



8-1980

## The Influence of Same-Sex and Cross-Sex Mentors on the Professional Development and Personality Characteristics of Women in Human Services

Barbara Jean Charlesworth Quinn  
*Western Michigan University*

Follow this and additional works at: <https://scholarworks.wmich.edu/dissertations>



Part of the Educational Psychology Commons

---

### Recommended Citation

Charlesworth Quinn, Barbara Jean, "The Influence of Same-Sex and Cross-Sex Mentors on the Professional Development and Personality Characteristics of Women in Human Services" (1980). *Dissertations*. 2615.

<https://scholarworks.wmich.edu/dissertations/2615>

This Dissertation-Open Access is brought to you for free and open access by the Graduate College at ScholarWorks at WMU. It has been accepted for inclusion in Dissertations by an authorized administrator of ScholarWorks at WMU. For more information, please contact [wmu-scholarworks@wmich.edu](mailto:wmu-scholarworks@wmich.edu).



THE INFLUENCE OF SAME-SEX AND CROSS-SEX MENTORS ON  
THE PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND PERSONALITY  
CHARACTERISTICS OF WOMEN IN HUMAN SERVICES

by

Barbara Jean Charlesworth Quinn

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

Western Michigan University  
Kalamazoo, Michigan  
August 1980

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

During the process of writing this dissertation, I have benefited from the encouragement and constructive feedback of Professors Edward Trembley, Robert Betz, and Joetta Long. I am particularly grateful for the many hours spent by Dr. Trembley in fulfilling my mentoring needs. My appreciation is also extended to my father, who served as a role model and encouraged me to pursue the doctoral degree in psychology that he never obtained. Finally and most importantly, I will always cherish the tolerance, patience, and understanding displayed by my husband and daughter throughout my academic training.

Barbara Jean Charlesworth Quinn

## INFORMATION TO USERS

This was produced from a copy of a document sent to us for microfilming. While the most advanced technological means to photograph and reproduce this document have been used, the quality is heavily dependent upon the quality of the material submitted.

The following explanation of techniques is provided to help you understand markings or notations which may appear on this reproduction.

1. The sign or "target" for pages apparently lacking from the document photographed is "Missing Page(s)". If it was possible to obtain the missing page(s) or section, they are spliced into the film along with adjacent pages. This may have necessitated cutting through an image and duplicating adjacent pages to assure you of complete continuity.
2. When an image on the film is obliterated with a round black mark it is an indication that the film inspector noticed either blurred copy because of movement during exposure, or duplicate copy. Unless we meant to delete copyrighted materials that should not have been filmed, you will find a good image of the page in the adjacent frame.
3. When a map, drawing or chart, etc., is part of the material being photographed the photographer has followed a definite method in "sectioning" the material. It is customary to begin filming at the upper left hand corner of a large sheet and to continue from left to right in equal sections with small overlaps. If necessary, sectioning is continued again—beginning below the first row and continuing on until complete.
4. For any illustrations that cannot be reproduced satisfactorily by xerography, photographic prints can be purchased at additional cost and tipped into your xerographic copy. Requests can be made to our Dissertations Customer Services Department.
5. Some pages in any document may have indistinct print. In all cases we have filmed the best available copy.

University  
Microfilms  
International

300 N. ZEEB ROAD, ANN ARBOR, MI 48106  
18 BEDFORD ROW, LONDON WC1R 4EJ, ENGLAND

QUINN, BARBARA JEAN CHARLESWORTH

THE INFLUENCE OF SAME-SEX AND CROSS-SEX MENTORS ON THE  
PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS  
OF WOMEN IN HUMAN SERVICES

*Western Michigan University*

Ed.D.

1980

University  
Microfilms  
International

300 N. Zeeb Road, Ann Arbor, MI 48106

18 Bedford Row, London WC1R 4EJ, England

Copyright 1980

by

Quinn, Barbara Jean Charlesworth

All Rights Reserved

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS . . . . .	ii
LIST OF TABLES . . . . .	v
Chapter	
I. PROBLEM STATEMENT . . . . .	1
Introduction . . . . .	1
Need . . . . .	4
Purpose . . . . .	5
Hypotheses . . . . .	5
Definition of Terms . . . . .	6
II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE . . . . .	9
Introduction . . . . .	9
Socialization . . . . .	13
Identification and Modeling . . . . .	16
Professional Development and Importance of Role Models . . . . .	25
The Mentoring Relationship . . . . .	31
Summary . . . . .	38
III. METHODOLOGY . . . . .	41
Sample . . . . .	41
Instrumentation . . . . .	42
Procedures . . . . .	49
Testable Hypotheses . . . . .	52
Data Analyses . . . . .	53
Summary . . . . .	58

IV. RESULTS . . . . .	60
Description of Sample . . . . .	60
Instrumentation Results . . . . .	65
Mentoring Relationships . . . . .	68
Hypotheses . . . . .	70
V. DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS	80
Discussion . . . . .	80
Conclusions . . . . .	90
Recommendations . . . . .	93
APPENDICES	
A. STRUCTURED INTERVIEW . . . . .	95
B. ADJECTIVES: STANDARD ADJECTIVE Q SORT . . . . .	100
C. DESCRIPTIONS OF CALIFORNIA PSYCHOLOGICAL INVENTORY SCALES . . . . .	101
D. DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION . . . . .	104
E. INITIAL TELEPHONE CONTACT . . . . .	106
F. FORM LETTER . . . . .	109
G. CONSENT FORM . . . . .	110
H. ADMINISTRATIVE INSTRUCTIONS . . . . .	111
I. CONTENT ANALYSIS . . . . .	112
BIBLIOGRAPHY . . . . .	130

## LIST OF TABLES

### Table

1.	Correlations Between Actual and Ideal Professional Self-Perceptions for Women with Female and Male Mentors . . . . .	66
2.	Scale Score Means and $t$ Tests for Women with Female and Male Mentors on California Psychological Inventory . . . . .	67
3.	Number of Difficulties Experienced By Women with Female and Male Mentors During Their Professional Development . . . . .	71
4.	Number of Needs Met By Female and Male Mentors During Women's Professional Development . . . . .	72
5.	Number of Personal Qualities of Mentors that Facilitated Development of Mentoring Relationship . . . . .	73
6.	Number of Personal Qualities of Mentors that Hindered Development of Mentoring Relationship . . . . .	74
7.	Number of Positive Statements Regarding Influence of Women's Mentors Upon Integration of Familial and Professional Roles . . . . .	76
8.	Number of Positive Statements Regarding Influence of Women's Mentors Upon Integration of Professional and Feminine Roles . . . . .	77
9.	Number of Positive Statements Regarding Influence of Mentors Upon Women's Overall Professional Development . . . . .	78



## CHAPTER I

### PROBLEM STATEMENT

#### Introduction

Work is a critical part in the changing role of women within American society. Contemporary women have become more aware of alternative sources of satisfaction other than, or in addition to, work in the home itself. However, women in the work world often experience social and cultural barriers which interfere with their professional growth, self-esteem, and self-fulfillment. Social and cultural barriers are particularly important when examining the professional development of women in traditionally male-dominated occupational fields. Women are often encouraged and channeled into traditional female occupations or are under-used in lower echelon positions in male-dominated fields with no career ladder available. The source of women's career difficulties can be traced to women's developmental processes such as socialization, peer experiences and observations, and sex-stereotyped orientations regarding behaviors and careers. These career development processes are found in formal as well as informal educational processes surrounding the traditional occupational roles for women in everyday living.

While some of these problems occur in the external

world of the woman, many of them are within the woman herself in terms of her private career and role-related attitudes, values, and role conflicts. These problems are based largely on the socialization and identificatory processes experienced while she was maturing in addition to lack of support in her occupational strivings or efforts to fill multiple roles. As the number of roles an individual attempts to fill increases, increased conflict will emerge between and among the different roles. In the past, women believed that marriage and career represented an either/or choice. Rather than making a dichotomous choice, many women have attempted to negotiate combinations of various roles they consider important in their lives. It is often stressed that women require support systems to assist them in this process of integrating multiple roles. Combining roles of marriage and career can be particularly difficult as they often appear incompatible, at least for those women entering into a professional career. Besides increased educational, training, and time commitment problems, women embarking on, or already involved in, a professional career may be motivated to work because they want to, not necessarily because they must for economic reasons. This motivation conflicts with the societal or cultural view of men and women that the woman's primary function is being a wife and mother, making career goals secondary.

Role models are generally considered important in

helping women deal with the conflicts arising from combining marriage and career. The impact of adult role models on the development and socialization of children has been examined in depth, but there is little literature available regarding the influence of role models on adult development. Identification with role models of the same sex is often emphasized as important for "healthy" adjustment of children and adults. However, there is some recognition that specific behaviors, values, attitudes, and competencies of a particular role model are more important variables in influencing development than the sex of the role model, per se. For the purposes of the proposed study, the term "role model" is too restrictive and represents only a small portion of a much larger phenomenon: the mentoring relationship and its attendant process.

A mentor is an individual who is several years older and who has greater experience and seniority in the work world to which the mentee aspires, according to Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson, and McKee (1978). They indicated that the mentor performs several functions such as teacher, sponsor, host/guide, exemplar (role model), and provides counsel and emotional support to the mentee to further his/her professional development.

Proponents of the need for female mentors for women entering professions indicate the significant impact of the mentors in several areas. Female mentors can provide further definitions of role conceptions, aid in the process of

combining marriage and career via illustrative successes that provide positive incentives, and enhance the integration of feminine self-concept with professional role. However, there is a noticeable shortage of female mentors in many professions, which restricts the mentoring resources available to women. The two alternatives that exist for those women who do not have access to female mentors are either to struggle without mentors or to find a male mentor to assist her in her professional development.

Rather than not having any occupational mentors, women frequently will select male mentors. Inhibitory factors may operate in cross-sex mentoring, especially in the female with male mentor relationship. Inhibitory factors may include male mentors not taking their female counterparts seriously, considering them less competent, thinking that the female's family life may interfere with her professional commitment, or that the females are less dependent financially than men. Such inhibitory factors have a detrimental effect upon the woman's professional development and her self-concept. None, some, or possibly all of these factors may be operating in any particular mentoring relationship.

#### Need

Perhaps, if mentors were more aware of their own attitudes, values, and behaviors as well as the effects they may have on their female mentees, they could exert a more

positive mentoring influence. Information regarding the influence of mentors is important for the study of all occupational fields and is particularly critical for the study of the advancement of women in their academic and professional endeavors.

### Purpose

The purpose of this study was to obtain additional information regarding the influence of male and female mentors on the professional development and personality characteristics of women already established in professional fields. An effort was made to ascertain whether there was indeed a significant difference between same-sex and cross-sex mentors of professional women on several specific variables relative to women's (a) perceptions of actual and ideal professional selves; (b) personality characteristics as measured by the California Psychological Inventory (CPI); (c) difficulties experienced during professional development; (d) needs fulfillment; (e) mentoring relationships as related to the personal qualities of the mentors; and (f) integration of familial, feminine, and professional roles.

### Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were tested:

1. Women having female mentors will report having had fewer difficulties during their professional development than women having male mentors.

2. Women having female mentors will report a larger portion of their needs being met by their mentoring relationship than those women having male mentors.
3. Women having female mentors will describe their mentors as having more personal qualities that facilitated their mentoring relationships than women having male mentors.
4. Women having female mentors will describe their mentors as having fewer personal qualities that hindered their mentoring relationships than women having male mentors.
5. Women having female mentors will make a greater number of positive statements regarding their mentoring relationship's influence upon the integration of familial and professional roles than women having male mentors.
6. Women having female mentors will make a greater number of positive statements regarding their mentoring relationship's influence upon the integration of professional and feminine self-concepts than women having male mentors.
7. Women having female mentors will make a greater number of positive statements regarding the influence of their mentoring relationships on their overall professional development than those women having male mentors.

#### Definition of Terms

Mentor. For the purposes of this study, the term mentor was used to designate an individual who was older, more experienced, and who had greater seniority in the work world to which the young professional mentee aspired. Furthermore, the mentor must have performed at least some of the roles that Levinson et al. (1978) ascribed to mentors such as teacher, sponsor, exemplar, provider of counsel and emotional

support, and host/guide. Essentially, the mentor was someone whom the mentee could designate as being a particularly influential force in contributing to his/her professional development.

Professional development. Professional development referred to a continuous learning process usually associated with extensive academic preparation in order to obtain a specialized body of knowledge for a particular profession as well as the prerequisite skills for entry into a profession. Continued growth, differentiation, and/or evolution through successive changes increased the individual's professional involvement and competency in one's profession and, subsequently, one's sense of social identity derived from professional practice.

Actual and ideal professional selves. Actual professional self and ideal professional self referred to different aspects of an individual's perceptions of self as a professional person. The way that one perceived oneself to be professionally at the present time was termed the actual professional self. In contrast, one's ideal professional self was the individual's perceptions of the way one would like to be professionally or thought one ought to be like professionally.

Personality characteristics. Personality characteristics in this study were those variables as measured by the general personality inventory, the CPI (Gough, 1957). For

the purpose of this study, the 18 scales included in the CPI were designated as the personality characteristics of interest. Because of the amount of time involved in administering the CPI, a shortened version derived by Burger (1975) was used. The raw scores obtained from the short form were used to estimate the scores on the original inventory designed by Gough.

Human services. Human services agencies referred to those agencies performing mental health functions for people in need of psychological services. The primary purpose of human services agencies is to help people experiencing a variety of psychological problems. Such agencies may be called mental health clinics, child guidance clinics, psychological clinics, outpatient clinics, counseling centers, as well as other names indicating that psychological services are offered. Private practitioners performing similar functions were also included in the human services field and were considered appropriate for this study.

The relevant literature is reviewed in Chapter II. A description of the sample involved, procedures for data collection, instruments being used, and data analyses selected are included in Chapter III. In Chapter IV, the results of the study are presented. Discussion of the findings, conclusions, and recommendations comprise Chapter V.



## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

#### Introduction

Working outside of the home or family is becoming a more frequent pursuit for women in our modern society. Increased time made available by technology, decreased childbearing and -rearing responsibilities--or at least decreased time demanded by these activities--as well as increased educational opportunities have provided greater opportunity to work than ever before. The women's movement has advocated sexual equality in the work world by demanding equal pay and advancement opportunities for men and women. Affirmative action programs have encouraged more women to join the ranks of the employed. For many women, work is now considered essential for a satisfying and fulfilling life. For many women, a career can represent challenges that exceed those found in the home. Women seek careers to avoid the homemaker syndrome, which Friedan (1963) called "the problem that has no name." Through employment, women develop personal resources that hitherto were untapped and seek to implement their self-concept by selecting occupations permitting self-expression (Super, 1957).

Considerable evidence has indicated that career patterns for women are closely related to their life development cycle

(Mulvey, 1963; Super, 1957, 1978; Yu, 1976). In addition, many women's lives have been controlled or regulated by the family cycle in that career aspirations to some extent have been circumscribed by the responsibilities of attending to their families (Bardwick, 1971; Estes, 1978; Stewart, 1976; Van Dusen & Sheldon, 1978). According to Bardwick (1971), "The only way to achieve a feminine sense of identity, if one has internalized the general norms, is to succeed in the roles of wife, helpmate, and mother--and this takes years" (p. 189). Women's career pursuits were often given a back seat to their primary societal role, which tended to reinforce the dichotomy that those women who marry are more "feminine" than those who have careers. This dichotomy has become a modern-day myth that is often presented as fact (Epstein, 1970; Hansen & Repoza, 1978; Vetter, 1978). The number of women attempting to integrate marriage and career is steadily increasing (Denmark, 1977; Kaley, 1971), further refuting the dichotomy. While salience of marriage and family in women's life choices does appear to be decreasing, it is most likely that women will continue to be largely responsible for the children. This being the case, women will continue to accommodate both parental and occupational roles. The stresses on women accommodating two major roles will be difficult for some to manage and will require support systems (Hansen & Repoza, 1978).

The impact of the societal expectations and sex roles

taught are prevalent and significant variables throughout the developmental process of women. These variables are influential in the definition of appropriate and inappropriate behaviors and in the priorities given to the various roles by an individual woman. Learning societal expectations and sex roles is an integral part of the socialization process which Brim and Wheeler (1966) described as the "acquisition of habits, beliefs, attitudes, and motives which enable a person to perform satisfactorily the roles expected of him [her] in his [her] society" (p. 5). Throughout a person's life, significant people and events continue to influence personality development, even as significant new others and new events replace the old ones. There is a series of "self-other systems" (Brim & Wheeler) through which various role ascriptions are learned and about which interpersonal feedback is received regarding the appropriateness of one's role. Kemper (1968) described three types of reference groups which act together to foster achievement-striving for all individuals; however, it appears that these same three groups could apply to the socialization process as well. Kemper described the "normative group," the "role model," and the "audience":

The normative group defines the roles the individual is to assume, the model provides exemplifications of how the role is to be performed, at least adequately, and the audience provides anticipation of rewards for outstanding performance in the role. (p. 33)

Through the socialization process, girls learn how to

become women. They learn what society expects from a woman in terms of values, attitudes, and roles. However, there appear to be contradictions and ambivalence regarding the image of the "perfect" woman, especially with regard to the participation of women in occupational endeavors (Epstein, 1970). The roots of this ambivalence appear to be in the social structure itself which Epstein stated "can severely undermine training, aspirations, motivation and planning and make difficult the definition of future roles" (p. 20).

Additional stress may be experienced by women who attempt to integrate various roles which they are taught to see as contradictory, particularly in terms of integrating the female and professional roles despite the American society's values of equality and achievement (Di Sabatino, 1976; Epstein, 1970; Komarovsky, 1946; Sarbin, 1954). Ziebarth (1971) described this conflict in the following manner:

There are two forces operating on educated women today: (1) the pressures to remain "feminine"--domestic, passive, inferior, and other-oriented; and (2) the pressures to become equal to men and follow their individual goals--achievement, equality, self-orientation [and] individual happiness. (p. 41)

Contradictions between roles become particularly important at the point of initial career decision and one's assessment of one's overall success. The lack of conformity in female role conceptions is also prevalent in male-female interactions and role expectations as evidenced by Rosen and Aneshensel's (1976) "chameleon effect" where the female has

learned essentially to wear a facade enabling her to change colors depending on the situation and expectations (Miller, 1976).

### Socialization

Childhood socialization cannot adequately prepare an individual for the tasks that are demanded later in life. The socialization process must continue into the adult years and frequently consists of combining old response elements into new combinations of responses which, if well learned, may facilitate further learning and development of adult roles. If childhood learning is compatible with later learning, a facilitative effect can occur on further personality development. But when there is a conflict or discrepancy between old and new learning in the socialization process, the new learning will have to replace the old rather than building on an already existing personality base. This process of replacing old learning with new learning may result in additional stress which must be managed before any further development with new responses can occur.

The adult personality does change to accommodate new learning (Cohen, 1973; Hamachek, 1971; Lewis, 1968). Neurgarten (cited in Brim & Wheeler, 1966) stated that "while evidence shows 'continuity of personality' the larger proportion of the variance in personality at later times remains unaccounted for; that is, it is not predictable from earlier

measurements of personality" (p. 23). She concluded that "the nature of personality changes in adulthood may be relatively obscure; but the conviction is a reasonable one that changes do occur" (p. 55).

It may be appropriate at this time to describe briefly the concept of personality. Allport (1961) defined personality as "the dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his [her] characteristic behavior and thought" (p. 28). The notion of dynamic organization indicates that one's personality is always changing, evolving, and/or developing. While personality development is a process, it also has a systematic unity in which the different components relate to each other. The concept of psychophysical systems relates to the mind-body dualism and indicates the importance and interrelatedness of both psychic and physical components within one's personality. The notion to determine presents personality as an active agent in patterning the individual's behavior; the particular behavior patterns exhibited are largely contingent upon the context or social situation in which the behavior occurs. Finally, characteristic emphasizes the uniqueness of the particular organization of personality within any one individual.

One's perceptions of others' attitudes towards oneself is influential in the process of personality development as well as related concepts such as self-concept, identity, and

Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson, and McKee's (1978) concept of the "dream." The dream from Levinson et al. essentially involves an individual's efforts to develop and differentiate self from others, being unique among others and yet developing a sense of self in the world as well as interacting with it as an adult. Of special interest here are women's perceptions of the attitudes that significant men have towards femininity/female sex role and women's careers, since these attitudes can be crucial factors in a woman's decision regarding work, type of job she will consider, how her employment will affect the family, and the amount of stress she may experience (Bailyn, 1965; Hawley, 1971, 1972; Lewis, 1968; Vetter, 1978). Hawley (1972) confirmed her finding of a previous study which found that "women choose careers consistent with their own judgements of the model of femininity held by significant men in their lives" (p. 312). Kaley (1971) found that men had a less favorable attitude toward the dual role of married professional women than women did; the men's attitudes were particularly negative when talking about their own wives combining those roles, which indicated why relatively few women prepare for, let alone pursue, professional careers.

Unfortunately, sexual stereotypes create much confusion and conflict between roles, particularly for women. Perhaps if sexually appropriate behaviors were not so dichotomously male or female, they could be more in line with the concept

of "androgeny" (Bem, 1974) where each individual could develop both types of qualities but be flexible and able to adapt to the needs of a particular situation appropriately. Sanzgiri (1978) found a recurrent theme in her interviews with 36 professional women (12 physicians, 12 attorneys, and 12 administrators) of "maintaining a creative balance between 'feminine' and 'professional' in relation to the role model issue" (p. 71). Professional women often struggle with trying to maintain androgenous roles even though the existing social reinforcements encourage behaviors considered appropriate within a masculine or feminine stereotype rather than a balance of both masculine and feminine characteristics which Bem (1974) stated can be healthier.

#### Identification and Modeling

Women often perceive themselves in terms of significant others in their lives instead of as individuals (Donelson & Gullahorn, 1977; Lewis, 1968), which essentially indicates that their personality is to some extent influenced/determined by their husbands and families (Lewis). Developmentalists emphasize the importance of women developing a sense of individual identity separate from others, although men often experience this difficulty as well. Self-perceptions are selective, but can be modified or changed by conditions inside or outside of the self. Many attempts to describe or define "self" are available in the literature, but



Jersild's (1952) description appears quite succinct. He stated:

A person's self is the sum total of all he [she] can call his [hers]. The self includes, among other things, a system of ideas, attitudes, values, and commitments. The self is a person's total subjective environment: it is the distinctive center of experience and significance. The self constitutes a person's inner world as distinguished from the outer world consisting of all other people and things. (p. 9)

There are as many selves as there are social groups of which an individual is a member (Mead, 1934) such as family self, school self, professional self, and many others. Individuals have pictures regarding what they should be like which are often termed the "ideal self." The ideal self is based upon societal views and expectations as well as own personal wishes or imagery which individualizes each person's conceptions of characteristics that comprise or describe the ideal person. The perceptions that individuals have of both their self and ideal self for any particular role are largely contingent upon how others react or, more specifically, how one perceives others' reactions to oneself (Felker, 1974; Hamachek, 1971).

The acquisition of appropriate roles is an essential component and perhaps major objective of the socialization process. Role development is influenced by many different factors such as the self, societal changes, ambiguity of role expectations, and the implicit conflict between roles one may attempt to fill. "Role" is a "patterned sequence

of learned actions or deeds performed by a person in an interaction situation" (Sarbin, 1954, p. 225) but is also linked to a position within the social structure, not with the person who may be temporarily occupying that position.

Thomas and Biddle (1966) presented a more encompassing description of role as having been "used to denote prescription, description, evaluation, and action; it has referred to covert and overt processes, to the behavior of the self and others, to the behavior an individual initiates versus that which is directed to him [her]" (p. 29).

According to Brim and Wheeler (1966):

In order to perform satisfactorily in a role, an individual requires the following:

- 1) He [She] must know what is expected of him [her] (both in behavior and in values),
- 2) must be able to meet the role requirements, and
- 3) must desire to practice the behavior and pursue the appropriate ends. (p. 25)

The interaction of self and roles one is expected to fill is important and unique for each individual even though the role expectations may be exactly the same. As previously mentioned, role conflicts occur either when an individual attempts to fill two contradictory roles simultaneously where the expectations of each are incompatible or where ambiguity is high regarding role expectations.

In general, social learning theorists account for the

learning of most behavior to exposure to social models via the modeling process rather than as a consequence of direct experience. According to Bandura (1971), there are four interrelated sub-processes governing the modeling process:

1. Attentional processes--subject has to "attend to, recognize, and differentiate the distinctive features of the model's responses. Discriminate observation is . . . one of the requisite conditions for observational learning" (pp. 16-17).
2. Retentional processes--model's behavior retained in some symbolic form (e.g., imaginal, or verbal representation).
3. Motoric reproduction processes--acting on or in some way using these symbolic representations of the model's behavior to guide overt performance.
4. Reinforcement and motivational processes--learning is rarely activated into overt expression if negative sanctions are placed on that particular behavior. Vicarious reinforcement (reinforcement viewed by the model for his/her behavior) can also have a facilitating effect on acquisition and subsequent overt performance of behaviors.

Bandura and Walters (1963) described three possible effects that may result from being exposed to a model. The first is that a modeling effect will occur in which new behavior becomes part of the individual's repertoire. Secondly, the model may have an inhibiting effect on similar behaviors already familiar to the subject. The last effect is that an eliciting effect occurs in which the model's behavior may serve as a cue to release behaviors already in the individual's repertoire but not inhibited because of prior learning. For those individuals who can "successfully match

the behavior of appropriate societal models, the social-learning process can be greatly accelerated and the development of response patterns by differential reinforcement can be short-circuited" (Bandura, 1969, p. 213).

Social learning theory is in reality more complex than simply observing a model's behavior, retaining it, performing it, and receiving reinforcement for the overt expression of that behavior. Bandura (1969) explained:

A social-learning theory of observational learning is not confined to imitation of models to whom the observer has a cathetic attachment, but is designed to encompass a diversity of modeling outcomes based upon direct and vicarious experiences with actual and symbolic models. In this formulation the incentive conditions impinging upon the model and imitative response feedback variables, as well as the model's competence, rewarding quality, and social power, are regarded as important determinants of overt expression of identificatory responses. (p. 233)

Another phenomenon closely related to modeling is that of identification, which refers to a "process in which a person patterns his [her] thoughts, feelings, or actions after another person who serves as a model" (Bandura, 1969, p. 214). According to this description, identification encompasses the process of modeling as described earlier. Identification appears to be an extremely potent process, with some authors indicating an incorporation of the object or person who is considered significant or important to the individual into one's own personality (Bardwick, 1971; Blum, 1949; Donelson & Gullahorn, 1977; Frieze, Parsons, Johnson,

Ruble, & Zellman, 1978). Others indicated that only certain aspects of particular representations of that model are incorporated at a conscious level or perhaps unconsciously (Blum, 1953; Hall & Lindzey, 1978; Schafer, 1968).

During the initial phase of personality development, the importance of the parents as role models for their children who obtain or perform appropriate sex role behaviors is generally recognized. As children grow, they find other people who appear to have made accomplishments in the areas in which they are interested and who represent another purpose for identification. Jung (1923) stated that the purpose was "to obtain an advantage, push aside an obstacle or solve a task after the same manner of another individual" (p. 552).

Different types of identification seem to be based primarily on the reasons for identifying with a particular model. Identification from the Freudian viewpoint is a defensive maneuver of identifying with the aggressor in an effort to avoid feared retaliation from a powerful figure. This defensive identification is exemplified by the resolution of the Oedipal complex in which the boy identifies with his father primarily because of a fear of castration. On the other hand, the identificatory process for females is different from the standpoint that the girl does not fear castration but, rather, a loss of the mother's love, which motivates her to perform the appropriate sex-role behaviors and attitudes. This process is often termed "anaclitic

identification" (Frieze et al., 1978; Sears, Rau, & Alpert, 1965).

Slater (1961) described two different types of identification also based upon motivation: positional and personal. Personal identification is motivated primarily by the child's love and admiration for the model, whereas the positional type of identification is similar to Freud's defensive identification. Identification with the aggressor or the power represented by a particular position or role involves "a wish for the destruction and replacement of the model by the identifier" (Slater, p. 118). Even in supportive and warm relationships, there can be some ambivalence or a mixture of positive and negative feelings toward a parent, and parents are in positions of greater power than the developing child; thus, an interaction probably occurs between these two identification processes. The reinforcement individuals receive from these identifications encourages them to continue receiving such rewards. The reinforcement meets their needs for accomplishment as well as encouraging overall development that falls within socially approved boundaries (Bandura, 1969; Sears et al., 1965).

Blum (1953) indicated that there is controversy regarding the extent to which identification serves an adaptive or defensive function. Alexander (1949) emphasized the adaptive function when he stated the following: "Identification operates in the healthy growth of the ego and in the learning

process by which the ego acquires functional efficiency" (p. 117). While he placed primary emphasis on the adaptive function, he also indicated that identification can serve a defensive function under traumatic conditions. Freud (1946), on the other hand, emphasized the defensive nature of identification.

Williams (1977) stressed the importance of a proper balance of both expressive (sensitive and interpersonal) and instrumental (goal-directed) behaviors. While interpersonal sensitivity or expressive behaviors and goal-directed or instrumental behaviors are both important, it is essential to note that the sex of the parental model is not as relevant if the particular role model can demonstrate both types of behaviors and appears competent in the particular role (Bolman, 1977; Pavek, 1976; Tenzer, 1977; Williams, 1977). Male and female parental models are often considered important when choosing an occupation and are often identified as role models in a professional sense by their sons and daughters.

After studying 25 married female Ph.D.'s who were integrating professional roles with family roles, Walum (cited in Douvan, 1976) found that these women had

strong positive identifications with their fathers as well as with some female model. . . . Nearly all of the women spoke [with] passion [of] the importance these women had in stimulating them, not only toward professional careers but in alleviating guilts that might have been incurred being working mothers. (p. 7)

On the other hand, other studies obtained results indicating

that women often choose their own mothers as models (Douvan & Adelson, 1966; Tenzer, 1977), indicating conflicting results, or perhaps there was no examination of specific needs that were met by the different role models.

The influence of early identification patterns is often discussed in terms of why some women seek a career whereas others are satisfied to care for the home and family. The maternal attitudes and values regarding work and/or career are considered very influential not only in a woman's decision to pursue a career but the negative consequences she may associate with the decision (Baruch, 1972, 1973; Theodore, 1971). Those individuals with mothers desiring a career, even if they did not in fact work, had a positive influence upon their daughters' self-esteem as well as evaluations of their own personal competence (Baruch, 1973). Other factors considered important in the early socialization process are the presence of other female role models and encouragement by other male and female professionals and college professors. However, it is indicated that women have a need for continued social support from significant others such as husbands, bosses, and other women in similar situations regarding their efforts to combine marriage and career which can result in additional stress for them.



Professional Development and  
Importance of Role Models

Because this study focuses on the development of professional women, it may be appropriate to define what a profession is and how individuals develop within it. Theodore (1971) stated:

The professions are characterized by a theoretical body of knowledge, technical competence acquired through a protracted period of formal training, a strong service orientation, and a high degree of personal involvement. . . . The professional acquires his [her] social identity from his [her] profession and derives considerable prestige and satisfaction from practicing it. Each profession develops its own subculture with a strong social and moral solidarity among the members. All occupations engage in professional group striving and attain professionalization to some degree. (p. 2)

Appropriate sex roles within a particular profession or occupation are strongly prescribed by society via cultural values and expectations (Batt, 1972; Epstein, 1970, 1971; Krupsak, 1977; Theodore, 1971). Some of the consequences for deviating from these dictates can be manifested in societal disapproval, discrimination and/or ostracism, or perhaps being fired.

Establishment of a self-identity for women can be in part dependent upon the entrance into, and subsequent commitment to, a profession. There are usually two steps involved in this process: (a) internalization of an occupational role, and (b) identification with a specific profession. For males, the first step is usually incorporated into the

socialization process in which the occupational role is considered an integral part of the male's identity; thus, he is primarily concerned with the second step. For females the indoctrination is different during the socialization process, and they subsequently have to interject this role or have to overcome contradictory teachings, in an effort to integrate an occupational role into their identity (Epstein, 1970). For many women this process is very difficult, and many give up without attaining a satisfactory integration of the occupational role let alone attempting the second step of identifying with a specific profession.

Many barriers exist for a large number of women desiring to enter the professions, particularly the traditionally male professions. Women's problems begin during the socialization process in which the number of professional options available are severely restricted or are lower-echelon professions without opportunities for advancement (Epstein, 1970; Krup-sak, 1977). Conflicts between what are considered appropriate feminine and masculine characteristics or behaviors on the job can result from distortion of the language and/or differential labeling used for possibly identical behaviors which may be considered positive for males but negative for females (Batt, 1972; Roeske & Lake, 1977; Stein, 1973). Differential labeling of behavior often results in distorted appraisals of women and can seriously interfere with the development of more positive images of self within a

profession.

Unfortunately, many women evaluate other women as less competent and discourage their participation in the profession because of conflicting feelings they may have regarding questioning or challenging male prerogatives (Friedan, 1963). Hacker (cited in Epstein, 1970) described this phenomenon as minority group self-hatred, which often results in the minority group accepting the stereotyped concepts that the dominant group holds for them (Batt, 1972). Obviously, negative feelings toward other females in the profession can interfere seriously with women receiving the support of females already established in the profession (Stewart, 1976). This also limits the access to any informal professional groups of peers or established practitioners to learn the professional "ropes" from which is considered important for professional development and advancement (Batt, 1972; Epstein, 1970, 1971). In fact, women often exclude themselves, are less involved with professional organizations, and devote less time to their work (Epstein, 1970). Also of major importance are the various myths that many males as well as females have regarding women's competence and need/desire for a career.

Douvan (1976) discussed three routes that are available for women entering male-dominated fields where there are few positive female models available. The first route involves overlearning or identifying with those role models available and becoming like that group at the cost of compromising or

perhaps abandoning altogether her feminine goals. Another alternative is deprofessionalization or deemphasis of competency in the particular profession, possibly complying with earlier socialization and stereotyped sex-role behaviors in order to survive in that profession. Continuing efforts to integrate professional, marital, and feminine roles represents the third alternative--one that continues to produce stress as oftentimes these various roles are incompatible. Women taking this third route have a special need for professional role models but cannot rely exclusively on women (Douvan, 1976).

The importance of female role models has been particularly noted in the medical field where there appears to be much better integration of physician role with other roles for women who attended women's medical schools where the availability of successful female role models is much higher based on such indications as lower number of suicides and not as much competition (Hott, 1977). Theoretically, female role models can enhance integration of the professional role and feminine self-concept. According to Roeske and Lake (1977), the findings obtained from a questionnaire sent to 192 female medical students in the Indiana University School of Medicine indicated that first- and second-year medical students wanted female instructors who could serve as role models or exemplars regarding combining feminine and professional roles. However, the more advanced students were more concerned with

the competence of the physicians/teachers than with the sex of the teacher. They were more concerned with their responsibilities to their patients rather than with integration of their roles. Perhaps a certain degree of integration had occurred by the time they completed the first 2 years, to lessen their concern for the time being.

Many articles indicated the importance and the need for female role models to aid in this acculturation process so that aspiring females can see how multiple roles can be combined successfully (Douvan, 1976). "To defy societal role expectations requires a strong personality, particularly since few women have the opportunity to observe models of women who are intelligent, attractive, respected in their careers, and also successful in their personal relationships" (Di Sabatino, 1976, p. 46). By observing successful women in a variety of roles, young women can become more aware of work roles and options that they may begin to feel capable of performing but previously thought were unsuitable for women (Almquist, 1971, 1974). Exposure to a variety of professionals, regardless of sex, in the academic setting is particularly important in "aiding the student in understanding the nature of particular work roles by helping her to evaluate her own qualifications, performances, and abilities and encouraging her to attend graduate school" (Almquist, 1974, p. 18). If the role model is simply presenting the more technical aspects of a profession, the sex of the role

model is less relevant than if a woman is looking for possible ways to combine marriage and career. A female role model may be more effective in the latter case in which she can provide an "explication of a lifestyle which incorporates work with family life" (Almquist, 1971, p. 277).

Goldstein (1979) found that individuals receiving Ph.D.'s were more productive in terms of publications for the 4 years immediately following graduation when their major faculty advisor was of the same sex. Once again, support is provided for the importance of same-sex role models. However, in the more nontraditional female fields there are few female role models available. In Sanzgiri's (1978) study mentioned earlier, most of the professional women had male mentors whom they described as being gentle or sensitive in a non-stereotypic way and exerted a significant influence on their lives. Some reported having several important men and women such as family or not having any mentors at all; but only 1 out of 36 women said she had had a significant female mentor.

Access to role models is an integral part of professional as well as personal development. In fact, Schafer (1976) stated that "in order to develop as a specific person, one must have models; one cannot and does not have to create one's idea of being fully human by oneself" (p. 162). However, role models in the strict sense of the word, as defined by Kemper (1968), only account for a small portion as far as functions and purposes of the more encompassing concept of

the "mentor" in furthering the entrance of people into a profession as well as their advancement within that profession.

### The Mentoring Relationship

The mentoring relationship is a complex relationship between an individual who is usually 8 to 15 years older with greater experiences and seniority in the work world to which the younger individual or mentee aspires. The development and continuation of this relationship benefits both the mentee and the mentor and yet may also have some flaws because of the needs and personalities of the individuals involved, as in any interpersonal relationship. The mentee is assisted in his/her professional and personal development in order to advance in the particular field of interest. In return, the mentor is given a sense of continuity of one's work and confidence that one's mentee will build on one's work as well as ease the transition to retirement by leaving behind someone whom he/she has "trained," in essence to take over where one had left off.

Levinson (cited in Stewart, 1976) described the mentor as follows:

The mentor may foster the young man's [woman's] development by believing in him [her], by sharing the Dream, by helping to create a space within which a newly emerging self can take shape and be given a place in the world. . . . A major function of the Mentor is to be a transitional figure: to be something between parent and peer, and to foster the

young person's growth from child in relation to parental adults to adult as peer with other adults. (p. 7)

If the mentor is more than 20 years older, there may be difficulties in overcoming generational differences and the mentor is more likely to symbolize a parental role which can activate power and dependency conflicts. On the other hand, if the mentor is relatively close to the same age (less than 6 to 8 years) as the mentee, he/she could have difficulty representing an advanced level that the mentee is striving for. However, if the mentor is aware of his/her own and others' dreams, then large discrepancies in age may not interfere with his/her being a significant mentor. If an individual is close in age to the mentee but has an unusual amount of expertise and understanding and both have enough maturity to deal with the relationship, peers or even someone younger can be mentors.

A "good enough" mentoring relationship is one where an individual feels admiration, appreciation, respect, and love for the mentor which outweigh but do not entirely prevent the experiencing of the opposite feelings of resentment, envy, inferiority, and intimidation (Levinson et al., 1978). Mentors can be real or symbolic, the latter being an idol or an internal figure with whom the mentee has a significant relationship. Some may keep their mentoring relationship "alive" even after it has been terminated and left far behind in an earlier period of professional development.



The mentoring relationship usually lasts about 3 to 4 years, beginning at a point where the mentee considers oneself to be a novice or an apprentice to a more advanced, expert, and authoritative mentoring adult. As the mentee develops, there begins to be a fuller sense of self as separate from others with one's own authority and capabilities for autonomous and responsible actions. Eventually a balance in the relationship is obtained between giving and receiving, resulting in a more mutual type of relationship which is important for the mentee's further development. Toward the end of this stage of the relationship, it becomes apparent to the mentee and perhaps to the mentor as well that he/she is outgrowing the need for such a relationship.

During this termination process, the mentee begins to experience the mentor as being destructively critical and demanding or trying to make him/her into the mentor's own image rather than fostering the mentee's own individuality and independence. On the other hand, the mentor may begin to see the mentee as being unreceptive, irrationally rebellious, and ungrateful. The meaning of this relationship may still linger on, in which the mentee internalizes the admired qualities of the mentor more fully into self, thereby enriching himself/herself (Levinson et al., 1978). Some mentees will continue a friendly relationship with the mentor, but it will not be as fervent and involved as before. Other mentees may terminate the relationship harboring strong

conflicts and bad feelings toward their mentors. Occasionally the relationship ends by the death of one of the members or because of relocation in residence or employment setting. Hopefully, both the mentor and the mentee can feel more fulfilled by having been a part of such a relationship and can continue to grow from that experience.

As mentioned earlier, the mentor serves many different roles for the mentee. It is difficult to give priority to any particular role since each plays an important role for mentor and mentee. The mentor serves as a teacher in order to enhance the acquisition of skills and intellectual development of the mentee. Teachers that are considered particularly significant can be viewed as ego-ideals for their students, and professors or instructors are often described as being influential models (Adelson, 1962). A sponsoring function is also performed via the mentors' using their influence to facilitate the mentee's entry and later advancement within a field. As a host or guide, the mentor can welcome people into a new occupational world by indicating the values, customs, resources, and characters that are relevant to that occupation. As a mentor, one also serves the function of role model or exemplar for the mentee to admire and emulate. This particular function was discussed in some detail earlier in this chapter as well as the theoretical underpinnings for the processes of modeling and identification which explain how role models or mentors achieve this

function. At times, the mentee requires emotional support from the mentor to cope more adequately with stresses experienced. A final function that Levinson et al. (1978) considered particularly important from a developmental view is mentor support and facilitating the realization of the dream. The dream is essentially a sense of self within the adult world and a search for uniqueness while fitting in with society in a functional manner.

Individuals interested in entering an occupation will often actively "seek a relationship with a man or woman whom they admire and feel they can 'learn from' and who supports their individualistic Dream by serving as a model for its realization" (Stewart, 1976, pp. 98-99). Women who want to combine occupational and family roles may often seek a "special man" who may serve part of her need for a mentor for her individualistic dream of a career and yet serve to facilitate family or relational types of dreams as well. Generally, the mentor fosters development of the mentee by believing in him/her, sharing the dream and giving encouragement, helping to define a new emerging self, and creating a space in which the mentee can work on a relatively satisfactory life structure containing whatever individualistic and/or relationalistic dreams. It has been noted that women not seeking a career but concentrating instead upon family or relational dreams do not actively seek or report having mentors.

Levinson et al. (1978) reported that men have, almost exclusively, male mentors whereas women, who have less mentoring than males, have it with a male mentor. The scarcity of female mentors is partly responsible for the situation, and even few of them can serve as mentors because of the stresses of survival in a male-dominated world (Levinson et al.). The most common mentoring pattern is forming a mentoring relationship with males such as one's boss, supervisor, or teacher. As mentioned earlier, the cross-sex mentoring relationship can cause additional problems for aspiring women (Epstein, 1970; Levinson et al., 1978), such as sexual contacts and harassment (Epstein, 1970; Pope, Levenson, & Schover, 1979; Sanzgiri, 1978).

Some factors that may be operating when the mentor is a male and the mentee a female will be discussed. There are many mixed feelings about a relationship with women mentees because of stereotyped views of what is considered socially appropriate behaviors for males and females. While a male mentor may consider her as an assistant he may have difficulty envisioning her as a successor, believing she will have less commitment to the profession and that she will be easily deflected from her career in order to marry and have children. He may be oblivious to other roles she has to fill; other role partners may be suspicious of her relationship; perhaps the mentor's wife questions the relationship, or perhaps he assumes that she is not as dependent upon a

career as a man might be (Epstein, 1970; Goldstein, 1979).

However, it is true that

if a woman can enter into a protégé [mentoring] relationship, it may be more important for her than for a man, and that a male sponsor [mentor] may make an extra effort to promote the female protégé [mentee] because he is aware of the difficulties she is apt to face. (Epstein, 1970, p. 170)

It may be the only way she can rise or gain notice in a field that is male-dominated. There is no way to predict the conditions under which these two patterns will occur or prevail. It is probably highly contingent upon the social structure of the discipline or specialty, personalities of the mentor and mentee, quality of the woman's talent as well as her physical attractiveness (Epstein, 1970).

The search for available mentors is difficult enough for women beginning careers in the early 20's prior to marriage, but searching for mentors after marriage and particularly after family obligations are met in the 30's is even more difficult and perhaps a crucial source of support and identification in order for a woman to move beyond the familial sphere (Stewart, 1976).

Stewart further suggested that combining both family and career was a viable option, but

the integration of two top priorities into a viable life structure is not without problems and clearly is not possible for every woman. In order to integrate a family and career, a woman requires a highly supportive interpersonal environment, greater than average personal ambition, [and] the ability to thrive

on the complexity and challenge of sequentially ordering two major priorities as becomes necessary without sacrificing either. (p. 119)

### Summary

More women are seeking additional development of inner/personal resources and self-fulfillment beyond the sphere of the home and family. Because women's professional and/or occupational aspirations have often fluctuated in response to family or life cycle demands, these aspirations were often ignored or fitted in whenever the timing was right. However, many women are now less willing to settle for this state of affairs and are actively trying to enter careers in their 20's. In addition, many are attempting to combine the roles of family and career simultaneously which are often considered incompatible, thus creating conflict. Early socialization of women often does not include having significant investment in a career because their primary role is considered to be the caring for their family with other roles, including career, being secondary.

It has been demonstrated that the adult personality is subject to change as significant individuals and experiences impact and modify it. The processes of identification and modeling can be very influential in counteracting earlier learning and increasing the awareness of available options. In fact, these processes play an integral part in the professional development of an individual as well and underlie the

mentoring relationship which was the focus of this study.

The mentoring relationship is viewed as essential for entry into, and subsequent advancement within, a chosen career. While this relationship plays an important role for men, it appears to be more of a controversial issue with women for a variety of reasons. Women often have difficulty entering professions because of personal/intrapsychic conflicts (feminine vs. professional), on one hand, and the existence of discriminative attitudes on the part of many of those individuals in positions of authority within the profession itself or perhaps at the earlier stage of preparation and/or training. It is emphasized that the presence of supportive female mentors who have successfully combined family and career roles is needed to help aspiring women to do the same. Men predominantly have mentors of the same sex, but in view of the scarcity of female mentors this is not the case with women. Oftentimes, a woman will attempt the journey without mentors or will seek cross-sex mentors instead.

According to the literature, there appeared to be much more of a problem with the cross-sex mentoring relationship at least as it applied to male mentors and female mentees. While this mentoring relationship can be positive, additional factors may be present that can interfere with the development of positive perceptions of the female mentee's self-concept, professional development, and personal development

in terms of integration. Unfortunately, scarcity of numbers, and additional difficulties women may have within a professional position itself, significantly decrease the access young women have to same-sex mentors. On the other hand, many women do succeed in the professions, oftentimes with male mentors whom they considered to be exceptional or non-stereotypic from the standpoint of being "sensitive" and "gentle." The influence that these mentors (same and cross-sex) have on women entering professions is important and warrants further investigation regarding any differential impacts they may have on these women's perceptions of their professional and personal development.



## CHAPTER III

### METHODOLOGY

This study compared the influence of same-sex and cross-sex mentors on the mentoring relationships of women working in the human services field. The personality characteristics of women having same- and cross-sex mentors were also compared. Descriptions of the study sample, instrumentation used, procedures for data collection, hypotheses, and the analyses of the data are presented in this chapter.

#### Sample

The 20 women selected for this sample were randomly selected from the professional directory listings of psychologists, social workers, and counselors of various organizations including Western Michigan Psychological Association, National Association of Social Workers, and Michigan Personnel and Guidance Association. The sample included those women who met the selection criteria and indicated interest in participating in the study. Sampled women who were not interested in participating or who did not meet the established criteria were replaced by others randomly selected from the same professional groups. The selection criteria employed were that the subject have a minimum of a master's degree in social work, psychology, or counseling and worked

at least 20 hours per week in a human-services or a private-practice setting offering psychological services. The sample consisted of seven social workers, six psychologists, and seven counselors working an average of 36 hours per week providing services to individuals having psychological problems.

### Instrumentation

A structured interview was the primary source of information regarding the influence of these women's mentoring relationships on their professional development. The other instruments used in this study provided additional measures of the subjects' perceptions of their professional selves, and their personality characteristics.

Structured interview. A structured interview format was used to obtain information regarding the development of the mentoring relationships, important characteristics of the mentors, and the influence of mentoring on the subjects' integration of familial, feminine, and professional roles. Structured or focused interviews (Merton, Fiske, & Kendall, 1956) have advantages over questionnaires or other self-report inventories. Detailed reporting can be facilitated by maximizing the range, specificity, and depth of responses obtained through direct questioning and pursuing any points that warrant further investigation. The interviewer may also be able to learn about the personal context in which experiences occurred. Essentially, the purpose of the interview

is to ascertain each subject's description of an experience or situation from his/her perspective. The type of information obtained will be consistent over subjects because of the structured nature of the interviews. The structured format also provides a framework for subsequent analyses of the data (see Appendix A for initial structuring and specific questions included).

Standard Adjective Q Sort. The Standard Adjective Q Sort (SAQS) or the Chicago Q Sort (Corsini, 1956) was employed to measure the perceptions of professional development held by the women in this sample. The SAQS can be used to assess an individual's perceptions of both the actual and ideal professional self-concepts which were of interest in this study. The Q sort methodology was popularized by Stephenson (1953) and later by Block (1961). "The Q-sort method is a useful technique for both clinical and research purposes, especially for the description of complex or global personality attributes" (Lanyon & Goodstein, 1971, p. 114). Kerlinger (1973) indicated that the Q sort method was good for exploration, for turning up new ideas, and for developing hypotheses while lending itself to analysis of variance and correlational methods as well.

Edwards (1970) briefly described the method in the following manner:

Individuals are asked to describe themselves by sorting personality statements into a set of successive categories or intervals, ranging from

the least descriptive to the most descriptive. The number of statements that the individual can place in each interval is fixed in such a way that the resulting frequency distribution is somewhat normal in form. (p. 192)

Weights or scores were assigned within the interval. If 10 intervals were used, for example, the adjectives placed in the least descriptive category would be assigned a weight of 0 and those in the most descriptive category a weight of 9, the other 8 intervals being assigned the successive integers between 0 and 9.

The SAQS consists of 50 personal adjectives (Corsini, 1956) printed on cards that are laid out by the subject in a pattern of 10 columns, each containing 5 adjectives to describe perceptions of self, perceptions of others, or perceptions of others' perceptions of the subject. During the process of designing this instrument, Corsini made efforts to eliminate difficult, ambiguous, or stereotyped words; however, individuals do assign their own meanings to the words and make their own evaluation regarding the placement of the descriptors along the dimension of least like to most like himself/herself (Wylie, 1974). Overall indications of the agreement between sorts of the perceptions of different selves or perceptions of others, such as a Pearson  $r$  correlation coefficient, are considered appropriate for comparison (Wylie).

Corsini (1956) reported test-retest reliability coefficients for two groups of college students who sorted SAQS

adjectives to describe self on two occasions, 1 week apart. The 27 women had a test-retest reliability coefficient of .81, whereas the group of 31 men had a reliability coefficient of .79. The SAQS is a fairly reliable instrument largely because the adjectives are forced into a quasi-normal distribution.

Corsini also stated that "it is probably not proper to think of the SAQS as having general validity, but it may be demonstrated to have validity for various purposes" (p. 1) by comparing individuals' scores on the SAQS and other instruments that have been established as valid measures of the concept being focused upon. Because there are no well-established norms, this instrument should not be used for prediction or diagnosis. As a research instrument, however, the SAQS can be valuable and "the uses to which the SAQS may be put are limited only by the imagination of the research worker" (Corsini, p. 2). The SAQS has been used to measure areas such as personality, alcoholism, marital counseling, and self-concepts. The specific adjectives included in the SAQS are listed in Appendix B.

California Psychological Inventory. The second instrument used in this study was the California Psychological Inventory (CPI; Gough, 1957) as shortened by Burger (1975). Burger's short form of the CPI was used in this study to ascertain the strength of personality characteristics represented by the 18 scales of the CPI. This instrument measures

those traits of character which arise from interpersonal life, and which should be relevant to the understanding of social behavior in any situation and in any culture. Burger described the CPI as "an objective instrument designed to assess personality dimensions of broad social and personal relevance" (p. 179) which is particularly suited for nonpsychotic populations.

Lake, Miles, and Earle (1973) reviewed the original CPI and included this description regarding its development:

Eleven of the 18 scales in the Inventory were designed by utilizing empirically derived scoring weights assigned to responses found to differentiate defined criterion groups such as high school dropouts and juvenile delinquents. Four of the scores are based on weights originally judged by the author as indicating a designated variable and refined by internal consistency checks. The remaining three scores are also derived empirically to detect tendencies to fake or to respond in a manner which makes the other scores of doubtful validity. (p. 39)

Anastasi (1976) named the original CPI as "one of the best personality inventories currently available. Its technical development is of high order and it has been subjected to extensive research and continuous improvement" (p. 505). There are norms based on over 6,000 males and 7,000 females which include wide age ranges, socioeconomic groups, and geographical areas.

The original CPI consists of a total of 480 items in which the respondents indicate whether each item is true or false for them. The inventory is a self-administering,

paper-and-pencil instrument taking approximately 1 hour to complete, either individually or in groups. The instructions for administration are included in the inventory booklet. There have been some criticisms of the original CPI norms which are based on extreme groups, the instrument's relatively high empirical intercorrelations among scales, and the datedness of some of the CPI scales (Edwards, 1970; Lake et al., 1973); the test-retest reliability coefficients and validity results appeared sufficient enough to warrant its use (Lake et al.). Test-retest reliabilities ranged from .49 to .87, with a median of .80 for 200 prisoners retested after 1 to 3 weeks. Median values of .65 for males and .63 for females were obtained when high-school subjects were retested a year later.

Evidence for validity of the original CPI is impressive, particularly from the standpoint of prediction. A combined score of seven of the scales more accurately predicted those students who would drop out of school than did either ability measures or grade-point average. Megargee (1972) assembled a handbook describing the CPI, its development, reliability and validity research, CPI literature, and its uses in assessment and research. Overall, Lake et al. (1973) described it as having a "relatively solid research base" and important "as a measure of social functioning (as contrasted with the the clinical tone of many personality inventories)" (p. 10).

Burger (1975) compiled a short form of the CPI consisting

of 234 of the original 480 items. He also derived the necessary regression equations in order to estimate the raw scores on all 18 scales for the original CPI (for description of the scales, see Appendix C). Raw scores can be converted to standard scores and placed on profile sheets for the 18 original scales for each individual. The items selected for the short form were identified by administering the original CPI to 101 males and 101 females (Burger). Through factor analysis, those items correlating the highest with the four factors (see Appendix C) were selected for inclusion and to represent those scales. A second sample of 99 males and 99 females were given the long form. Each of the 18 scales was scored twice per individual; once using the longer, standard CPI and once using the items selected for the short form. These two scores were correlated and Burger derived the regression equations. This short form was then given to a third sample of 25 males and 25 females on two occasions, with approximately 10 days between administrations. Correlations between short form and long form on the standard scales ranged from .78 to .93, with a median of .88. The regression equations estimated the means on the standard scales quite accurately, but the standard deviations were slightly smaller. The median test-retest reliability coefficient was .77, with a range of .60 to .89.

Armentrout (1977) administered the original CPI to 29 male and 31 female Canadian adults and scored both the



original CPI and the items of Burger's short form. Some inflation of the correlations might be expected because the items of the short form were derived solely from the long form.

In view of the relatively high correlations between Burger's short form of the inventory and Gough's original form of the test, it was decided to take advantage of the short form because it requires less administration time (30 minutes) and yields results comparable to the original CPI.

Demographic information. Demographic data were obtained for all subjects from a self-report questionnaire. Questions regarding age, marital status, number and ages of children, and licensure/certification were included. A brief history of the subject's education and occupation was also requested as well as that of her husband (if applicable), and her mother and father. (See Appendix D for the specific questions.)

### Procedures

A total of 20 women were randomly selected from three professional organizations' membership lists, each representing one of the following groups in southwest Michigan: psychology, social work, or counseling. Each selected woman was contacted by telephone (see Appendix E for transcript) by the researcher to determine her eligibility in terms of meeting the three selection criteria: (a) a master's degree

in one of the above professions, (b) working at least half time (20 hours per week) offering psychological services, and (c) expressing interest in participating in this research. A time and place for meeting each individual were then established for those meeting the criteria.

A form letter was sent to each subject describing the data collection procedure and what to expect during the meeting (see Appendix F). The demographic information questionnaire was enclosed with the letter, and the subjects were instructed to complete the form prior to the scheduled meeting. Each subject was contacted the day before the scheduled meeting to confirm the meeting time and location. Rescheduling did occur for one individual at that time.

At the beginning of the meeting, a synopsis of the form letter was presented for structuring purposes (see Appendix A). Afterwards, the subjects were given an opportunity to ask questions. Subjects were then asked to read and sign a consent form (see Appendix G) and were given a copy for their records.

The three instruments were then administered in the following order: the SAQS, the short form of the CPI, and the structured interview. They were presented in this order to facilitate subject involvement and to eliminate any possible biasing effect of the structured interview. The specific administrative instructions are included in Appendix H. An informal discussion regarding the topic area, and general

comments followed the data collection procedure to allow for interaction and feedback. It was also indicated to the women that there would be an informal group meeting at a later date for the express purpose of presenting the final results and discussing their relevance in the women's lives if enough interest was shown.

The response to the following question asked during the initial telephone contact determined research group placement for treatment of the results: "Who was your most significant mentor?" Those women whose most significant mentor was a female were placed in Group 1 (female mentors). Group 2 included those women whose most significant mentor was a male (male mentors).

Women were selected from the lists until each group contained 10 women. After the n for either group was obtained, no further data were collected from women meeting the conditions of that particular group. Once this occurred for a group, any further contacts with potential subjects that indicated membership in the unfilled group continued; otherwise, the telephone contact was terminated. The 10 women having male mentors had been procured before those with female mentors. Once it was learned after that point that a prospective subject's most significant mentor was a male, the contact was terminated. Termination was accomplished by briefly describing the study and indicating that a sufficient number of women having male mentors had been found and there

was only a need for women having female mentors at that time.

### Testable Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were tested:

1. Women having female mentors will report having had fewer difficulties during their professional development than women having male mentors.
2. Women having female mentors will report a larger proportion of their needs being met by their mentoring relationships than those women having male mentors.
3. Women having female mentors will describe their mentors as having more personal qualities that facilitated their mentoring relationships than women having male mentors.
4. Women having female mentors will describe their mentors as having proportionately fewer personal qualities that hindered their mentoring relationships than women having male mentors.
5. Women having female mentors will make a greater number of positive statements regarding their mentoring relationship's influence upon the integration of familial and professional roles than women having male mentors.
6. Women having female mentors will make a greater number of positive statements regarding their mentoring relationship's influence upon the integration of professional and feminine self-concepts than women having male mentors.
7. Women having female mentors will make a greater number of positive statements regarding the influence of their mentoring relationships on their overall professional development than those women having male mentors.

## Data Analyses

In view of the descriptive nature of this study, some of the information obtained was not appropriate for statistical analysis. Both formal and informal analysis procedures were used on the data. The information gathered from the demographic information questionnaire is presented in summary form, such as means and frequencies of the demographic data, when appropriate.

Structured interview data. The analysis of the information obtained from the structured interview occurred in two steps.

The first step involved the use of content analysis categories and procedures designed to permit content comparisons between the two groups. Content analysis strategies first became popular as a valuable means of analyzing propaganda during World War II. Content analysis is "a research technique for the objective, systematic and quantitative description of the manifest content of communication" (Berelson, 1952, p. 18). Since World War II, its use has spread to other areas beyond communication. These procedures can be used to analyze a large volume of information or to identify characteristics of the individuals involved in the communication. Content analysis can also be used to test hypotheses as well as facilitate the making of inferences.

The specific content categories used in this study were

derived from a pilot study of five interviews. By listening to each of the taped interviews and adding other responses that were anticipated, a complete list of categories was established in accordance with requirements for content categories (Berelson, 1952; Budd, Thorpe, & Donohew, 1967; Carney, 1972). See Appendix I for directions, definition of terms, and specific content analysis categories.

Once this task was completed, two individuals were employed to perform the actual content analysis of the 20 interviews on a blind basis. In other words, the content analyzers did not know what independent variable was under examination and remained as unbiased as possible. The training of these two individuals occurred in two steps. First of all, the content analyzers were instructed to review the specific categories, descriptions/definitions of terms, and any directions of which they needed to be aware in order to perform the content analysis. The pilot interviews were then used for practicing the content analysis procedure. Rater-reliability correlation coefficients were calculated and exceeded the minimum acceptable level of .75 (.88 and .87); therefore, no additional practice or revision of the content categories or directions was necessary before analyzing the 20 tapes for the study itself.

Each content analyzer reviewed 11 of the taped interviews. This provided an overlap of two interviews. The content analysis data obtained from these two interviews were

used to calculate additional rater reliability coefficients during the actual content analysis procedure. Rater reliability coefficients of .86 and .89 were obtained and surpassed the minimum acceptable level. Throughout the entire analysis process, the analyzers were bound by the same rules of confidentiality and storing of the tapes and other materials relating to the content analysis procedure in a locked file cabinet as the researcher. In the event the analyzers had any questions regarding a particular subject's responses, the subject's identification number was used as the subject's name was not disclosed to the analyzers.

The second part of the statistical analysis involved testing the research hypotheses which were based on the content analysis data by using Mann Whitney U tests ( $p < .10$ ) to determine whether the two groups had been drawn from the same population. Siegel (1956) described the Mann Whitney U test as one of the most powerful of the nonparametric tests. It can be a most useful alternative to the parametric t test, particularly when the researcher wants to avoid the more rigorous assumptions of parametric tests. Because the content analysis data were considered ordinal data, a nonparametric test such as the Mann Whitney U was more appropriate since it only requires that the data be ordinal in nature. Because there were several ties, the correction formula for the Mann Whitney U test was implemented.

SAQS data. Analysis of the data obtained from the SAQS

occurred in three steps. The first step involved obtaining differences between the weights of the columns that each individual adjective was placed for the subject's actual and ideal professional self-descriptions. After the total of the squared differences was obtained, it was converted to a Pearson  $r$  correlation coefficient by using the conversion table included in Corsini's (1956) manual. This Pearson  $r$  correlation coefficient was a measure or an overall indicator of the amount of discrepancy between each woman's perceptions of her actual and ideal professional selves or, conversely, the extent of their agreement or correlation.

The second step involved presenting the individual Pearson  $r$ 's and indicating those that exceeded the critical value of  $r$  based on the degrees of freedom ( $df = 8$ ) and a probability level of .01 ( $r = .716$ ).

The third part of the analysis of the SAQS data involved the use of a  $t$  test for independent samples (Glass & Stanley, 1970) to determine if there was a significant difference between the Pearson  $r$  correlation coefficients of the two groups. Certain assumptions regarding the data must be met in order to make appropriate inferences from the data when using a  $t$  test. The assumptions are that the scores (more specifically, the subjects) are selected at random from normal populations with equal variances and independent from each other. To the extent that these assumptions are not met, the strength or "robustness" (Glass & Stanley) of the test



will be decreased. However, violations of some of these assumptions are more serious than others. The data obtained in this study were from subjects who were randomly selected from the larger populations, but there was no way to determine the normality of the populations. Glass and Stanley indicated that the failure to meet the assumption of normality has only a slight effect upon the level of significance of the  $t$  test, so that matter was not considered a problem.

The third assumption of homogeneous variances in the population also could not be ascertained, as scores were not available from the entire populations. However, because equal sample sizes were obtained, any effect that heterogeneous population variances might have had was kept to a minimum and essentially considered negligible (Glass & Stanley). The samples were independent from each other, meeting the fourth assumption. Overall, the data met all of the assumptions that were critical, and efforts were made whenever possible to reduce any effects of not meeting the other relevant assumptions for use of the  $t$  test for independent samples such as equal sample sizes.

CPI data. The data obtained from the short form of the CPI required two steps in their analysis. After the raw scores on the short form were manipulated by use of the appropriate regression equations to estimate the full CPI scale scores, raw score means for each group were obtained for all 18 scales for further data analysis. However, raw

score means for each group were converted to standard scores for reporting purposes. Raw score means were used for further data analysis because standard scores could artificially "normalize" the distribution and probably would not present an accurate picture. The second part of the analysis involved the use of a  $t$  test for independent samples ( $p < .05$ ) in order to determine if the group means for each scale were significantly different from each other. The assumptions mentioned earlier in reference to  $t$  tests with Q-sort Pearson  $r$  correlation coefficients also pertain to the use of  $t$  tests with raw score means of the 18 scales of the CPI.

### Summary

Random selection of 20 women who were members of professional organizations representing social work, psychology, and counseling constituted the sample. Data were collected from those meeting the selection criteria of having a master's degree, working at least half-time providing psychological services, and being interested in participating. Three assessment instruments were administered to each individual. The SAQS provided a measure of the correlation between actual and ideal professional self-descriptions. The second instrument, the short form of the CPI, served as a measure of the personality characteristics of the individuals. The structured interview provided background information about the subjects as well as their mentoring relationships and

determined their placement into one of two groups: female mentors or male mentors. Both informal and formal data analysis procedures were used to compare the two groups on the basis of the data obtained from the above instruments.

## CHAPTER IV

### RESULTS

A detailed description of the sample of women having female and male mentors is presented in this chapter. The data obtained from the Standard Adjective Q Sort (SAQS) and California Psychological Inventory (CPI) are included as further descriptions of the women as measures of their perceptions of professional selves and general personality configurations, respectively. Information regarding the mentor-ship relationships these women have experienced are also presented. Finally, the research hypotheses and data obtained to test them are reported.

#### Description of Sample

While there were many similarities between the women selected for this study having female mentors (FMW) and those having male mentors (MMW), there were also some differences that warranted mentioning. FMW and MMW were similar in age (38.1 and 39.2 years, respectively), number of children (1 and 1.7), mean age of children (7 and 9.4 years), years of professional experience (8 and 8.2), number of working hours per week (35.8 and 36), and proportion having a professional license (90% and 80%). The two groups were also similar in terms of the educational background of their parents from

the standpoint that 70% and 80% of the mothers, respectively, either had a high-school education or less. Of the fathers, 60% and 70%, respectively, had educational attainment levels of less than or equivalent to high school.

Some differences in the characteristics of the groups were also apparent. Differences in marital status were substantial in view of 70% of the MMW being married and only 20% of the FMW. Individuals within the FMW group were evenly distributed, with 20% of them in each of the following categories: married, divorced, and other (one engaged and one widowed), and the remaining 40% of them single.

All of the subjects in the FMW group reported a master's degree as their highest degree attained, whereas 70% of the MMW reported master's degrees. One of the remaining individuals in the MMW group reported having a specialist degree and two reported having doctoral degrees. Because the professional preparation of the two groups differed, other variables were also affected. FMW was comprised of six social workers and four counselors, whereas MMW was comprised of six psychologists, one social worker, and three counselors. This composition was reflected in both the job titles and functions that these women held. Individuals with job titles of social worker and case worker comprised 60% of FMW and performed similar casework functions. MMW was comprised chiefly of individuals with job titles of psychologist and performed primarily therapy and assessment functions (70%).

On the other hand, the counselors in both groups were more diverse and displayed no particular pattern regarding either job titles or functions. Differential patterns in licensing were also apparent in that 70% of FMW were licensed/certified as social workers and 50% of MMW were licensed/certified as psychologists. Some of the counselors in both groups were licensed or certified as elementary school counselors, teachers, or nurses.

Information regarding the subjects' perceptions of significant people in their development; parental attitudes toward education, career, and their particular profession; dreams they may have had in which they envisioned themselves as functional adults; as well as being a woman and its importance in their personal and professional development are presented to provide additional background or in-depth descriptions.

Once again the groups appeared quite similar on many of these variables, with some exceptions. The majority of women in both groups reported elementary and/or high-school teachers of both sexes being influential in terms of them pursuing a career. These teachers were important because they showed personal interest as well as providing encouragement and support. They also served as role models and made clear distinctions between having a job and a career by enjoying what they did. For the most part, women in both groups were aware of the impact these various individuals

were having at the time. However, they also reported that there were some individuals that were influencing them at the time, but they were only aware of that influence in retrospect. Only a very few of these individuals (4 of 17 for FMW; 3 of 15 for MMW) have any influence on the subjects' development at the present time.

Parents performed important functions such as encouraging or supporting these women as they developed career interests. However, this parental encouragement and support appeared conditional or was provided for only certain areas of the subjects' development. While both parents were supportive of educational endeavors, this support in both groups did not necessarily include investment in a career or a particular profession. Mothers were seen as slightly more supportive of careers in both groups than were fathers. Mothers served as role models for about half of the women in both groups because of their working outside of the home. However, both parents appeared neutral in terms of the specific profession their daughters had chosen and, in fact, approximately half of the fathers of MMW displayed negative attitudes toward their chosen profession as reported by these women. At the present time, most of the women seem to think their parents have no influence while a few others indicated continued encouragement or a "being proud" attitude still prevalent in their parents.

The women in FMW more frequently reported having a dream

or an idea of what they wanted to become in the future in order to fit into the adult world. Half of them had strong convictions at a relatively early age that they wanted to work in a helping profession. The other half had dreams, but they were in fields unrelated to human services. On the other hand, the women in MMW were not nearly as clearly focused. While half of them had a dream, only 30% included working in human services whereas 20% were in unrelated fields. The other half either had no dream at all or only some unconnected ideas which were not clearly delineated or considered a motivating or driving force.

Women in MMW reported few changes in their dreams over time, but when changes were reported they usually involved making a decision on a specific profession or simply becoming more realistic. On the other hand, women in FMW reported changes in several areas such as becoming more focused or realistic as well as decisions regarding the specific profession. Both groups indicated that these changes in their dreams were largely the result of increased maturation or experiences and occasionally because of advanced course work.

Both groups included marriage and family as a viable part of their dream. There were one individual in FMW and two in MMW that vacillated between marriage and family and remaining single. Most of the women in MMW did not have any specific circumstances under which either marriage or family would occur. In contrast, the majority of FMW ( $\underline{n} = 7$ )



indicated they did have special conditions under which they would marry and/or have children. The special circumstances included wanting to complete their academic training or gain some experience beforehand, or wanting to know themselves as individuals and that they were capable of supporting themselves before marriage.

Being a woman in their particular profession was not reported as an issue for approximately half of the women (4 of FMW; 5 of MMW). Another third of each group considered their sex to be both a help and a hindrance in their profession. A few of the women (2 of FMW; 2 of MMW) indicated that being a woman was helpful to them because it was easier for them to get jobs. On the more negative side, women in both groups found that they had less credibility, were not considered as readily as men for administrative positions or promotions in general, expectations for extracurricular social/sexual involvement, as well as a lack of female role models.

#### Instrumentation Results

SAQS. A measure of the subjects' perceptions regarding their actual and ideal professional selves and the amount of agreement between the two was obtained by using the SAQS. The Pearson  $r$  correlation coefficients between the actual and ideal professional self-descriptions for the two groups are presented in Table 1. Not only was there a restricted

Table 1

Correlations Between Actual and Ideal Professional  
Self-Perceptions for Women with Female and Male  
Mentors

Subject	Group	
	Female-Mentored	Male-Mentored
1	.77*	.79*
2	.66	.75*
3	.75*	.73*
4	.69	.60
5	.66	.69
6	.89*	.77*
7	.75*	.66
8	.82*	.84*
9	.67	.65
10	.69	.79*

Note. Test of significance  $t = .24$ ;  $p = .408$ .

\* Exceeded critical value of Pearson  $r$  ( $r = .716$ ;  $p = .01$ ).

range of values for each group, but there were several ties within and between groups. Approximately half (5 of FMW; 6 of MMW) of the women's correlations exceeded the critical value of Pearson  $r$  ( $r = .716$ ). FMW and MMW groups do not appear to differ significantly from each other in the extent of agreement between the perceptions of their actual and ideal professional selves ( $t = .24$ ;  $p = .408$ ) or in the proportion of those exceeding the critical value of Pearson  $r$ .

CPI. General personality configurations for the two groups were similar except for 1 of the 18 scales (Table 2). There was a significant difference between the two groups on

Table 2  
 Scale Score Means and t Tests for Women with Female  
 and Male Mentors on California Psychological  
 Inventory<sup>a</sup>

Scale	Group		<u>t</u> <sup>c</sup>
	Female-Mentored <sup>b</sup>	Male-Mentored <sup>b</sup>	
1	49	59	-3.01*
2	52	55	- .42
3	57	55	- .36
4	59	59	.23
5	58	59	-1.26
6	49	47	1.03
7	38	46	-1.30
8	45	40	1.52
9	46	43	1.01
10	50	50	.00
11	42	43	- .30
12	24	24	- .81
13	52	54	-1.14
14	60	62	-1.01
15	56	54	.44
16	57	57	- .41
17	61	61	- .07
18	38	41	-1.35

<sup>a</sup>Estimated from scores on Burger's short form of California Psychological Inventory.

<sup>b</sup>n = 10.      <sup>c</sup>df = 18.

\* p < .05.

the Dominance scale of the CPI (t = 3.01; p < .05). MMW consistently scored higher on this scale than did FMW.

### Mentoring Relationships

The development of the mentoring relationships and the concomitant development of the women during that developmental period are presented below. The majority of the women in both groups were involved in academic training at the time their most significant mentoring relationships began. Mentors were actively being sought by about half of the women in each group, but for different reasons. FMW were looking for a reality base, feedback as well as trust and intimacy. On the other hand, MMW were looking for professional direction and confirmation. Availability appeared to play the major role in whether a male or female mentor was chosen. However, in some instances the position a person held, such as practicum or field placement supervisor, lent itself to fulfilling mentoring needs for the developing women. At other times, the mentees felt they did not actively choose the mentor but it was more of an accident, or perhaps there were certain personal qualities or characteristics of the mentor that attracted them. Two of the MMW indicated that they were actively seeking father substitutes or father images.

Descriptions of the mentoring relationship when at its peak were similar for both groups. They both viewed the relationship as sharing, building confidence, "a good working relationship," and comfortable. FMW were more apt to view

it as encouraging or supportive, whereas MMW were more apt to view the relationship as a friendship but still thought that need had not been completely satisfied. The majority of women in both groups indicated that their mentoring relationships facilitated their dreams by encouraging them to continue their professional development, serving as role models (female-mentored women only), and making the dream more realistic.

While approximately half of the relationships (3 of FMW; 6 of MMW) ended via graduation or death, a large portion continued in the vein of mutual respect, colleagues, peers, and/or friends (7 of FMW; 4 of MMW). Only one relationship ended in a personal/professional disagreement, and two of the above-mentioned four MMW later married their mentors.

The subjects described the meaning of their mentoring relationships in a variety of ways. The FMW described it as a warm, trusting, and meaningful relationship which provided encouragement and a strong influential force. The MMW described the meaning of the relationship as developing professional identity, personal endorsement, treated/respected as a professional, a strong influential force, and growth. The MMW rated their mentoring relationships as more intense than FMW. Approximately half of the women (4 of FMW; 5 of MMW) reported the meaning of the mentoring relationship had changed. It had become less intense, but they still admired their mentors and the relationships they had had. Overall,

approximately one third of the women (3 of FMW; 4 of MMW) were extremely satisfied, another third (4 of FMW; 3 of MMW) were very satisfied, and a fourth (2 of FMW; 3 of MMW) were satisfied with their mentors and the relationships they had with them. One FMW stated that she was dissatisfied with her mentor and that relationship.

### Hypotheses

The seven research hypotheses and the data obtained from the structured interviews to test the hypotheses are presented below.

- H<sub>1</sub>: Women having female mentors will report having had fewer difficulties during their professional development than women having male mentors.

The number of difficulties experienced by each of the subjects during the period of time beginning with their academic training to obtaining their current position is presented in Table 3. Based on the value obtained by subjecting the data to a Mann Whitney U test ( $\underline{U} = 43.5$ ;  $\underline{p} = .31$ ), the null hypothesis cannot be rejected. Therefore, there is no significant difference in the number of difficulties experienced by women with female or male mentors during that period of time.

Most of the difficulties for both groups involved poor quality of academic training or a lack of direction or focus during the training. Three of the MMW described experiences

Table 3

Number of Difficulties Experienced By Women with  
Female and Male Mentors During Their  
Professional Development

Subject	Group	
	Female-Mentored	Male-Mentored
1	3	1
2	2	3
3	0	5
4	2	2
5	4	2
6	1	2
7	0	3
8	1	2
9	1	1
10	5	0
Mean	1.9	2.1

Note. Mann Whitney  $\bar{U}$  = 43;  $p$  = .34.

involving "sexual harassment" and/or "sexist stuff." Tolerance and perseverance were the ways most commonly mentioned by the women in dealing with the above difficulties.

$H_2$ : Women having female mentors will report a larger proportion of their needs being met by their mentoring relationships than those women having male mentors.

The number of needs met by their mentors is reported for each individual in Table 4. The Mann Whitney  $\bar{U}$  value of 35.5 ( $p$  = .12) indicates that the null hypothesis cannot be rejected. However, it does approach significance ( $p$  < .10), but in the direction opposite of that predicted. While the

Table 4  
 Number of Needs Met By Female and Male Mentors  
 During Women's Professional Development

Subject	Group	
	Female-Mentored	Male-Mentored
1	3	2
2	2	3
3	2	4
4	2	3
5	2	3
6	3	3
7	3	1
8	2	1
9	1	5
10	3	3
Mean	2.3	2.8

Note. Mann Whitney  $U = 35.5$ ;  $p = .121$ .

male mentors filled more needs for their mentees than did the female mentors, the difference was not considered significant.

FMW reported needs for professional direction and role models as well as support and acceptance. In contrast, MMW indicated needs for confirmation and resources, support, and perhaps more personal sharing or closeness. While the MMW desired personal closeness or friendship, they indicated that this need frequently was not met, at least not to their satisfaction.



H<sub>3</sub>: Women having female mentors will describe their mentors as having more personal qualities that facilitated their mentoring relationships than women having male mentors.

The number of positive qualities that the women used to describe their mentors is reported in Table 5. FMW most often described them as supportive, experienced, could talk and share, accepting, open, honest, bright, informal, and firm. In contrast, MMW described them as accepting, supportive, charismatic, lovable, gentle, warm, open, and good listeners.

Table 5  
Number of Personal Qualities of Mentors that Facilitated Development of Mentoring Relationship

Subject	Group	
	Female-Mentored	Male-Mentored
1	4	2
2	6	4
3	2	7
4	6	2
5	5	5
6	4	3
7	6	0
8	3	4
9	4	3
10	6	9
Mean	4.6	3.9

Note. Mann Whitney  $U = 36.5$ ;  $p = .15$ .

The Mann Whitney  $\underline{U}$  ( $\underline{U} = 36.5$ ;  $p = .15$ ) indicates that the null hypothesis cannot be rejected. Once again the statistic approached significance, but in the predicted direction. While FMW used a greater number of positive qualities to describe their mentors than did the MMW, the difference was not significant.

$H_4$ : Women having female mentors will describe their mentors as having proportionately fewer personal qualities that hindered their mentoring relationships than women having male mentors.

The number of negative qualities each individual used to describe her mentor is presented in Table 6. A few of the

Table 6  
Number of Personal Qualities of Mentors that  
Hindered Development of Mentoring  
Relationship

Subject	Group	
	Female-Mentored	Male-Mentored
1	0	0
2	1	2
3	0	0
4	3	2
5	2	1
6	1	2
7	1	0
8	1	0
9	0	3
10	3	0
Mean	1.2	1.0

Note. Mann Whitney  $\underline{U} = 44.0$ ;  $p = .317$ .

FMW described their mentors as cold, awesome, scatterbrained, and emotionally unstable, or not having enough time to spend with the mentee. On the other hand, a few of the MMW described them as opinionated, overzealous, awesome, and too personal.

The null hypothesis cannot be rejected because of a Mann Whitney  $\underline{U}$  value of 44.0 ( $\underline{p} = .32$ ). There is no significant difference between the two groups in terms of the number of negative qualities they used to describe their mentors.

$H_5$ : Women having female mentors will make a greater number of positive statements regarding their mentoring relationship's influence upon the integration of familial and professional roles than women having male mentors.

The number of positive statements made by each individual about the mentor's influence on integrating family and having a career is reported in Table 7. The FMW indicated that their mentors either served as role models ( $\underline{n} = 4$ ) and gave them ideas regarding what it was or would be like to attempt to integrate these two roles, or had no effect ( $\underline{n} = 6$ ). Male mentors influenced integration of these roles by encouraging their mentees to continue and assisted them in finding a comfortable balance.

The Mann Whitney  $\underline{U}$  test resulted in a value of 41.5 ( $\underline{p} = .24$ ), which indicated that the null hypothesis cannot be rejected. There is no significant difference between the number of positive statements made by FMW and MMW.

Table 7

Number of Positive Statements Regarding Influence  
of Women's Mentors Upon Integration of  
Familial and Professional Roles

Subject	Group	
	Female-Mentored	Male-Mentored
1	3	0
2	0	4
3	0	1
4	1	1
5	2	1
6	0	1
7	0	2
8	0	0
9	0	0
10	1	0
Mean	0.7	1.0

Note. Mann Whitney  $U = 41.5$ ;  $p = .243$ .

$H_0$ : Women having female mentors will make a greater number of positive statements regarding their mentoring relationship's influence upon the integration of professional and feminine self-concepts than women having male mentors.

The number of positive statements made by each individual regarding the mentor's influence on her integration of being a woman and having a career is presented in Table 8. FMW described their mentors as either having no effect or as role models. The male mentors provided confirmation, support, held high expectations for the mentees, increased confidence and competence, and facilitated acceptance of the feminine

Table 8  
 Number of Positive Statements Regarding Influence of  
 Women's Mentors Upon Integration of Professional  
 and Feminine Roles

Subject	Group	
	Female-Mentored	Male-Mentored
1	3	0
2	1	1
3	0	0
4	0	2
5	1	2
6	1	3
7	0	1
8	0	4
9	2	4
10	0	1
Mean	0.8	1.8

Note. Mann Whitney  $U = 29.0$ ;  $p = .061$ .

part of self.

MMW made a significantly greater number of positive statements regarding their mentors' influences upon integrating their feminine and professional self-concepts ( $U = 29.0$ ;  $p = .06$ ). The null hypothesis can be rejected, but in the opposite direction of that predicted.

$H_7$ : Women having female mentors will make a greater number of positive statements regarding the influence of their mentoring relationships on their overall professional development than those women having male mentors.

The number of positive statements made by each mentee

regarding the influence of her mentor on her overall professional development is presented in Table 9. The female mentors increased the women's confidence while providing information and skill development as well as encouragement. MMW described them as providing role models, skill development, increasing confidence, and making their plans more realistic.

Table 9  
Number of Positive Statements Regarding Influence of  
Mentors Upon Women's Overall Professional  
Development

Subject	Group	
	Female-Mentored	Male-Mentored
1	2	1
2	2	1
3	2	3
4	4	2
5	4	2
6	5	3
7	2	2
8	2	5
9	2	1
10	3	3
Mean	2.8	2.3

Note. Mann Whitney  $\bar{U}$  = 48.0;  $p$  = .437.

Based on the Mann Whitney  $\bar{U}$  test value obtained ( $\bar{U}$  = 48.0;  $p$  = .44), the null hypothesis cannot be rejected. Therefore, there is no significant difference between the two groups in

terms of the number of positive statements the women made regarding their mentors' influences on their overall professional development.

A discussion of the results and how these results relate to the literature as presented in Chapter II are included in Chapter V. Chapter V also includes the conclusions drawn from this study as well as recommendations regarding further research.

## CHAPTER V

### DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Discussion of the results obtained from this study and how they relate to the literature previously reviewed are presented in this chapter. The conclusions drawn from the results are included as well. Recommendations for further research in the general area of mentoring relationships and specifically with mentoring relationships of women are also presented.

#### Discussion

Before any specific areas are examined, the generalizability of the results obtained in this study should be addressed. While the two groups (female- and male-mentored) were similar on variables such as age, years of experience, proportion of licenses, and educational background of parents, there were other variables where relatively large discrepancies between groups existed. The effect of some of these variables may have been inconsequential, while others may have had substantial confounding influences on the variables under examination.

Professional composition of the two groups was dissimilar in that social workers comprised the majority of the female-mentored group and psychologists comprised the majority of



the male-mentored group. The differences between these two professions from both academic and field perspectives could be fairly substantial. This variable in itself could be largely responsible for or be a key factor in determining the results obtained in addition to, or perhaps instead of, the sex of the mentor. Psychology has traditionally been a male-dominated field with specialized training and perhaps closer teacher/student ratios during that training. The availability of prospective female mentors in subsequent placements and employment in this field is probably quite limited. On the other hand, social work has been considered a traditionally female-dominated field, although relatively few females probably reach administrative-level positions. They have their own specialized training, may tend to have higher teacher/student ratios, but may be provided more contact and/or opportunity to observe women who are successfully established in this profession. Counselors were evenly distributed between the two groups.

Differences in motivation for having a career via explanation of a dream including a career in human services or a helping profession may also have confounded the obtained results. The male-mentored women tended not to have dreams, but many of the female-mentored women made changes in their dreams over time. Other variables such as supervisory styles, availability, age, marital status, and social/cultural differences between the two groups might also in part

explain the obtained results. It is not known what effect these discrepancies may have had on the results. The small sample size and voluntary nature of subject selection are other factors which delimit the generalizability of the results of this research.

Women in both groups reported various types of role contradictions in terms of their personal expectations and the expectations of society. Consistent with the reviewed literature, the subjects felt pressures from the expectations of society that family and marital responsibilities should have first priority in their lives. However, many of these women were questioning society's priorities and attempted to balance family and professional roles simultaneously rather than only pursuing professional goals after family obligations had been met. Some of the older women, by their own choice, complied with societal demands by meeting family needs before addressing career goals in their mid- to late 30's.

Some of the women felt that the socialization process had hindered them from the standpoint that they did not consider a career to be viable as an option for them, as it is for males, until later in life; for some women, concern for career came too late to pursue their dreams to the fullest extent. The fact that certain behaviors were appropriate for both males and females further confused women in their attempts to fulfill their professional obligations. While

attention regarding the need or desirability of androgenous behaviors or roles has been prevalent in society, the application of these teachings in actual employment and academic settings has been rather uneventful. Ziebarth (1971) and Sanzgiri (1978) described the conflict that many of these subjects experienced regarding the socialization process of appropriate behaviors and roles for women, while at the same time attempting to pursue personal goals of achievement in professional careers and a sense of identity which may contradict the former. These women reported that role models often served an important function in aiding the integration of these two conflicting issues.

Questioning the relevancy of the sex of the model, per se, was raised in Chapter II regarding parental influence. Williams (1977) mentioned that a balance of expressive and instrumental behaviors was most important and that either parent or both could conceivably model those behaviors. The importance of having same-sex role models for women in order to provide illustrative successes in terms of integrating family, feminine, and professional roles was emphasized in the reviewed literature and was applicable to a certain extent for the women included in this sample. While half of the female mentors served as examples of successful integration of these roles as role models, the other female mentors were viewed either as having no influence ( $n = 1$ ) or as negative models ( $n = 4$ ) from the standpoint of not having a

satisfactory personal life and/or not being productive and comfortable in their professional roles. Approximately one third of the female mentors ( $\underline{n} = 3$ ) were considered strong positive models by their mentees. This relatively small number of positive female models may in part be the result of minority group self-hatred involving competition or attempts to keep women in lower positions to reduce any threats they may present to women already in positions of authority. It may also be that these female mentors were having many personal/professional difficulties of their own which required their energies, thus limiting the amount of energy they had left to invest in their female mentees.

On the other hand, half of the women with male mentors indicated that their mentors also served as role models but in other areas such as skill development and competencies rather than integrating various roles. These women also sought more personal friendship from their mentors and received some satisfaction of this need. However, some of the women ( $\underline{n} = 5$ ) indicated that they would have liked more of a personal or friendship component to their mentoring relationship. This aspect was not as predominant a need expressed by the women with female mentors ( $\underline{n} = 3$ ), but when it was there was not as much satisfaction of that need reported (2 of the 3 were dissatisfied). At times, the male mentors were described as gentle or sensitive in nonstereotypical ways much as Sanzgiri (1978) reported in her study.

Women in both groups reported difficulties in their professional development similar to those barriers discussed by Epstein (1970). Some of these difficulties were tangible, such as not being considered for promotions or for administrative types of positions, salary differentials, sexual advances, and lack of female role models. Less tangible difficulties were mentioned, such as not being taken seriously, having less credibility, societal expectations regarding behaviors and roles as well as oftentimes not having support from other female staff members.

Perceptions of self as having identity separate from others as mentioned in the literature were important to most of the women included in this sample. The women's perceptions of their professional self-images were considered an important component of their overall self-image or self-concept. The Standard Adjective Q Sort (SAQS) was used to obtain a measure of these women's perceptions of their professional selves as they were presently and how they would like to be some time in the future. The amount of agreement between these two descriptions (actual vs. ideal) was then ascertained and compared for the two groups. As indicated in Chapter IV, there was a restricted range of correlational values (.60 to .89) and no significant difference was found between the two groups. The information obtained from this sample of women does not support the point that proponents of same-sex mentors presented regarding women's needs for

same-sex mentors in order to feel better about themselves professionally. In other words, the women indicated about the same amount of discrepancy between their actual and ideal professional selves regardless of the sex of the mentor.

Another area under investigation involved the personality characteristics of women having female and male mentors. General personality configurations were obtained by administering the short form of the California Psychological Inventory (CPI) to determine if there were any significant differences between the two groups in various personality characteristics. The two groups were quite similar on 17 of the 18 scales. Scores on the Dominance scale were consistently higher for those women having male mentors (scale score means of 59 and 49, respectively;  $p < .05$ ). The women with male mentors sampled for this study were more likely to impress others as being forceful, persistent, and self-assured or confident in their abilities according to what the Dominance scale purports to measure. They tended to be more persuasive, verbally fluent, and independent. They could also be viewed as having leadership potential, assertiveness, and more willingness to take initiative than the women having female mentors. It may be that the male mentors were more capable of performing leadership types of skills due to more extensive experiences and inherent training than their female counterparts. It is reasonable to consider male role models for leadership, and they may have provided the women with

more direct experiences at leadership roles or functions than was true of women with female mentors. This is not to say that women with female mentors did not display these behaviors, but apparently they exhibited them less frequently or less instructively.

The mentoring relationship and its development warrant discussion not only for the women included in these two groups, but also how it compared to what was already known about this special relationship. Most of the mentoring relationships began while the women were involved in academic training, and some of the women as indicated in the literature were actively seeking mentors to fill certain needs for them during their professional development. In agreement with Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson, & McKee (1978) and Stewart (1976), the mentors were older than the women and more established in the human services field but not necessarily in the same profession such as a minister-mentor and counselor-mentee.

The mentors filled many of the needs these women had and performed most of the roles or functions that Levinson ascribed to them. Their mentors provided skill development experiences and enhanced that process by serving as role models and/or teachers. At times they facilitated professional contacts, job placement, and advancement, thus serving a sponsor-like role for the mentees. They also made information available to the women regarding the values and customs

considered important for establishment and subsequent advancement within the particular profession (host/guide). Support and encouragement were provided by most of the mentors not only for continued involvement in the profession, but also for any dreams their mentees had regarding how they would fit into the adult world as functioning adults.

There were also needs for personal exchanges and friendships that were provided by the mentors, particularly males. This component of the relationship was particularly evident in the cross-sex mentoring relationships based on the mentees describing their male mentors as "lovable," "gentle," "warm," and "accepting." The male-mentored women more often described their mentoring relationships as friendships and mutual respect as well as being more intense. However, it appears that more of these women later became independent and separated from the mentors than did the women with female mentors. Women with female mentors tended to continue the relationships even after the original needs were filled and they began to struggle with other issues. In essence, the women with male mentors described their mentoring relationships as being more intense and involved, both personally and professionally, while they lasted, than did the women with same-sex mentors. However, they were often terminated once graduation or more independent status was obtained, whereas the same-sex mentoring relationships continued and occasionally became reciprocal and mutually supportive. As mentioned in Chapter



IV, two of the mentees married their male mentors which continued the mentoring relationships, but because they also became very personal, the mentoring aspect of their relationships had decreased.

Overall, the pattern of development of the mentoring relationships for women appeared similar to that described by Levinson et al. (1978) for men not only in terms of describing the mentor and the roles the mentor filled, but also the progression of the relationship with one exception. According to Levinson, many of the mentoring relationships ended with one or both parties dissatisfied. This did not appear to be the pattern for the women included in this sample. For the most part, the mentors and mentees remained good friends and continued contact via letters, telephone calls, occasional visits, or meeting at yearly conventions. There tended to be more involvement as peers or providing mutual support and perhaps supervision rather than severing all ties as is fairly common with male x male mentoring relationships.

Most of the data obtained to test the research hypotheses yielded results that contradicted the literature. Subsequent analyses of these data revealed that the obtained results in six of the seven hypotheses indicated that there were no significant differences between the two groups. The six hypotheses focused on the following: number of difficulties experienced during professional development; number

of needs met; number of personal qualities that facilitated and hindered the mentoring relationship; and number of positive statements regarding the mentor's influences on integrating family and career and overall professional development.

In testing the hypothesis addressing the number of positive statements made by the mentees regarding their mentors' influencing integration of feminine and professional self-concepts, it was found that women with male mentors made a significantly greater number of positive statements regarding their mentors' influences on their integrating being a woman and having a career ( $p = .06$ ). Data to test the hypothesis involving the number of needs met by the mentors indicated that male mentors filled slightly more needs for their mentees than did the female mentors, but were not considered statistically significant ( $p = .12$ ). Data to test the hypothesis regarding number of personal qualities of the mentors that facilitated the development of the mentoring relationships indicated that the women with female mentors used a slightly greater number of personal qualities in describing their mentors, but it also was not considered statistically significant ( $p = .15$ ).

### Conclusions

Once again it should be mentioned that generalizing the results obtained from these samples to the larger population

is questionable in view of the sample sizes and possible confounding variables. However, some conclusions can be drawn about the specific subjects included in these two samples of female- and male-mentored women in human services professions.

There appears to be no difference between the two groups in terms of the extent of agreement between their actual and ideal professional self-descriptions. Male-mentored and female-mentored women view themselves as having the same amount of discrepancy between the way they see themselves at the present time professionally and the way they would like to be professionally in the future.

The personality configurations of the two groups of women are very similar as measured by Burger's short form of the CPI. On only 1 of the 18 scales, Dominance, did the groups significantly differ. Women with male mentors scored consistently higher on this scale which includes such traits as assertiveness, persuasiveness, independence, and having leadership potential.

The developmental sequence of the mentoring relationship for women in both groups was similar to that described by Levinson et al. (1978) for men. However, there do appear to be some differences in terms of how or even if the relationships terminated.

Data obtained to test the research hypotheses indicated for the most part that there were no statistically significant

differences between male and female mentoring relationships as reported by the female mentees. Both males and females can serve mentoring roles for women attempting to develop professionally. Perhaps as women become more confident in their roles and more established, they will be able to provide more positive mentoring, as the literature suggests. Based on the information obtained from these subjects, there appears to be little support for the overriding need or subsequent benefit of female mentors over male mentors. While male mentors may have had a slightly more positive influence on these women's professional development, particularly in terms of integration of feminine and professional self-concepts, the majority of the differences were not to such an extent that they could be considered statistically significant for this sample of professional women. On other variables such as professional self-perceptions and personality characteristics, the sex of the mentor does not appear to have any differential impacts. The possible confounding influences of variables previously mentioned such as professional composition of the two groups, age, marital status, social/cultural differences as well as others, may make these findings and conclusions suspect in terms of cause-and-effect relationships, and in fact might be largely responsible for those effects obtained in this study rather than the sex of the mentor, per se.

## Recommendations

The entire area of mentoring warrants further research. More in-depth investigation regarding differences between same-sex and cross-sex mentors for both males and females could yield substantial information. This information could prove valuable to individuals in positions to be mentors so that they could more effectively meet their mentees' needs and facilitate their professional development.

In order to increase the generalizability of the obtained results, there need to be stricter controls regarding the samples from each of the populations (female- and male-mentored women) so that they are more similar in all respects except for the independent variable(s). Because of the large number of variables operating during the women's development, it is very difficult to explicate cause-and-effect types of relationships. One must be cautious of drawing that type of conclusion but, rather, place the new information into its proper perspective. Larger sample sizes may be helpful not only in terms of generalizability, but also gaining additional information. It might also be helpful to increase the range of professional women and educational levels considered for inclusion in the samples or investigate one profession at a time in more depth.

As more information is obtained, the focus of the comparisons may become more specific. If this occurs, the

investigator may want to incorporate more concrete measures of the dependent variables as corollaries to self-report types of measures. For example, assuming that professional development of mentees is still a focus, it might be beneficial to obtain a tangible measure of the individual's professional development along with his/her own perceptions.

This study resulted in additional information regarding mentoring relationships, particularly as they pertain to women in the human services field. Further investigation needs to occur in order to learn more about the characteristics of the mentoring relationships with mentors of the same and opposite sex. Mentors can become more aware of what expectations and needs the mentees have for them. Mentees or developing individuals may also become more aware of their needs and be in a position to be more selective and deliberately seek and choose their mentors.

## APPENDIX A

### STRUCTURED INTERVIEW

#### Structuring

As mentioned during our initial telephone contact, the purpose of this interview is to obtain information regarding the mentoring relationship and how that has influenced women's professional development for my dissertation. All information is confidential and all identifying information such as your name and address or anyone you may mention will be withheld. However, some of your responses may be included in the text of the dissertation. The interview will last approximately 1 hour. Various questions regarding parental values and attitudes, the role of significant others, problems in attaining your current position, being female and its importance as well as the mentoring relationship in terms of professional development itself will be presented. Many of these questions will require some thought and deliberation on your part and all efforts will be made to assist you in that process. If at any time you do not understand what is being asked of you, feel free to ask for clarification. To help me keep track of what is being said, I would like to tape our interview as well as take some notes. Will you give me permission to tape? As I said before, all information is confidential and the tape will be kept in a locked file cabinet in my house. It would be helpful if your calls could be held if that is possible so as to avoid interruptions. Do you have any questions?

If there are no (more) questions, this form addresses confidentiality and the taping of this interview. I would like you to read it and then sign both copies. Please keep one for your records in case you have a need to contact me.

If everything is clear and you have no questions, let's begin. Initially, I would like to ask some general questions regarding your professional development before discussing your mentoring relationship specifically.

Questions

Has the Demographic Information questionnaire been completed? I see that \_\_\_\_\_ was a significant event in terms of your professional development. Could you tell me how that influenced your development?

1. a) As you think back as far as you can remember, who were the individuals other than your parents that you considered influential in terms of your pursuing a career as well as choosing (Ss profession) itself?
  - b) In what ways were they influential?
  - c) Were you aware of their influence at the time, or was it more in retrospect that you realized their impact?
  - d) Which of these individuals, if any, do you think are still influencing your development?
2. a) What influences do you think your parents have had on your pursuing a career and/or selecting (Ss profession) as a profession; specifically, what were their attitudes and values regarding education, having a career, and (Ss profession), particularly for women?
  - b) In what way, if any, are they still influencing your development?
3. a) As we develop, many of us have ideas or pictures of what we want to become in the future that could be called our Dream. Involved in this Dream are how we fit into the world as adults and yet are unique or have our own particular niche within the world.
  - b) What Dream have you had regarding yourself and how you would fit into the adult world around you?
  - c) Did your Dream include marriage and family?
  - d) If so, were there any special circumstances under which they were to occur or would happen?
  - e) What changes, if any, have been made regarding your Dream over time?
  - f) What circumstances led to this(these) change(s)?



4. a) In terms of your academic training itself, what problems or difficulties did you encounter, if any?  
b) How did you manage or resolve these difficulties?
5. a) What difficulties can you recall having during the time between graduation and obtaining your current position?  
b) How did you handle these difficulties?  
c) Are you presently experiencing any difficulties on the job?
6. a) As you look back, do you think being a woman in your profession has been a help or a hindrance?  
b) In what ways?  
c) Were there times during your professional development that being a woman was more of an issue than at others? If so, when?

Now I would like to ask you questions regarding your mentoring relationship.

7. a) Would you describe where you were in terms of your professional development when your mentoring relationship began?  
b) Were you actively seeking a mentor at that time? If so, why at that particular time in your life?  
c) Why did you choose a male(female) mentor?  
d) What needs did you have? Why was a mentor so important at that time in your development?  
e) Were there any needs that you had which your mentor did not meet? If so, what were they and why weren't they met?
8. What personal qualities of your mentor facilitated the development of this mentoring relationship?
9. What personal qualities hindered the development of this relationship?
10. How would you describe your mentoring relationship when it was at its optimum level of development or at its peak?

11. a) What happened to your mentoring relationship once it peaked?
  - b) Has this relationship ended?
  - c) If so, why or how?
  - d) What is the nature of your present relationship if one still exists?
12. What effect did your mentoring experience have on your attempts to integrate family and career?
13. What effect did your mentoring experience have on integrating your being a woman and having a career?
14. What influence do you think this mentor and the relationship has had on your overall professional development (e.g., occupational selection, skill acquisition, competence, job placement)?
15. We talked earlier about your Dream or how you envisioned being part of the adult world. As you look back, how did your mentor influence this Dream? Did he/she facilitate or hinder that Dream?
16. During our life, we have many different types of relationships and various levels of intensity associated with them. While some of these relationships may be superficial, others may be much more intense. When compared to all other relationships you have experienced, where on a continuum of low, medium, to high levels of intensity do you think your mentoring relationship would fall?
17. a) What was the meaning of this mentoring relationship to you?
  - b) In retrospect, does it have the same meaning now as when you were in it? If not, how has it changed?
18. Overall, how satisfied were you with the particular mentor and the relationship that you had with him/her?

Those are all of the questions that I have. Is there anything else you would like to say regarding any of the questions or issues we have discussed? Any general comments or reactions?

If you wish to know about the findings of my study, I would be glad to present them to you. Once it is completed, I plan on having an informal meeting to present my results and any informal discussion that may follow. I will give you a call when that time comes.

APPENDIX B

ADJECTIVES: STANDARD ADJECTIVE Q SORT

- |                     |                  |
|---------------------|------------------|
| 1. daring           | 31. dependent    |
| 2. cautious         | 32. quick        |
| 3. aloof            | 33. hasty        |
| 4. adventurous      | 34. hurry        |
| 5. secretive        | 35. talkative    |
| 6. foresighted      | 36. active       |
| 7. witty            | 37. warm-hearted |
| 8. shrewd           | 38. soft-hearted |
| 9. imaginative      | 39. gentle       |
| 10. original        | 40. appreciative |
| 11. resourceful     | 41. discreet     |
| 12. clever          | 42. unselfish    |
| 13. clear-thinking  | 43. insensitive  |
| 14. responsible     | 44. sensitive    |
| 15. dependable      | 45. sarcastic    |
| 16. self-controlled | 46. easy-going   |
| 17. moderate        | 47. calm         |
| 18. persevering     | 48. worrying     |
| 19. jealous         | 49. emotional    |
| 20. high-strung     | 50. excitable    |
| 21. nervous         |                  |
| 22. suspicious      |                  |
| 23. immature        |                  |
| 24. aggressive      |                  |
| 25. forceful        |                  |
| 26. independent     |                  |
| 27. stubborn        |                  |
| 28. dominant        |                  |
| 29. outspoken       |                  |
| 30. submissive      |                  |

## APPENDIX C

### DESCRIPTIONS OF CALIFORNIA PSYCHOLOGICAL INVENTORY SCALES

#### Class I: Poise, Ascendancy, and Self-Assurance

1. Dominance (Do): indicating dominance, leadership, initiative, and the tendency to behave in a forthright and resolute manner.
2. Capacity for Status (Cs): reflecting the personal qualities which underlie and lead to status and social attainment; being ambitious, forceful, and interested in success; the kind of person who will get ahead in the world.
3. Sociability (Sy): indicating a liking for and interest in social life and activity, being outgoing and sociable; the kind of person who enjoys group activities and likes to be with and work with others.
4. Social Presence (Sp): indicating factors such as poise, spontaneity, self-confidence, and vivaciousness in personal and social interaction.
5. Self-Acceptance (Sa): reflecting one's sense of personal worth and satisfaction with one's self; relative freedom from self-doubt and critical attitudes about one's self.
6. Sense of Well-Being (Wb): indicating a sense of physical and emotional well-being and comfort; the feeling of being able to enjoy life.

#### Class II: Socialization, Maturity, and Social Responsibility

7. Responsibility (Re): indicating seriousness of thought and manner, conscientiousness, dependability, and uprightness; being the kind of person that others tend to trust and to rely upon.
8. Socialization (So): indicating a strong sense of probity and propriety; acceptance of rules, proper authority, and custom; a person who seldom if ever gets into trouble.

9. Self-Control (Sc): indicating the degree and adequacy of self-regulation and self-control; not impulsive, or given to acting on the spur of the moment.
10. Tolerance (To): indicating attitudes of permissiveness, tolerance, and acceptance of others; being open-minded and unprejudiced about beliefs and values quite different from one's own.
11. Good Impression (Gi): indicating an interest in making a good impression and being concerned about how others will react to oneself.
12. Communality (Cm): indicating a fitting-in with the crowd, having the same reactions and feelings as everyone else, seeing things the way most people see them.

Class III: Achievement Potential and Intellectual Efficiency

13. Achievement via Conformance (Ac): indicating someone with a strong need for achievement, and who is at his best in situations having definite rules and structure.
14. Achievement via Independence (Ai): indicating the kind of person who has a strong need for achievement and who is at his best in new or untried situations where he must work on his own and without external guidance.
15. Intellectual Efficiency (Ie): indicating the efficiency with which one uses intellectual and personal resources; the ability to start working quickly without need to delay or procrastinate, and to keep working on intellectual tasks over long periods of time.

Class IV: Personal Orientation and Attitudes Toward Life

16. Psychological-Mindedness (Py): indicating the degree to which one is interested in and responsive to the inner needs, motives, and feelings of others; being introceptive, sensitive to others; having a knack for understanding how others feel and react inwardly.
17. Flexibility (Fx): indicating the degree of flexibility and adaptability of a person's thinking and social behavior; the liking for change and innovation and even a preference for things new and untried.

18. Femininity (Fe): indicating the tendency to help and support others through patience and loving kindness; being in general gentle and sympathetic (low scorers tend to be more decisive, robust, and action-oriented).

Note. From Lake, Miles, and Earle (1973).

APPENDIX D

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

This instrument is part of the research being conducted by Barbara J. Quinn under the auspices of the Counseling and Personnel Department of Western Michigan University. The information obtained will not be identified by the individual's name, city of residence, or other individuals she may mention.

1. Age: \_\_\_\_\_

2. Marital status: \_\_\_\_\_ Married \_\_\_\_\_ Single  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Divorced \_\_\_\_\_ Other  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Separated

3. Number of children (if any): \_\_\_\_\_ Ages: \_\_\_\_\_  
 \_\_\_\_\_  
 \_\_\_\_\_

4. Education:

School	Degree	Major Area	Year Granted
_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____

5. Occupational history (begin with most recent):

Job/Title	How Long	Hrs./Wk.	Function
_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____

6. Occupation of:

Husband (if married): \_\_\_\_\_  
 Mother: \_\_\_\_\_  
 Father: \_\_\_\_\_



## 7. Education (highest degree earned):

Husband (if married): \_\_\_\_\_

Mother: \_\_\_\_\_

Father: \_\_\_\_\_

## 8. Are you professionally licensed or certified in the State of Michigan?

\_\_\_\_\_ Yes

\_\_\_\_\_ No

If yes, what are you licensed/certified as?

\_\_\_\_\_

## 9. What significant events in your life do you see having influenced your professional development?

\_\_\_\_\_



mentor? To assist you in responding to this question, I thought it might be helpful if I defined who a mentor is. While I describe a mentor, I want you to think about individuals you can recall who fit this description during your development:

A mentor was usually someone who was older than you and who had greater experience and seniority in the work world to which you aspired. Furthermore, your mentor must have performed several functions for you such as teacher, sponsor, host/guide, and role model/exemplar. Mentors provide counsel and emotional support for you when necessary. Essentially, your mentor would have been someone whom you could designate as being a particularly influential force in contributing to your development as a professional woman.

Once again, what was the name and title of your most significant mentor?

When would be a convenient time and location for you?

Perhaps you would like to make a note of my name, and the telephone numbers where I can be reached.

Please give me your address so that I may send you a brief description of what to expect during our 2 hours together. I will also be sending you a brief questionnaire that I would appreciate you filling out prior to our appointment. If for some reason you are unable to keep our appointment, please call me so that we may reschedule as soon as possible.

I will call you the day before our scheduled appointment, to reconfirm the time and location of the interview.

Thank you for your interest and cooperation. See you  
at \_\_\_\_\_ on \_\_\_\_\_ at \_\_\_\_\_  
time day location

\_\_\_\_\_.

## APPENDIX F

### FORM LETTER

Dear

As mentioned during our initial telephone contact, the purpose of this interview is to obtain information regarding the mentoring relationship and how that has influenced women's professional development for my dissertation. All information is confidential and all identifying information such as your name and address or anyone you may mention will be withheld. However, some of your responses may be included in the text of the dissertation. Two other instruments will be administered prior to the interview itself. The interview itself will last approximately 1 hour. Various questions regarding parental values and attitudes, the role of significant others, problems in attaining your current position, being female and its importance as well as the mentoring relationship itself will be presented. Many of these questions will require some thought and deliberation on your part and all efforts will be made to assist you in that process. If at any time you do not understand what is being asked of you, feel free to ask for clarification. To help me keep track of what is being said, I will be taping our interview as well as taking some notes. As I said before, all information is confidential and the tape will be kept in my house. Consent forms addressing confidentiality and taping of the interview will be presented and signed.

I will contact you the day before our interview to confirm the time and location. I am also enclosing a demographic information questionnaire. I would appreciate it if you could fill it out prior to our appointment. I'm looking forward to discussing these issues with you and thank you in advance for participating in this research.

Barbara J. Quinn  
Work phone: 966-1456  
Home phone: 323-8128

APPENDIX G

CONSENT FORM

To Whom It May Concern:

I, \_\_\_\_\_, understand that the information provided to Barbara Quinn on \_\_\_\_\_ will be used in her dissertation research concerning the professional development of women in human services fields. I have given Ms. Quinn permission to record our interviews on audio tape and to quote my responses to the questions at her discretion. I also understand that all identifying information such as my name, city of residence, or any identifying information regarding persons I may have mentioned will be withheld both in the dissertation itself and in any discussions and/or reports in which Ms. Quinn engages. I understand that I may withdraw from this study at any time. I have been given an opportunity to ask questions about my participation.

\_\_\_\_\_  
Researcher

\_\_\_\_\_  
Signature

\_\_\_\_\_  
Date

Research being conducted by: Ms. B. Quinn  
4058 S. Deadwood Drive  
Kalamazoo, MI 49002  
Telephone: 323-8128

## APPENDIX H

### ADMINISTRATIVE INSTRUCTIONS

#### Standard Adjective Q Sort

Here are 50 cards, each with a word that can be used to describe people. You are to place these cards out on the table before you in such an arrangement that you have 10 columns with 5 words in each column. Those words that you place in the extreme left column should be those that you think least describe you professionally at the present time. The five words you place in the column to the extreme right should be those that you think best describe you professionally at the present time. You should then distribute the other words into eight columns, five cards per column, in the same manner as before in terms of how well you think they describe your professional self. Before you finish, look over all of the words to make sure that as you go from left to right, the words describe you better and better. Please tell me when you are finished so that I may record your responses.

Do you have any questions? (If so, repeat instructions.)

(After the sort is completed and weights recorded, the adjectives are again scrambled.) Now, I would like you to follow the same procedure, but instead of describing yourself as you are at the present time professionally, I want you to place these words in the same arrangement of 10 columns, 5 cards per column, as they describe the way you would like to be professionally. Please tell me when you have finished so I may again record your responses.

#### Short Form of California Psychological Inventory

Carefully read the instructions on the front page of this booklet and begin responding whenever you are ready. Mark only on the answer sheets provided, not on the booklets, please. Please give the booklet along with the answer sheet to me when you have finished. Feel free to take a break if needed.

## APPENDIX I

### CONTENT ANALYSIS

#### Directions

##### General:

1. May want a sheet of paper to list various responses and tally marks for totals.
2. Be thoroughly familiar with the categories and descriptions/definitions before doing any content analysis of the tapes.
3. On the initial tape you are given, please ignore the question regarding role conflicts as it has been deleted from the rest of the interviews.
4. During the interviews themselves, there may be a section that will have to be deleted. On a couple of occasions, it needed to be clarified who the individual's mentor was prior to asking the first question re: the mentor which focuses on where the individual was in terms of her professional development when the mentoring relationship began. This needs to be ignored/deleted from any part of the content analysis that you perform.
5. Once the second half of the interview begins (with the question re: where in terms of professional development), there are two areas or types of responses you will need to keep track of throughout the remainder of the interview. They are as follows:
  - a) All personal qualities of the mentor that are mentioned should be marked or duly recorded in the categories included in Questions 8 and 9. If the same adjective or personal quality is mentioned more than once, it is still only counted as one adjective. If there is no category for the particular adjective or personal quality, then keep an ongoing tally of those adjectives with the total being placed in the "other" category. Remember that regardless of



the number of times a particular adjective is mentioned, it only counts as one tally mark. It would probably be to your benefit to write down any of the adjectives in the "other" category so that your count is accurate.

- b) All positive statements regarding the mentor's influence in the professional sphere/development also need to be marked or duly recorded in the categories of Question 14 except those statements made in response to Questions 12 or 13. As indicated before, any statements that do not fall into one of the existing categories will need to be listed and an ongoing tally made of those statements placed into the "other" category.
6. A statement is defined as a thought rather than, or not necessarily, a complete sentence.
  7. Be sure to place the ID number on the content analysis sheets so that there is no confusion re: which interviewee the analysis is for.

Specific questions and any comments regarding them:

1.
  - a) Check those specific individuals either by name or position that the Ss identifies as influential.
  - b) Check those ways in which the individuals were influential.
  - c) Write the name or position of the specific individual and check either "at time" or "retrospect" as it applies.
  - d) Write names or positions or leave blank if none.
2.
  - a) Check those influences that parents have had. In the second part, check either + (positive), 0 (neutral or no influence), or - (negative) for each of the three areas for both of the parents.
  - b) Check in what ways they are still influential.
3.
  - a) Check which one applies.
  - b) Check which one(s) applies.
  - c) Check which one applies and indicate what circumstances were, if applicable.

- d) Check those that apply.
  - e) Check which apply if there were changes.
4.
    - a) Check which apply.
    - b) Check which apply.
  5.
    - a) Check which apply.
    - b) Check which apply.
    - c) Check which applies.
  6.
    - a) Check which applies.
    - b) Indicate which apply by placing a + in front of those categories that were considered positive or a help, and a - in front of those categories that were considered negative or a hindrance.
    - c) Check which apply and the times during which it is an issue if applicable.
  7.
    - a) Check which apply. Description of the categories is as follows:
      - "On job/unre." = on job that is not related to current training or field.
      - "Field ex./GR" = field experience in graduate program.
      - "UG" = undergraduate program.
      - "GR(M)" = graduate program at master's level.
      - "GR(D)" = graduate program at doctoral level.
      - "Part-time job/GR" = part-time job while in graduate school.
    - b) Check which apply.
    - c) Check which apply.
    - d) Check which apply.
    - e) Check which apply.
  8. Record all adjectives or personal qualities mentioned throughout second half of the interview as indicated in the general directions. Place the total number of different "other" adjectives in the space provided.

9. Follow same instructions as those indicated in #8.
10. Check which apply.
11. a) Check which apply.  
b) Check which applies.  
c) Check which apply if response to b is "yes."  
d) Check which apply.
12. Check which apply. Indicate number of positive statements in blank provided.
13. Check which apply. Indicate number of positive statements in blank provided.
14. Check which apply. Indicate number of positive statements in blank provided.
15. Check which applies. Check in which way he/she influenced "Dream" if appropriate.
16. Check level of intensity indicated by the Ss.
17. a) Check which apply.  
b) Check which apply. Check changes in meaning, if applicable.
18. Check level of satisfaction with relationship.

#### Definition/Description of Terms

Alternatives/options = different programs or routes to go, careers, way to achieve in a career.

Availability = only female on staff, all-male staff.

Challenging = included such adjectives as instigative, questioning, demanding.

Counselor = was originally a personal counselor, but developed into mentoring relationship.

Discrimination = differential treatment or attitudes on basis of age, sex or race with specific individuals or systems.

Feedback/sounding board = comments regarding performance, constructive input re: skill development or just bouncing ideas off for comments/feedback.

Friends = friends before the mentoring relationship began (Q 7-c).

Funding = questionable funding, short-term funding, limited funding.

Have had others infl. since = have had other significant individuals since that relationship that are or have been influential in terms of development.

Idea = examples would be: wanted independence, wanted a career but didn't know what area, had several areas in terms of fantasy but no stable ones.

Imaginative = includes such adjectives as creative, innovative, inventive.

Informal = includes such adjectives as comfortable, loose, relaxed.

Information/resource = knowledge re: a specific topic or area, can answer some questions.

Know what don't want = examples would be: mother was unhappy because didn't work, parents pushed marriage and family rather than career.

Lack of training = required skills not included in repertoire such as administrative skills, dealing with politics, etc.

Limited opportunities = lack of exposure to large numbers of experiences because of early training or others' views re: what is appropriate for women to pursue or inappropriate.

Male attitudes = attitudes/opinions that men may hold re: women and what are considered appropriate functions.

Money vs. appropriateness = needing a job for financial reasons and taking a job to provide that, but may have to be in some other field that is unrelated to the area of study or training.

Not blind trust/question = evaluate what mentor says rather than taking it at face value like in the past.

Points of view = different ways of looking at things (e.g., negative experience, but mentor helped her to get something out of it, look at it differently to get some good out of it).

Position = individual just happened to be in a position of influence such as supervisor, counselor.

Preparation = lack of preparation, poor study skills, poor quality of high school or even undergraduate courses.

Reality base = Examples: brought me down to earth, tied it to reality, made realistic suggestions or plans of how to meet goals.

Reminisce = still think about the individual, or wonder what that individual would do in a particular situation or would think of how she handled a situation.

Restricted view = only see things through tunnel vision, miss the larger picture or larger segments of knowledge because not considered appropriate or important at the time.

Role model = an example, someone to mimic or emulate, picked up or tried his/her style.

Social/cultural sanctions = perhaps unwritten rules of conduct re: what are considered appropriate behaviors for various individuals, society in general sense.

Socialization = references to early childhood development--personal, emotional, social development as well as idea of females developing in unique manner.

Special view = looking at objects, events, individuals, or situations from a unique angle (e.g., feminine perspective).

Talented = included such adjectives as expert, skilled.

Values changed = values, directions, or interests have changed from mentor and, because of this, mentor can no longer support these or is no longer needed.

Content Analysis

ID \_\_\_\_\_ Gp \_\_\_\_\_

Comments:

1. a) As you think back as far as you can remember, who were the individuals other than your parents that you considered influential in terms of your pursuing a career as well as choosing (Ss profession) itself?

_____ F boss	_____ F relative
_____ M boss	_____ M relative
_____ F teacher	_____ F friend
_____ M teacher	_____ M friend
_____ F supervisor	_____ F other
_____ M supervisor	_____ M other
_____ F professor	
_____ M professor	

- b) In what ways were they influential?

\_\_\_\_\_ role model  
 \_\_\_\_\_ points of view  
 \_\_\_\_\_ encouragement  
 \_\_\_\_\_ alternatives  
 \_\_\_\_\_ personal interest  
 \_\_\_\_\_ F having career/education  
 \_\_\_\_\_ reality base  
 \_\_\_\_\_ high expectations  
 \_\_\_\_\_ job/career distinctions  
 \_\_\_\_\_ piqued my interest  
 \_\_\_\_\_ reminisce  
 \_\_\_\_\_ other

- c) Were you aware of their influence at the time or was it more in retrospect that you realized their impact?

At Time      Retrospect

_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____

- d) Which of these individuals, if any, do you think are still influencing your development?

\_\_\_\_\_

ID \_\_\_\_\_ Gp \_\_\_\_\_

Comments:

2. a) What influences do you think your parents have had on your pursuing a career and/or selecting (Ss profession) as a profession; specifically, what were their attitudes and values regarding education, having a career, and (Ss profession), particularly for women?

\_\_\_\_\_ role model  
 \_\_\_\_\_ personal interest  
 \_\_\_\_\_ encouragement  
 \_\_\_\_\_ information/resource  
 \_\_\_\_\_ made contacts  
 \_\_\_\_\_ high expectations  
 \_\_\_\_\_ other

	Father			Mother		
	+	0	-	+	0	-
Education	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Career	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Profession	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

Comments:

- b) In what way, if any, are they still influencing your development?

\_\_\_\_\_ not influencing  
 \_\_\_\_\_ encouragement/support  
 \_\_\_\_\_ reminisce  
 \_\_\_\_\_ know what don't want  
 \_\_\_\_\_ role model(s)  
 \_\_\_\_\_ values  
 \_\_\_\_\_ high expectations  
 \_\_\_\_\_ proud  
 \_\_\_\_\_ other

3. a) As we develop, many of us have ideas or pictures of what we want to become in the future that could be called our "Dream." Involved in this "Dream" are how we fit into the world as adults and yet are unique or have our own particular niche within the world. What "Dream" have you had regarding yourself and how you would fit into the adult world around you?

ID \_\_\_\_\_ Gp \_\_\_\_\_

Comments:

- yes  
 no  
 idea  
 yes, but in unrelated field

Dream:

b) Did your "Dream" include marriage and family?

- no  
 marriage  
 family  
 sometimes

c) If so, were there any special circumstances under which they were to occur or would happen?

yes       no

Circumstances:

d) What changes, if any, have been made regarding your "Dream" over time?

- no changes  
 more focused  
 decision on profession  
 decision re: specialization  
 more realistic  
 other

e) What circumstances led to this(these) change(s)?

- significant individuals  
 experiences/maturation  
 advanced course work  
 other

4. a) In terms of your academic training itself, what problems or difficulties did you encounter, if any?

- no problems  
 preparation  
 supervision  
 discrimination



ID \_\_\_\_\_ Gp \_\_\_\_\_

Comments:

- \_\_\_\_\_ quality of academic training
- \_\_\_\_\_ financial
- \_\_\_\_\_ emotional
- \_\_\_\_\_ lack of direction/focus
- \_\_\_\_\_ lack of F role models
- \_\_\_\_\_ other

b) How did you manage or resolve these difficulties?

- \_\_\_\_\_ no problems
- \_\_\_\_\_ perseverance
- \_\_\_\_\_ confrontation
- \_\_\_\_\_ worked part time
- \_\_\_\_\_ maturation/experiences
- \_\_\_\_\_ left
- \_\_\_\_\_ support from significant individuals
- \_\_\_\_\_ tolerated
- \_\_\_\_\_ other

5. a) What difficulties can you recall having during the time between graduation and obtaining your current position?

- \_\_\_\_\_ no problems
- \_\_\_\_\_ job hunting
- \_\_\_\_\_ competition
- \_\_\_\_\_ funding
- \_\_\_\_\_ money vs. appropriateness
- \_\_\_\_\_ pre-existing problem in job
- \_\_\_\_\_ lack of training
- \_\_\_\_\_ mobility
- \_\_\_\_\_ discrimination
- \_\_\_\_\_ other

b) How did you handle these difficulties?

- \_\_\_\_\_ support from sig. individuals
- \_\_\_\_\_ staff changes
- \_\_\_\_\_ training
- \_\_\_\_\_ experiences/maturation
- \_\_\_\_\_ perseverance
- \_\_\_\_\_ confidence
- \_\_\_\_\_ competence
- \_\_\_\_\_ tolerated
- \_\_\_\_\_ left
- \_\_\_\_\_ other

ID \_\_\_\_\_ Gp \_\_\_\_\_

Comments:

- c) Are you presently experiencing any difficulties?

\_\_\_\_\_ yes  
 \_\_\_\_\_ no  
 \_\_\_\_\_ agency/system-wide problems

6. a) As you look back, do you think being a woman in your profession has been a help or a hindrance?

\_\_\_\_\_ help \_\_\_\_\_ both  
 \_\_\_\_\_ hindrance \_\_\_\_\_ not an issue

- b) In what ways?

\_\_\_\_\_ male attitudes  
 \_\_\_\_\_ socialization  
 \_\_\_\_\_ discrimination  
 \_\_\_\_\_ social/cultural sanctions  
 \_\_\_\_\_ special view  
 \_\_\_\_\_ own style  
 \_\_\_\_\_ provide support for other F's  
 \_\_\_\_\_ restricted view  
 \_\_\_\_\_ limited opportunities  
 \_\_\_\_\_ assigned clients based on sex  
 \_\_\_\_\_ demand for F (Affirm. Action)  
 \_\_\_\_\_ other

- c) Were there times during your professional development that being a woman was more of an issue than at others?

\_\_\_\_\_ yes \_\_\_\_\_ no

If so, when?

\_\_\_\_\_ hiring \_\_\_\_\_ demand  
 \_\_\_\_\_ promotion \_\_\_\_\_ other

7. a) Would you describe where you were in terms of your professional development when your mentoring relationship began?

\_\_\_\_\_ on job in related field  
 \_\_\_\_\_ on job/unrelated  
 \_\_\_\_\_ field experience/GR  
 \_\_\_\_\_ UG

ID \_\_\_\_\_ Gp \_\_\_\_\_

Comments:

- \_\_\_\_\_ GR (M)
- \_\_\_\_\_ GR (D)
- \_\_\_\_\_ part-time job/GR
- \_\_\_\_\_ other

b) Were you actively seeking a mentor at that time?

\_\_\_\_\_ yes \_\_\_\_\_ no

If so, why at that particular time in your life?

- \_\_\_\_\_ professional direction
- \_\_\_\_\_ role model
- \_\_\_\_\_ support/encouragement
- \_\_\_\_\_ information/resource
- \_\_\_\_\_ feedback
- \_\_\_\_\_ reality base
- \_\_\_\_\_ acceptance
- \_\_\_\_\_ confirmation
- \_\_\_\_\_ other

c) Why did you choose a male(female) mentor?

- \_\_\_\_\_ didn't choose/accident
- \_\_\_\_\_ position
- \_\_\_\_\_ availability
- \_\_\_\_\_ counselor
- \_\_\_\_\_ personal qualities
- \_\_\_\_\_ friends
- \_\_\_\_\_ other

d) What needs did you have? Why was a mentor so important at that time in your development?

- \_\_\_\_\_ professional direction/focus
- \_\_\_\_\_ support
- \_\_\_\_\_ experiences
- \_\_\_\_\_ role model/professional
- \_\_\_\_\_ identity
- \_\_\_\_\_ alternatives/options
- \_\_\_\_\_ information/resource
- \_\_\_\_\_ reality base
- \_\_\_\_\_ sounding board
- \_\_\_\_\_ skill development/acquisition
- \_\_\_\_\_ job placement

ID \_\_\_\_\_ Gp \_\_\_\_\_

Comments:

- \_\_\_\_\_ parent
- \_\_\_\_\_ special expertise
- \_\_\_\_\_ professional contacts
- \_\_\_\_\_ other

e) Were there any needs that you had which your mentor did not meet?

\_\_\_\_\_ yes      \_\_\_\_\_ no

If so, what were they?

- \_\_\_\_\_ friendship/personal aspect
- \_\_\_\_\_ support
- \_\_\_\_\_ job placement
- \_\_\_\_\_ availability
- \_\_\_\_\_ decision-making
- \_\_\_\_\_ special expertise
- \_\_\_\_\_ options/alternatives
- \_\_\_\_\_ other

8. What personal qualities of your mentor facilitated the development of this mentoring relationship?

- \_\_\_\_\_ good listener
- \_\_\_\_\_ parent figure
- \_\_\_\_\_ experienced/knowledgeable
- \_\_\_\_\_ personal interest
- \_\_\_\_\_ talented
- \_\_\_\_\_ could talk/share
- \_\_\_\_\_ fun
- \_\_\_\_\_ supportive
- \_\_\_\_\_ bright
- \_\_\_\_\_ stimulating/interesting
- \_\_\_\_\_ open
- \_\_\_\_\_ informal
- \_\_\_\_\_ patient/tolerant
- \_\_\_\_\_ accepting
- \_\_\_\_\_ imaginative
- \_\_\_\_\_ challenging
- \_\_\_\_\_ promoted independence
- \_\_\_\_\_ warm
- \_\_\_\_\_ elegant
- \_\_\_\_\_ firm
- \_\_\_\_\_ ambitious
- \_\_\_\_\_ animated
- \_\_\_\_\_ other

ID \_\_\_\_\_ Gp \_\_\_\_\_

Comments:

9. What personal qualities hindered the development of this relationship?

\_\_\_\_\_ opinionated  
 \_\_\_\_\_ too partial  
 \_\_\_\_\_ too personal  
 \_\_\_\_\_ none  
 \_\_\_\_\_ critical  
 \_\_\_\_\_ cold  
 \_\_\_\_\_ overzealous  
 \_\_\_\_\_ awesome  
 \_\_\_\_\_ lack of expertise  
 \_\_\_\_\_ too demanding  
 \_\_\_\_\_ other

10. How would you describe your mentoring relationship when it was at its optimum level of development or its peak?

\_\_\_\_\_ encouraging/supportive  
 \_\_\_\_\_ intimate  
 \_\_\_\_\_ information/resource  
 \_\_\_\_\_ friendship  
 \_\_\_\_\_ supervisor  
 \_\_\_\_\_ firm  
 \_\_\_\_\_ trusting  
 \_\_\_\_\_ safe  
 \_\_\_\_\_ anticipation  
 \_\_\_\_\_ skill development  
 \_\_\_\_\_ sounding board  
 \_\_\_\_\_ sharing  
 \_\_\_\_\_ good working relationship  
 \_\_\_\_\_ comfortable  
 \_\_\_\_\_ built confidence  
 \_\_\_\_\_ very good  
 \_\_\_\_\_ parental  
 \_\_\_\_\_ other

11. a) What happened to your mentoring relationship once it peaked?

\_\_\_\_\_ colleagues  
 \_\_\_\_\_ mutual support  
 \_\_\_\_\_ supervisor  
 \_\_\_\_\_ values changed  
 \_\_\_\_\_ left job  
 \_\_\_\_\_ graduated  
 \_\_\_\_\_ gained independence (not needed)

ID \_\_\_\_\_ Gp \_\_\_\_\_

Comments:

still viewed as superior  
 marriage to mentor  
 left school  
 disagreement/falling-out  
 mentor needed me more  
 other

b) Has this relationship ended?

yes       no

c) If so, why or how?

graduated  
 left school  
 left job  
 death  
 no longer needed  
 other

d) What is the nature of your present relationship if one still exists?

doesn't exist  
 colleagues  
 occasional call/letter  
 friends  
 spouse  
 supervisor  
 still mentor  
 other

12. What effect did your mentoring experience have on your attempts to integrate family and career?

no effect  
 role model  
 encouraging  
 know what like  
 facilitating a balance  
 other  
 + statements

13. What effect did your mentoring experience have on integrating your being a woman and having a career?

no effect  
 accept F part of self

ID \_\_\_\_\_ Gp \_\_\_\_\_

Comments:

- \_\_\_\_\_ increased confidence
- \_\_\_\_\_ increased competence
- \_\_\_\_\_ role model
- \_\_\_\_\_ alternatives/options
- \_\_\_\_\_ permission to pursue own
- \_\_\_\_\_ interests
- \_\_\_\_\_ confirmation
- \_\_\_\_\_ support
- \_\_\_\_\_ high expectations
- \_\_\_\_\_ other
- \_\_\_\_\_ + statements

14. What influence do you think this mentor and the relationship has had on your overall professional development (e.g., occupational selection, skill acquisition, competence, job placement, job advancement)?

- \_\_\_\_\_ no effect
- \_\_\_\_\_ role model
- \_\_\_\_\_ confidence
- \_\_\_\_\_ reality base
- \_\_\_\_\_ information/resource
- \_\_\_\_\_ job placement
- \_\_\_\_\_ job advancement
- \_\_\_\_\_ focus on career/specialty
- \_\_\_\_\_ permission to pursue interests
- \_\_\_\_\_ skill acquisition/development
- \_\_\_\_\_ competence
- \_\_\_\_\_ options
- \_\_\_\_\_ other
- \_\_\_\_\_ + statements

15. We talked earlier about your "Dream" or how you envisioned being part of the adult world. As you look back, how did your mentor influence this "Dream"?

- \_\_\_\_\_ encouragement/support
- \_\_\_\_\_ clearer focus
- \_\_\_\_\_ based in reality
- \_\_\_\_\_ information/resource
- \_\_\_\_\_ making contacts
- \_\_\_\_\_ role model
- \_\_\_\_\_ skill development
- \_\_\_\_\_ other

ID \_\_\_\_\_ Gp \_\_\_\_\_

Comments:

Did he/she facilitate or hinder that "Dream"?

- \_\_\_\_\_ facilitated  
 \_\_\_\_\_ hindered  
 \_\_\_\_\_ no influence  
 \_\_\_\_\_ no dream

16. During our life, we have many different types of relationships and various levels of intensity associated with them. While some of these relationships may be superficial, others may be much more intense. When compared to all other relationships you have experienced, where on a continuum of low, medium, to high levels of intensity do you think your mentoring relationship would fall?

\_\_\_\_\_ low                      \_\_\_\_\_ high  
 \_\_\_\_\_ medium                \_\_\_\_\_ other

17. a) What was the meaning of this mentoring relationship to you?

- \_\_\_\_\_ important  
 \_\_\_\_\_ very important/significant  
 \_\_\_\_\_ role model  
 \_\_\_\_\_ meaningful adult relationship  
 \_\_\_\_\_ treated/respected as professional  
 \_\_\_\_\_ personal endorsement  
 \_\_\_\_\_ development of professional identity  
 \_\_\_\_\_ growth  
 \_\_\_\_\_ warm  
 \_\_\_\_\_ security  
 \_\_\_\_\_ strong influential force  
 \_\_\_\_\_ trust  
 \_\_\_\_\_ sounding board  
 \_\_\_\_\_ independence  
 \_\_\_\_\_ parental  
 \_\_\_\_\_ other

- b) In retrospect, does it have the same meaning now as when you were in it?

\_\_\_\_\_ yes            \_\_\_\_\_ no



ID \_\_\_\_\_ Gp \_\_\_\_\_

Comments:

If not, how has it changed?

- \_\_\_\_\_ less intense
- \_\_\_\_\_ colleagues (= 's)
- \_\_\_\_\_ friends
- \_\_\_\_\_ not blind trust/question
- \_\_\_\_\_ no awe
- \_\_\_\_\_ still special/admire
- \_\_\_\_\_ affection
- \_\_\_\_\_ appreciation
- \_\_\_\_\_ have had other influence
- \_\_\_\_\_ since
- \_\_\_\_\_ less contacts
- \_\_\_\_\_ other

18. Overall, how satisfied were you with the particular mentor and the relationship that you had with him/her?

- \_\_\_\_\_ extremely satisfied
- \_\_\_\_\_ very satisfied
- \_\_\_\_\_ satisfied
- \_\_\_\_\_ dissatisfied
- \_\_\_\_\_ other

General comments:

## BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Adelson, J. The teacher as a model. In N. Sanford (Ed.), The American college: A psychological and social interpretation of higher learning. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1962.
- Alexander, G. Fundamentals of psychoanalysis. New York: Norton, 1949.
- Allport, G. Patterns and growth in personality. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1961.
- Almquist, E. Role model influences on college women's career aspirations. Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 1971, 17, 263-279.
- Almquist, E. Sex stereotypes in occupational choice: The case for college women. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 1974, 5, 13-21.
- Anastasi, A. Psychological testing (4th ed.). New York: Macmillan, 1976.
- Armentrout, J. Comparison of standard and short-form scores of Canadian adults on the California Psychological Inventory. Perceptual & Motor Skills, 1977, 45, 1088.
- Bailyn, L. Notes on the role of choice in the psychology of professional women. In R. Lifton (Ed.), The women in America. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1965.
- Bandura, A. Social-learning theory of identificatory processes. In D. Goslin (Ed.), Handbook of socialization theory and research. Chicago: Rand McNally, 1969.
- Bandura, A. Analysis of modeling processes. In A. Bandura (Ed.), Psychological modeling: Conflicting theories. Chicago: Aldine-Atherton, 1971.
- Bandura, A., & Walters, R. Social learning and personality development. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1963.
- Bardwick, J. Psychology of women: A study of bio-cultural conflicts. New York: Harper & Row, 1971.
- Baruch, G. Maternal influences upon college women's attitudes toward women and work. Developmental Psychology, 1972, 6, 32-37.

- Baruch, G. Feminine self-esteem, self-ratings of competence, and maternal career commitment. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1973, 20, 487-488.
- Batt, R. Creating a professional identity. American Journal of Psychoanalysis, 1972, 32, 156-162.
- Berelson, B. Content analysis in communication research. New York: Free Press, 1952.
- Blum, G. A study of the psychoanalytic theory of psychosexual development. In C. Murchison (Ed.), Genetic psychology monograph: Child behavior, animal behavior, and comparative psychology (Vol. 39). Provincetown, Mass: Journal Press, 1949.
- Blum, G. Psychoanalytic theories of personality. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1953.
- Bem, S. The measurement of psychological androgyny. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 1974, 42, 155-162.
- Block, J. The Q sort method in personality assessment and psychiatric research. Springfield, Ill.: Charles C. Thomas, 1961.
- Bolman, S. Influences on the career development and life plans of undergraduates at a woman's college (Doctoral dissertation, Columbia University Teachers College, 1977). Dissertation Abstracts International, 1977, 38, 3311A.
- Brim, O., & Wheeler, S. Socialization after childhood: Two essays. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1966.
- Budd, R., Thorpe, R., & Donohew, L. Content analysis of communications. New York: Macmillan, 1967.
- Burger, G. A short form of the California Psychological Inventory. Psychological Reports, 1975, 37, 179-182.
- Buros, O. (Ed.). The eighth mental measurements yearbook (Vol. 1). Highland Park, N.J.: Gryphon Press, 1978.
- Carlson, R. Understanding women: Implications for personality theory and research. Journal of Social Issues, 1972, 28, 17-32.
- Carney, T. Content analysis: A technique for systematic inference from communications. Winnepeg, Canada: University of Manitoba Press, 1972.

- Cohen, M. Personal identity and sexual identity. In J. Miller (Ed.), Psychoanalysis and women: Contributions to new theory and therapy. New York: Brunner/Mazel, 1973.
- Corsini, R. Chicago Q sort: SAQS manual of instructions. Brookport, Ill.: Psychometric Affiliates, 1956.
- Denmark, F. The psychology of women: An overview of an emerging field. Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 1977, 3, 356-367.
- Deutsch, H. The psychology of women (Vol. 2). New York: Grune & Stratton, 1945.
- Di Sabatino, M. Psychological factors inhibiting women's occupational aspirations and vocational choices: Implications for counseling. Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 1976, 25, 43-49.
- Donelson, E., & Gullahorn, J. Women: A psychological perspective. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1977.
- Douvan, E. The role of models in women's professional development. Psychology of Women Quarterly, 1976, 1, 5-20.
- Douvan, E., & Adelson, J. The adolescent experience. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1966.
- Edwards, A. The measurement of personality traits by scales and inventories. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1970.
- Epstein, C. Woman's place: Options and limits in professional careers. Berkeley: University of California Press, 1970.
- Epstein, C. Encountering the male establishment: Sex-status limits on women's careers in the professions. In A. Theodore (Ed.), The professional woman. Cambridge, Mass.: Schenkman, 1971.
- Erikson, E. Childhood and society. New York: Norton, 1950.
- Erikson, E. Identity, youth and crisis. New York: Norton, 1968.
- Estes, B. A descriptive study of the developmental phase of women in their 30's (Doctoral dissertation, University of Pittsburgh, 1977). Dissertation Abstracts International, 1978, 38, 4426B.

- Felker, D. Building positive self-concepts. Minneapolis: Burgess, 1974.
- Freud, A. The ego and the mechanisms of defense. New York: International Universities Press, 1946.
- Friedan, B. The feminine mystique. New York: Dell, 1963.
- Frieze, I., Parsons, J., Johnson, P., Ruble, D., & Zellman, G. Women and sex roles: A social psychological perspective. New York: Norton, 1978.
- Glass, G., & Stanley, J. Statistical methods in education and psychology. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1970.
- Goldstein, E. Effect of same-sex and cross-sex role models on the subsequent academic productivity of scholars. American Psychologist, 1979, 34, 407-410.
- Goslin, D. Introduction. In D. Goslin (Ed.), Handbook of socialization theory and research. Chicago: Rand McNally, 1969.
- Gough, H. Manual for the California Psychological Inventory. Palo Alto: Consulting Psychologists Press, 1957.
- Guttman, J. Is the gray mare only a work horse? Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1972, 51, 115-121.
- Hall, C., & Lindzey, G. Theories of personality. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1978.
- Hamachek, D. Encounters with the self. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1971.
- Hansen, L., & Repoza, R. (Eds.). Career development and counseling of women. Springfield, Ill.: Charles C. Thomas, 1978.
- Hawley, P. What women think men think: Does it affect their career choice? Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1971, 18, 193-199.
- Hawley, P. Perceptions of male models of femininity related to career choice. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1972, 19, 308-313.
- Hielbrun, A. Sex role identity in adolescent females: A theoretical paradox. Adolescence, 1968, 3, 79-88.

- Horner, M. Femininity and successful achievement: A basic inconsistency. In J. Bardwick et al. (Eds.), Feminine personality and conflict. Belmont, Cal.: Brooks/Cole, 1970.
- Horowitz, H. The relationship of confidence to competence and imitative behavior. Journal of Psychology, 1966, 63, 235-247.
- Hott, J. The health professionals--Opportunities and limitations. In P. Carone, S. Kieffer, L. Krinsky, & S. Yolles (Eds.), Women in industry. New York: South Oaks Foundation, Inc., and the Medical School of the State University of New York at Stony Brook, 1977.
- Isaac, S., & Michael, W. Handbook in research and evaluation. San Diego: EdITS Publishers, 1971.
- Jersild, A. In search of self. New York: Columbia University Teachers College Press, 1952.
- Jung, C. Psychological types; or, the psychology of individuation. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1923.
- Kaley, M. Attitudes toward the dual role of the married professional women. American Psychologist, 1971, 26, 301-306.
- Katz, C., & Shapiro, R. Sex-role identification and success. Contemporary Psychoanalysis, 1976, 12, 251-257.
- Kemper, T. Reference groups, socialization and achievement. American Sociological Review, 1968, 33, 31-45.
- Kerlinger, F. Foundations of behavioral research (2nd ed.). New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1973.
- Komarovsky, M. Cultural contradictions and sex roles. Journal of Sociology, 1946, 52, 184-189.
- Kruger, S. Need achievement and perceived child-rearing attitudes of career women and homemakers. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 1972, 2, 419-432.
- Krupsak, M. Women in employment. In P. Carone, S. Kieffer, L. Krinsky, & S. Yolles (Eds.), Women in industry. New York: South Oaks Foundation, Inc., and the Medical School of the State University of New York at Stony Brook, 1977.

- Lake, D., Miles, M., & Earle, R. (Eds.). Measuring human behavior: Tools for the assessment of social functioning. New York: Teachers College Press, 1973.
- Lanyon, R., & Goodstein, L. Personality assessment. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1971.
- Levinson, D., Darrow, C., Klein, E., Levinson, M., & McKee, B. The seasons of a man's life. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1978.
- Levitt, E. Vocational development of professional women: A review. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 1971, 1, 375-385.
- Lewis, E. Developing women's potential. Ames: Iowa State University Press, 1968.
- McGuire, G., & Piel, E. College bound girls and science careers: Perceptions of barriers and facilitating factors. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 1978, 12, 172-183.
- Mead, G. Mind, self, and society. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1934.
- Megargee, E. The California Psychological Inventory handbook. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1972.
- Merton, R., Fiske, M., & Kendall, R. The focused interview: A manual of problems and procedures. Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1956.
- Miller, J. Toward a new psychology of women. Boston: Beacon Press, 1976.
- Mulvey, M. Psychological and sociological factors in prediction of career patterns of women. Genetic Psychology Monographs, 1963, 68, 309-386.
- Nagely, D. Traditional and pioneer working mothers. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 1971, 1, 331-341.
- Notman, M., & Nodelson, C. Medicine: A career conflict for women. American Journal of Psychiatry, 1973, 130, 1123-1127.
- Pavek, B. Perceived models, selected characteristics and values by two samples of North Dakota women (Doctoral dissertation, The University of North Dakota, 1975). Dissertation Abstracts International, 1976, 37, 932A-933A.

- Pope, K., Levenson, H., & Schover, L. Sexual intimacy in psychology training: Results and implications of a national survey. American Psychologist, 1979, 34, 682-689.
- Roeske, N., & Lake, K. Role models for women medical students. Journal of Medical Education, 1977, 52, 459-466.
- Rosen, B., & Aneshensel, C. The chameleon syndrome: A social psychological dimension of the female sex role. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 1976, 38, 605-617.
- Sanzgiri, J. Professional women: An experiential and theoretical analysis (Doctoral dissertation, University of Pittsburgh, 1977). Dissertation Abstracts International, 1978, 38, 4257A-4258A.
- Sarbin, R. Role theory. In G. Lindzey (Ed.), Handbook of social psychology. Cambridge, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1954.
- Schafer, R. Aspects of internalization. New York: International Universities Press, 1968.
- Schafer, R. A new language for psychoanalysis. New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1976.
- Schechter, D. The ideal self and other. Contemporary Psychoanalysis, 1974, 10, 103-115.
- Sears, R., Rau, L., & Alpert, R. Identification and child rearing. Stanford, Cal.: Stanford University Press, 1965.
- Siegel, S. Nonparametric statistics. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1956.
- Slater, P. Toward a dualistic theory of identification. Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 1961, 7, 113-126.
- Standley, K., & Soule, B. Women in male-dominated professions: Contrasts in their personal and vocational histories. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 1974, 4, 245-258.
- Stein, A. The effects of maternal employment and educational attainment on the sex-typed attributes of college females. Social Behavior and Personality, 1973, 1, 111-114.
- Stephenson, W. The study of behavior: Q technique and its methodology. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1953.



- Stewart, W. A psychosocial study of the formation of the early adult life structure in women (Doctoral dissertation, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1976). Dissertation Abstracts International.
- Super, D. The psychology of careers. New York: Harper & Row, 1957.
- Super, D. Career patterns and life stages. In L. Hansen & R. Repoza (Eds.), Career development and counseling of women. Springfield, Ill.: Charles C. Thomas, 1978.
- Tenzen, A. Parental influences on the occupational choice of career women in male-dominated and traditional occupations (Doctoral dissertation, Columbia University Teachers College, 1977). Dissertation Abstracts International, 1977, 38, 2014A.
- Theodore, A. The professional women: Trends and prospects. In A. Theodore (Ed.), The professional woman. Cambridge, Mass.: Schenkman, 1971.
- Thomas, E., & Biddle, B. The nature and history of role theory, and basic concepts for classifying the phenomena of role. In B. Biddle & E. Thomas (Eds.), Role theory: Concepts and research. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1966.
- Van Dusen, R., & Sheldon, E. The changing status of American women: A life cycle perspective. In L. Hansen & R. Repoza (Eds.), Career development and counseling of women. Springfield, Ill.: Charles C. Thomas, 1978.
- Vetter, L. Career development of women. In L. Hansen & R. Repoza (Eds.), Career development and counseling of women. Springfield, Ill.: Charles C. Thomas, 1978.
- Williams, J. Psychology of women: Behavior in a biosocial context. New York: Norton, 1977.
- Wylie, R. The self concept: A review of methodological considerations and measuring instruments (Vol. 1). Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1974.
- Yu, M. Personality characteristics and professional development of adult women. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Canadian Psychological Association, Toronto, June 1976.
- Ziebarth, C. Feminine role conflicts--The influence of models and expectations of others (Doctoral dissertation, University of Colorado, 1970). Dissertation Abstracts International, 1971, 32, 1076A.