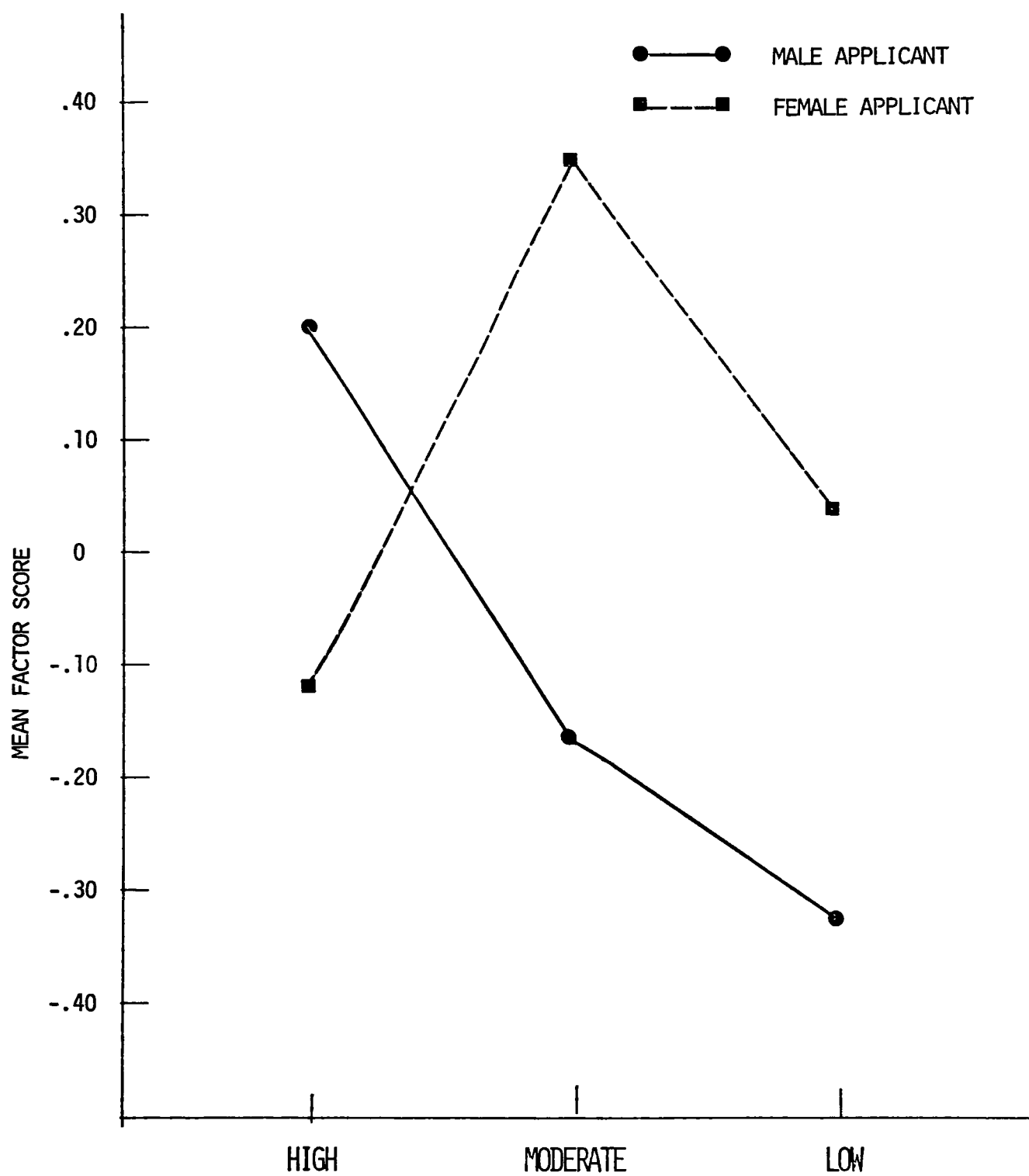


Figure 6. Ratings of male and female job applicants on Factor 3 by high, moderate and low authoritarian male subjects.

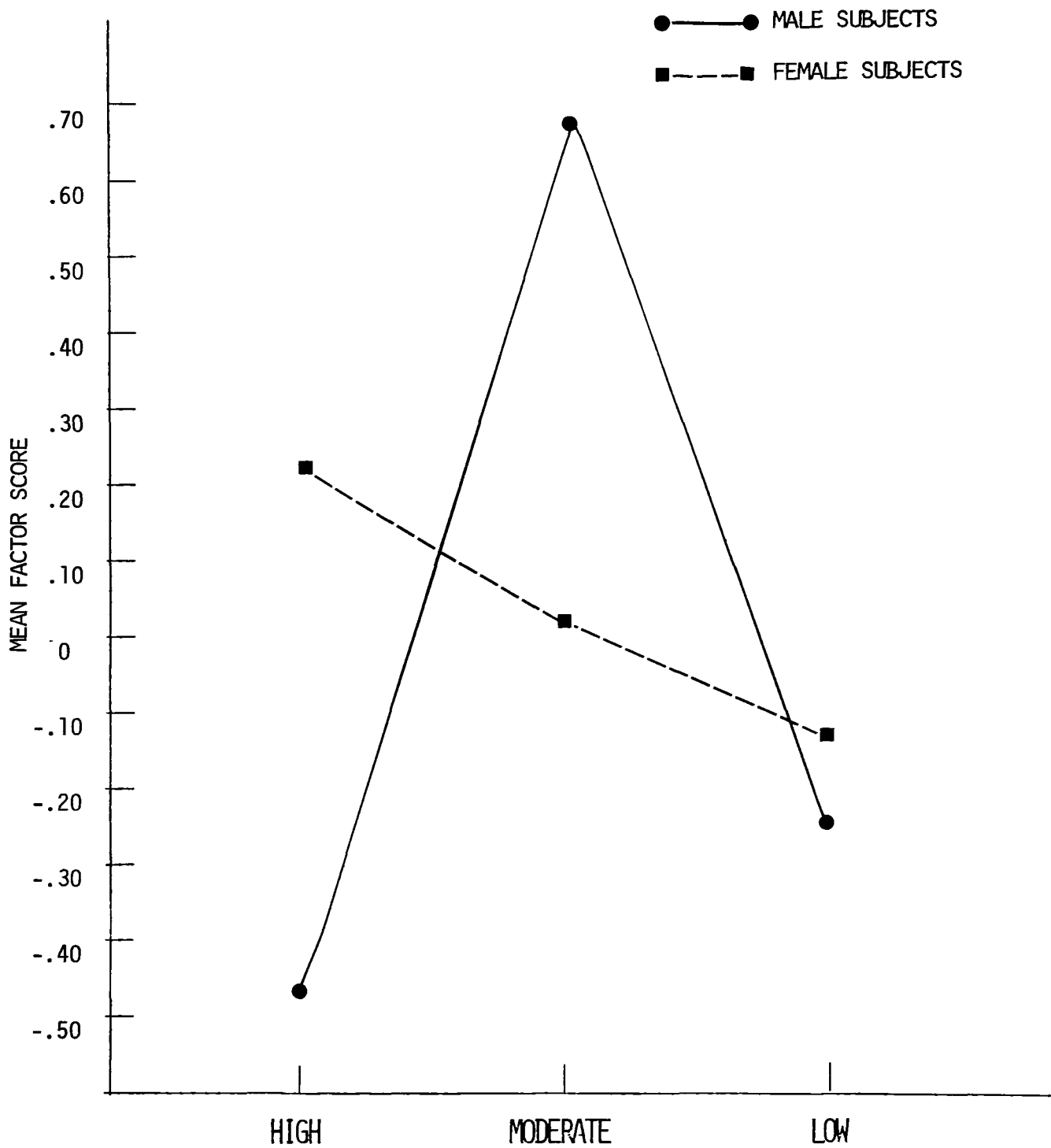


Figure 7. Ratings of female job applicants on Factor 3 by male and female subjects of high, moderate and low authoritarianism groups.

APPENDIX Q

Chi-Square Analyses of Association between  
Authoritarianism and Demographic Variables

Table 22

Chi-Square Analysis for the Association Between Father's  
Occupation<sup>a</sup> and Authoritarianism of Male Subjects

Authoritarianism	Father's Occupation		Total
	White Collar	Blue Collar	
High	10	4	14
Moderate	12	2	14
Low	9	5	14
Total	31	11	42

$$\chi^2 = 1.72, \text{ df} = 2, p > .75$$

<sup>a</sup>White collar = Professional, managerial, clerical, sales.

Blue collar = Service, agriculture, fisheries, forestry, skilled, semiskilled, unskilled laborers.

Table 23

Chi-Square Analysis for the Association between Father's  
Occupation<sup>a</sup> and Authoritarianism of Female Subjects

Authoritarianism	Father's Occupation		Total
	White Collar	Blue Collar	
High	8	6	14
Moderate	8	6	14
Low	10	4	14
Total	26	16	42

$$\chi^2 = .808, \text{ df} = 2, \text{ p} > .75$$

<sup>a</sup>White collar = Professional, managerial, clerical, sales.

Blue collar = Service, agriculture, fisheries, forestry, skilled, semiskilled, unskilled laborers.

Table 24

Chi-Square Analysis for the Association between Mother's  
Occupation and Authoritarianism of Male Subjects

Authoritarianism	Mother's Occupation		Total
	Working	Homemaking	
High	2	12	14
Moderate	9	5	14
Low	5	9	14
Total	16	26	42

$$\chi^2 = 7.47, \text{ df} = 2, p < .03$$

$$\text{Contingency Coefficient (C)} = .39$$

Table 25

Chi-Square Analysis for the Association between Mother's  
Occupation and Authoritarianism of Female Subjects

Authoritarianism	Mother's Occupation		Total
	Working	Homemaking	
High	6	8	14
Moderate	5	9	14
Low	6	8	14
Total	17	25	42

$$\chi^2 = .198, \text{df} = 2, p > .90$$

APPENDIX R

Chi-Square Analyses of Association between  
Attitudes Toward Women and Demographic Variables

Table 26

Chi-Square Analysis for the Association Between Father's  
Occupation<sup>a</sup> and Male Subjects' Attitudes Toward Women

Attitudes Toward Women	Father's Occupation		Total
	White Collar	Blue Collar	
Liberal	11	0	11
Moderate	8	6	14
Conservative	12	5	17
Total	31	11	42

$$\chi^2 = 6.01, df = 2, p < .05$$

$$\text{Contingency Coefficient (C)} = .35$$

<sup>a</sup>White collar = Professional, managerial, clerical, sales.

Blue collar = Service, agriculture, fisheries, forestry, skilled semiskilled, unskilled laborers.

Table 27

Chi-Square Analysis for the Association between Father's  
Occupation<sup>a</sup> and Female Subjects' Attitudes Toward Women

Attitudes Toward Women	Father's Occupation		Total
	White Collar	Blue Collar	
Liberal	10	4	14
Moderate	8	8	16
Conservative	8	4	12
Total	26	16	42

$$\chi^2 = 1.62, \text{ df} = 2, p > .75$$

<sup>a</sup>White collar = Professional, managerial, clerical, sales.

Blue collar = Service, agriculture, fisheries, forestry, skilled, semiskilled, unskilled laborers.

Table 28

Chi-Square Analysis for the Association Between Mother's  
Occupation and Male Subjects' Attitudes Toward Women

Attitudes Toward Women	Mother's Occupation		Total
	Working	Homemaking	
Liberal	6	5	11
Moderate	4	10	14
Conservative	6	11	17
Total	16	26	42

$$\chi^2 = 1.86, \text{ df} = 2, p > .25$$

Table 29

Chi-Square Analysis for the Association Between Mother's  
Occupation and Female Subjects' Attitudes Toward Women

Attitudes Toward Women	Mother's Occupation		Total
	Working	Homemaking	
Liberal	5	9	14
Moderate	7	9	16
Conservative	5	7	12
Total	17	25	42

$$\chi^2 = .21, \text{ df} = 2, p > .90$$

## APPENDIX S

## Standardized and Unstandardized Discriminant Function Coefficients

Table 30

Standardized and Unstandardized Discriminant Function Coefficients  
for Analysis of Subjects' Choice of Job Applicant

Variable	Standardized	Unstandardized
F-Score	-1.04414	-0.07204
AWS Score	-0.47575	-0.04608
Work Experience	0.28056	0.05216
Constant		7.59699

## APPENDIX T

## Classification Table for Discriminant Function Analysis

Table 31

Classification Table for Discriminant Function Analysis  
of Subjects' Choice of Job Applicant

Actual Group	<u>N</u> of Cases	Predicted Group 1	Predicted Group 2
Selected Male Applicant	53	31 58.5%	22 41.5%
Selected Female Applicant	31	9 29.0%	22 71.0%

Percent of Grouped Cases Correctly Classified: 63.10%