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## A Comparative Study Of Business Women's Attitudes Toward Work

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A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF  
BUSINESS WOMEN'S ATTITUDES TOWARD WORK

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A Thesis  
Presented to  
the Faculty of the Graduate School  
College of Business  
Prairie View A & M University

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In Partial Fulfillment  
of the Requirements for the Degree  
Masters of Science  
in  
Business Education

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by  
Victoria Williams Reed

July 1979

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PRAIRIE VIEW AGRICULTURAL AND MECHANICAL COLLEGE

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August 1, 1979, 19

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GRADUATE SCHOOL

COMMITTEE ON GRADUATE STUDY:

The undersigned have on this date examined Victoria W. Reed

for the Master's degree and hereby certify that the examination has been successfully completed.

The thesis has been inspected by each of us and is approved.

  
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## Chapter I

### INTRODUCTION

Although feminism has made its contribution to the American woman's improved status, many conditions are operative in shaping her present life pattern over which women themselves have had little control. These influences have been found in our economic growth, which has created a need for women in paid employment; in work mechanization, which has increased the number of jobs to which women are physically adapted; in generally better working conditions; in a new psychological need among women; and in our social philosophy. Even though the greater number and variety of work opportunities was cited as a major factor in drawing women into the labor force, closely related to this cause is the awareness of selfimage and the need for satisfaction.

#### The Statement of the Problem

This study proposed to compare the attitudes of women in business toward work. More specifically, this study was designed to determine and analyze the attitudes of business women employed in the southwest section of Houston, Texas toward work.

#### The Subproblems

The following subproblems were derived from the problem of this study:

1. The first subproblem. The first subproblem was to compare the attitudes of business women toward work ethnicity.

2. The second subproblem. The second subproblem was to compare the attitudes of business women toward work by age.

3. The third subproblem. The third subproblem was to compare the attitudes of business women toward work by education.

4. The fourth subproblem. The fourth subproblem was to compare the attitudes of business women toward work by occupation.

### The Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were formulated and statistically tested:

Hypothesis 1. When comparing attitudes toward work, the mean scores of black women do not differ significantly from the mean scores of nonblack business women.

Hypothesis 2. When comparing attitudes toward work, the mean scores of business women under 30 do not differ significantly from the mean scores of business women over 30.

Hypothesis 3. When comparing attitudes toward work, the mean scores of business women with college degrees do not differ significantly from mean scores of business women without college degrees.

Hypothesis 4. When comparing attitudes toward work, the mean scores of business women in management/manufacturing do not differ significantly from the mean scores of business women in clerical/sales/service occupations.

### The Delimitations

This study was limited to business women employed in management, clerical, sales, services, and manufacturing jobs in the southwest section of Houston, Texas. Data were collected during the spring of 1979.

### The Definition of Terms

The following terms used in this study are provided to establish a common framework:

Attitude. Attitude is the mental position one retains about a fact or state of being.

Business. Business is a commercial or industrial enterprise where transactions are made or tasks are performed.

Career. Career is the profession for which one trains and which is undertaken as a permanent calling.

Challenge. Challenge means to invite into competition.

Clerical. Clerical relates to one employed to do general office work or to keep records and accounts.

Disability. Disability is the condition of being disabled to pursue an occupation because of physical or mental impairment.

Education. Education is the field of study that deals mainly with methods of teaching and learning in schools.<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>A. Merriam-Webster, Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary (Springfield, Massachusetts: G. & C. Merriam Company, 1976), pp. 73-1161.



Employment. Employment is the act by which one engages in work at a place of business.

Management. Management is the conducting or supervising of a place of business or the controlling and directing of one's affairs.

Manufacture. Manufacture means to produce in industry by using mechanical power or machinery.

Psychologically. Psychologically is the means by which one is directed toward the will or toward the mind.

Sales. Sales is the function of one who distributes goods or merchandise by selling them to a person for a price.

Service. Service is the performance of business functions in the capacity of production or distribution of one's assistance.

Subsistence. Subsistence is a source or means of obtaining the necessities of life.<sup>2</sup>

### Importance of the Study

This study is important because it will generate useful information. The information generated by this study will aid business educators in helping women find a purpose beyond themselves and establish a sense of unity for their lives. Many educators know that the discovery of basic values, essential to a sense of fulfillment, will do more than help women achieve success in each stage of their life experience.

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<sup>2</sup>ibid. p. 3.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter examines factors that attribute to the success of women in business with regards to education, age, race, and occupation.

The steady and long-run trends in changing conditions and social attitudes, and the resultant developments in the life patterns of women, are the important factors making possible present forecasts for women in business.<sup>3</sup>

Following the women-to-work movement has been the change in types of paid work, which in turn has affected the social class characteristics of the women who work. Better pay has also helped to bring about this result. In the late nineteenth century, most of the jobs for women were in unskilled or semi-skilled factory employment. A married woman worked only in the event of her husband's death, disability, or inability to provide enough for family subsistence. Today, in contrast to this situation, the sharpest increase in women's paid employment is occurring among the well-educated woman.<sup>4</sup>

Education

Education is recognized as an important factor which contributes to the success of women in business. Today's education is geared to

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<sup>3</sup>Robert W. Smuts, Women and Work in America (New York: Columbia University Press, 1959), pp. 68-83.

<sup>4</sup>Robert Blood and Robert Hamblin, "The Effect of the Wife's Employment on the Family Power Structure," Social Forces, XXXVI (May, 1958), pp. 347-352.

schooling females, along with their male class mates with the idea of teaching them to anticipate the shifts of direction and various needs during the later segments of the life experience.<sup>5</sup>

Harbeson conceives that formal education has done little to help the modern woman achieve a much needed coherence in her life. She feels that today's education is not geared enough toward competitive achievement. Shortly following a four-year college training, and today often before that, a girl is plunged into the role of wife and mother, where too often she learns that she has not been psychologically trained for the transition. But despite these handicaps in education and employment status, women have been making an adjustment to this situation.<sup>6</sup>

According to Harbeson in a study of the U. S. Office of Education, there were over 2.8 million women enrolled in institutions of higher learning in the fall of 1967. It is somewhat encouraging to know that during the past decade college enrollments for women have increased proportionately more than for men; yet there are causes for concern in the fact that far too large a percentage of women who enroll in college do not finish. One factor in this situation is that, even to date, our society has not thought a college education to be as important for girls as for boys. Because of this, educators must emphasize the purpose and timing of higher

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<sup>5</sup>David Riesman, "Women: Their Orbits and Their Education," Journal of the American Association of University Women, LI, No. 2, (January, 1958), p. 79.

<sup>6</sup>Gladys Harbeson, Choice and Challenge for the American Woman. Massachusetts: Schenkman Publishing Company, Inc., 1971, p. 18.

education within the feminine life span so that society will not be shortchanged.<sup>7</sup>

Harbeson also contends that the challenge of the seventies has changed the working woman. She concludes that the changed picture of employment has immense importance for women's educational needs. It means that women must have not only liberal education to help them develop as whole persons, but also training in a special occupation which will provide them with a means for greater social usefulness as well as personal satisfaction throughout their greatly lengthened span of years.<sup>8</sup>

Education was also recognized as being a factor that contributes to business by McLean and Paris. A study of the women who have reached executive stature in business revealed that some have reached their goals by beginning with general training while others began with vocational training in a special skill. While there is no royal road to success, these authorities proclaim that education gained in both general and specialized training plays an important role in the career and success of women in business.<sup>9</sup>

### Age

An impressive fact is the steady rise in the employment rate for women thirty years old and over. A considerable portion of our managerial and skilled workers are now in the older age brackets, and they are reported to have the ability and work experience needed by our economy.

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<sup>7</sup> Ibid, p. 6.

<sup>8</sup> Ibid.

<sup>9</sup> Beth McLean and J. Paris, The Young Woman in Business, Iowa: The Iowa State University Press, 1972.

In a report, Wells noted that the increase in the number of mature women in the labor force at all ages after thirty-five was increasingly high. In the age group 35 to 44 years the number of women workers more than doubled between 1940 and 1968. In age groups 45 to 54 years the number more than tripled, and in the age group 55 to 64 years the number increased fourfold. Even among the oldest group of women, 65 years and over, the number of women workers has more than threefold to date.<sup>10</sup>

It was concluded by Wells that the development of a two-phase lifetime attributes to the women working after thirty-five. The average woman takes a job when first out of school, withdraws from the labor force for marriage and then returns to paid work in later years when the children are in school or on their own.<sup>11</sup>

### Race

In a report by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, it was found that most married women's decision to work is dependent upon whether there are young children in the family. It was noted that white mothers with children under six years of age are much less likely to be working than those with school-age children. For black mothers, the rate of participation was considerably higher.

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<sup>10</sup>J. A. Wells, "Women College Graduates Seven Years Later," Monthly Labor Review 90 (July, 1974), pp. 28-32.

<sup>11</sup>*Ibid.*

The usual pattern which most white women are following today is a short period in paid employment immediately following marriage, then re-entry into the labor force when their children are older or are grown and leave home. By comparison, the average black mother enters employment until retirement or she can no longer work.<sup>12</sup>

### Other Studies

The personal motives which women attribute to working outside the home are varied. The majority of working women in the low-income and lower range of the middle-income brackets are supplementing inadequate family income, helping to raise the family's standard of living, or paying for a home or their children's education. Among the better educated, there are often one or more additional reasons for working. They work to use more fully their abilities and training to spend leisure in an interesting pursuit, to be of greater social usefulness, and to receive social recognition for their attainments.

The number of mothers entering the labor force has increased. One certain effect of this is the rise in the average family income. For mothers, their employment usually makes possible a better standard of living and pays for additional advantages.

Ellman concluded that many women who do not need to work are coming (or returning) to industry after their family responsibility becomes less demanding. Since World War II, according to Ellman who reported that

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<sup>12</sup>U. S. Department of Labor Statistics, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Special Labor Force Report No. 94.

women have been getting married younger and having children sooner. The average woman today has her last child before she turns thirty. This means that her children are well advanced in school by her late thirties, and are in college or working when she is in her forties.<sup>13</sup>

The International Labor Office reported that today, one of every three married women is working; over 60% of the employed women are mothers. Of the 24 million women employed in 1962, about 8 million, or over one-third, had children under 18. Between 1955 and 1960, women with children accounted for as much of the rise in full-time employment as did men. During the 1950's, women with school-age children constituted one half of the labor force.<sup>14</sup>

McLean and Paris suggest that ambition, attitude, and education are important factors for achieving success in business. They contended that ambition will help one to continue to improve the standards of work and contribute to the success of her company. Sometimes a woman is classified as indifferent; a time-marker and clock-watcher who does not care to move out of her little niche. Then again she is classed as a ruthless, overambitious person who tries to climb to the top at the expense of her coworkers, because she considers her goal justifies any methods. A woman, therefore, who is striving for success should become aware of her ambitions as it relate to future opportunities that arise in her job surroundings.<sup>15</sup>

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<sup>13</sup>Edgar S. Ellman, Managing Women In Business, Oregon: The University of Oregon Press, 1973, pp. 73-74.

<sup>14</sup>International Labor Office, Equality of Opportunity and Treatment for Women Workers, 60th Session, Report VIII, (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1976), pp. 1-50.

<sup>15</sup>*ibid*, p. 7.

McLean and Paris also perceived attitudes as an important factor in job success. They conceived that in business, one is expected to have ideas and opinions, and to be creative. One must, however, appreciate the fact that the persons with whom she works must also have ideas and opinions. It is by a pooling of these ideas, by analysis, discussions, and revisions that the best idea develops. This becomes, then, the idea of the team.<sup>16</sup>

### The Eyde Report

Eyde reports that the breakdown of the old concept of respectability, in which the wife did not work if her husband could afford the luxury of keeping her at home, has accounted for many new inroads of employment for women. Eyde found evidence that many working women need the feeling of accomplishment which comes from earning money. In one survey, 74% of the women said they would continue to work even if they inherited enough money to meet all their needs comfortably. Married women are now permitted to work in many fields, such as teaching, where formerly, preference was given to women who were not married. In certain fields, it is probable that the married woman will perform better in her job as a result of her marital experiences and the added stability which marriage provides. The fields of teaching and social service are notable in this respect.<sup>17</sup>

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<sup>16</sup> *Ibid*, p. 7.

<sup>17</sup> Lorraine Eyde, Work Values and Background Factors as Predictors of Women's Desire to Work, Columbus: Bureau of Business Research, College of Commerce and Administration, Ohio State University, 1975.



Eyde also notes that the work patterns of women are much more complex than those of men. For single women, the pattern is strongly similar to that of men in that both groups work most of their lives. Women who begin to work before age 20 and remain unmarried work an average of 40 years; for men, the average is 43 years. Childless married women have a work expectancy of 30 years. The predominant characteristic of the work career for married women with children is that of intermittence. The typical woman starts work at age 17 or 18, quits four years later, marries and has children. With the present trend to marry and have children earlier, those women who return to work have generally been out of the labor force eight to 10 years, and can be expected to average another 23 years of work. Widowed, divorced, and separated women usually return to the labor force if they once worked. After age 30 they can be expected to remain employed about as long as single women.<sup>18</sup>

### Strong's Study

E. K. Strong pioneered a study in the vocational interests of men and women at Stanford University and points out that although men and women obtain approximately equal scores on intelligence tests, this does not mean that the character or quality of their intellectual processes is similar. Strong states that women may have the same general capacity and at the same time use this capacity in different directions. Believing that differences in interest cause different aims in life, Strong believes that despite much research and discussion, we do not know the causes of

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<sup>18</sup>ibid, p. 11.

differences in interests between men and women. Possibly, it is because boys and girls are brought up differently or they possess some different abilities-- women are apparently superior to men in linguistic abilities, and men surpass women in mathematics and mechanical activities. He also contends that the difference may be because of fundamental drives because of the difference in hormones. Strong's observations support the belief that interests of men and women are more similar than dissimilar.<sup>19</sup>

#### Woody's Study

Thomas Woody observes that there is scientific evidence in nationally administered intelligence tests and records of scholastic achievement that brains have not been distributed on the basis of sex. But now that women have, through higher education, demonstrated their mental ability, we still recognize possible differences in aptitudes for certain occupations. We are told that there are jobs for which, by and large, women seem to have an aptitude equal to that of men, some for which they have more and some less. In many instances, however, even the seeming discrepancies in aptitudes between men and women in certain fields are believed by psychologists to be caused as much by lingering social concepts concerning areas of work suitable for women as by inaptitude. Woody believes that we have assumed that certain fields are fit and others unfit for women. For many generations the belief in extreme differences between

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<sup>19</sup>E. K. Strong, Vocational Interests of Men and Women, Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1973.

masculine and feminine abilities has persisted so strongly that from early childhood boys and girls have been reared according to patterns thought socially acceptable for each sex.<sup>20</sup>

### Summary

The review of literature research indicates that girls have been forced into a much narrower groove of participation than boys. Accordingly, they have been not only hampered in experience but psychologically prepared from early childhood for only limited range of activities considered characteristically feminine. Today, however, it is taken for granted that women have a right to the doctor's degree in any field. They have shown that they are physically and mentally capable of being educated to as high a degree as men for any occupation to which they aspire.

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<sup>20</sup>Thomas Woody, History of Women's Education in the United States, New York: Macmillan Company, 1977, pp. 88-89.

## Chapter 3

### METHODS AND PROCEDURES

In this chapter the methods and procedures by which the problem was investigated are reported. This chapter, therefore, describes the sample and sampling technique, the research instrument, the data collection and treatment, and a summary.

#### Sample and Sampling Technique

Women in clerical, management, sales, and manufacturing occupations in the Houston southwest are comprised the population for the study. No list of women's names was available from which the investigator could draw a sample for each occupational level. Therefore, various women's organizations and personal contacts were made at business and industrial firms to obtain names of women at all occupational levels.

As a result of contacts made, 292 names were obtained. From this total, 146 women (50 percent) were randomly selected. A description and purpose of the study was given to each. The 146 women accepted and are the respondents which comprised the sample used in this study.

The respondents were divided into two occupational groups: management/manufacturing workers and clerical/sales/service workers.

### The Research Instrument

The Work Motivation Inventory<sup>21</sup> was modified and used to measure needs and values considered to be important by business women toward work, see Appendix A, page 24.

The inventory was composed of 10 items, each of which had two alternatives (Agree and Disagree). Each of these alternatives represents a particular need system. The respondents were instructed to relate each situation in the inventory to their own personal feelings and indicate which of the two alternatives was more characteristic. The Work Motivation Inventory was administered and scored by the investigator.

The Work Motivation Inventory was identified by four variables-- age, race, and education. These variables have been identified as familiar categories used by occupational sociologists to study job satisfaction, work mobility, and vocational development.<sup>22</sup>

### Data Collection and Treatment

Each of the 146 women selected for this study was contacted by telephone and asked to participate in the research project after the purpose of the study was given. A compilation of the responses was made according to the variables used in the instrument. The data obtained was analyzed and presented and statistically tested using the  $z$  test. Afterwards, the data were analyzed to determine significance at the .05 confidence level.

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<sup>21</sup>Atlantic Richfield Company, Employee Evaluation Form No. ARB602, Los Angeles, California, 1975.

<sup>22</sup>ibid.

### Summary

In this chapter the sample and sampling technique were discussed, the research instrument presented, and the procedures used in collecting the data were outlined. From this the chapter, the results of the data will be analyzed and findings determined. The intent of this chapter is to reveal to the reader the techniques and procedures the investigator used to produce the analysis of this data.

## THE FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

To compare the attitudes of women toward work, responses to a number of attitudinal questions from the modified Atlantic Richfield Employee Evaluation were examined. Ten items were selected and modified by the investigator. These items were used to evaluate women's attitudes toward work.

For the purpose of data analysis,  $z$  tests were calculated so that the groups could be statistically compared. The least significant difference approach was used to make the comparisons. In analyzing contrasts, an alpha level of .05 was selected. The critical value associated with this alpha level is 1.645.

The following hypotheses were formulated and statistically tested:

Hypothesis 1. When comparing attitudes toward work, the mean scores of black business women do not differ significantly from the mean scores of nonblack business women.

Of the 146 respondents, 104 were black and 42 were nonblack. Mean scores and  $z$  tests were computed for each of the 10 items related to attitudes toward work, see Table 1 page 19. When making itemized comparisons within the groups, the black business women's mean scores differed significantly toward eight items (2, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, and 10) and the nonblack business women's mean scores differed significantly toward seven items (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, and 10).

Table I

A Comparison of Itemized Means and  $\underline{z}$  Scores  
for 104 Black Business Women and 42 Nonblack  
Business Women's Attitudes Toward Work

N=146

Items	Black		Nonblack	
	Mean Scores	$\underline{z}$ Scores	Mean Scores	$\underline{z}$ Scores
1	1.30	1.43	1.13	2.64*
2	1.25	1.79*	1.00	3.57*
3	1.48	.14	1.09	2.93*
4	1.21	2.07*	1.04	3.29*
5	1.10	2.86*	1.04	3.29*
6	1.15	2.50*	1.18	2.29*
7	1.80	2.14*	1.27	1.64
8	1.04	3.29*	1.36	1.00
9	1.10	2.86*	1.55	.36
10	1.05	3.21*	1.00	3.57*

\*Significant at the .05 Confidence Level Critical Value=1.645



To determine if significant differences existed between black business women and nonblack business women, overall mean and  $\underline{z}$  scores were computed, see Table 2 below. The overall obtained  $\underline{z}$  value of 0.08 did not exceed the 1.645 critical value at the .05 confidence level, therefore, the data failed to reject Hypothesis 1.

Table 2

A Comparison of overall Mean and  $\underline{z}$  Scores of  
104 Black Business Women, and 42 Nonblack Business Women's  
Attitudes Toward Work  
N=146

Women	Mean Scores	$\underline{z}$ Scores
Black	1.25	2.23
Nonblack	1.17	2.46

Critical Value = 1.645

.05 Confidence Level

Hypothesis 2. When comparing attitudes toward work, the mean scores of women under 30 do not differ significantly from the mean scores of women over 30.

Of the 146 respondents, 10 were over 30 and 136 were under 30. Mean scores and  $\underline{z}$  tests were computed for each of the 10 items related to work attitudes, see Table 3, page 21. When making itemized comparisons

Table 3

A Comparison of Itemized Means and  $\bar{z}$  Scores  
for 136 Business Women under 30 and 10 Business Women over 30  
Attitudes Toward Work

N=146

Items	Under 30		30 and Over	
	Mean Scores	$\bar{z}$ Scores	Mean Scores	$\bar{z}$ Scores
1	1.18	2.30*	1.1	2.85*
2	1.29	1.50	1.8	2.14*
3	1.39	8.85*	1.9	2.85*
4	1.33	1.21	1.4	.71
5	1.11	2.79*	1.3	1.43
6	1.35	1.07	1.3	1.43
7	1.62	.86	1.1	2.85*
8	1.26	1.71*	1.2	2.14*
9	1.07	3.07*	1.6	.71
10	1.05	3.21*	1.0	3.57*

\*Significant at the .05 Confidence Level      Critical Value=1.645

within the groups, the business women over 30 mean scores differed significantly toward six items (1, 2, 3, 7, 8, and 10) and the business women under 30 mean scores differed significantly toward six items (1, 3, 5, 8, 9, and 10).

To determine if significant differences existed between business women over 30 and business women under 30, overall mean and  $\underline{z}$  scores were computed, see Table 4 below. The overall obtained  $\underline{z}$  of 0.01 did not exceed the 1.645 critical value at the .05 confidence level, therefore, the data failed to reject Hypothesis 2.

Table 4

A Comparison of overall Mean and  $\underline{z}$  Scores of  
10 Business Women over 30, and 136 Business Women Under 30  
Attitudes Toward Work  
N=146

Women	Mean Scores	$\underline{z}$ Scores
Over 30	1.27	2.07
Under 30	1.27	2.66

Critical Value = 1.645

.05 Confidence Level

Hypothesis 3. When comparing attitudes toward work, the mean scores of college graduates do not differ significantly from non-college graduates.

Of the 146 respondents, 80 were college graduates and 66 were noncollege graduates. Mean scores and  $\underline{z}$  tests were computed for each of the 10 items related to work attitudes, see Table 5, page 24. When making itemized comparisons within the groups, the college graduates mean scores differed significantly toward seven items (2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, and 10) and the noncollege graduates differed significantly toward six items (1, 5, 6, 8, 9, and 10).

To determine if significant differences existed between college graduates and noncollege graduates, overall mean and  $\underline{z}$  scores were computed, see Table 6, page 25. The overall obtained  $\underline{z}$  value of 0.10 did not exceed the 1.645 critical value at the .05 confidence level, therefore, the data failed to reject Hypothesis 3.

Table 5

A Comparison of Itemized Means and  $\bar{z}$  Scores  
for 80 College Graduates and 66 Noncollege Graduates

Attitudes Toward Work

N=146

Items	College Graduates		Noncollege Graduates	
	Mean Scores	$\bar{z}$ Scores	Mean Scores	$\bar{z}$ Scores
1	1.39	.79	1.23	1.93*
2	1.11	2.79*	1.40	.71
3	1.21	2.07*	1.60	.71
4	1.24	1.86*	1.48	.14
5	1.09	2.93*	1.00	3.57*
6	1.25	1.79	1.12	2.71*
7	1.24	1.86*	1.67	1.21
8	1.28	1.57	1.20	2.14*
9	1.33	1.21	1.24	1.86*
10	1.00	3.58*	1.20	2.14*

\*Significant at the .05 Confidence Level Critical Value=1.645

Table 6

A Comparison of overall Mean and  $\bar{z}$  Scores of  
80 College Graduates and 66 Noncollege Graduates

Attitudes Toward Work

N=146

Women	Mean Scores	$\bar{z}$ Scores
College Graduates	1.21	2.05
Noncollege Graduates	1.31	1.71

Critical Value = 1.645      .05 Confidence Level

Hypothesis 4. When comparing attitudes toward work, the mean scores of business women in management, clerical work, sales, services, and manufacturing do not differ significantly.

Of the 146 respondents, 108 were clerical/sales/services and 38 were management/manufacturing. Mean scores and  $\bar{z}$  tests were computed for each of the 10 items related to work attitudes, see Table 7, page 26. When making itemized comparisons within the groups, the management/manufacturing business women differed significantly toward four items (2, 8, 9, and 10) and the clerical/sales/services business women differed significantly toward seven items (1, 2, 5, 7, 8, 9, and 10).

To determine if significant differences existed between these business women, overall mean and  $\bar{z}$  scores were computed, see Table 8, page 27. The overall obtained  $\bar{z}$  value of 0.11 did not exceed the 1.645 critical value at the .05 confidence level, therefore, the data failed to reject Hypothesis 4.

Table 7

A Comparison of Itemized Means and  $\bar{z}$  Scores  
for 38 Business Women in Management/Manufacturing and  
108 Business Women in Clerical/Sales/Services  
Attitudes Toward Work

N=146

Items	Management/Manufacturing		Clerical/Sales/Services	
	Mean Scores	$\bar{z}$ Scores	Mean Scores	$\bar{z}$ Scores
1	1.34	1.15	1.21	2.08*
2	1.21	2.08*	1.08	3.02*
3	1.47	.21	1.32	1.29
4	1.42	.57	1.39	.79
5	1.28	1.58	1.27	1.65*
6	1.39	.79	1.44	.43
7	1.47	.21	1.19	2.23*
8	1.13	2.66*	1.25	1.79*
9	1.21	2.08*	1.25	1.79*
10	1.18	2.30*	1.11	2.80*

\*Significant at the .05 Confidence Level Critical Value=1.645

Table 8

A Comparison of overall Mean and  $\bar{z}$  Scores of 38 Management/Manufacturing Business Women, and 108 Clerical/Sales/Services Business Women's

Attitudes Toward Work

N=146

Women	Mean Scores	$\bar{z}$ Scores
Management/Manufacturing	1.31	1.48
Clerical/Sales/Services	1.15	1.79

Critical Value = 1.645

.05 Confidence Level



## Chapter 5

### SUMMARY

This study presented a comparison of business women's attitudes toward work. The purpose of this study was to determine and analyze attitudes of business women employed in the southwest section of Houston, Texas toward work. Four hypotheses were formulated to test business women's attitude of work by age, race, education, and occupation. This study was important to generate and contribute useful information that would aid business educators in helping business women find purpose and guidance in the world of work.

The review of literature revealed that education was considered a significant qualifying factor for women in business. It reported that there is a difference between male and female employment, but, because of the need for skilled workers, education plays an important role when making employment selections today.

The respondents in this study were 146 business women employed in the southwest section of Houston, Texas. A modified work motivation inventory was used to determine and analyze the attitudes of business women by age, race, education, and occupation. The data collected was statistically tested using the  $z$  test of significance.

The data failed to reject the following four hypotheses:

1. When comparing attitudes toward work, the mean scores of black business women do not differ significantly from the mean scores of nonblack business women.

2. When comparing attitudes toward work, the mean scores of business women under 30 do not differ significantly from the mean scores of business women 30 and over.
3. When comparing attitudes toward work, the mean scores of business women with college degrees do not differ significantly from the mean scores of business women without college degrees.
4. When comparing attitudes toward work, the mean scores of business women in management/manufacturing do not differ significantly from the mean scores of business women in clerical/sales/services.

No significant differences existed between the business women in the southwestern section of Houston when comparison were made by race, age, education, and occupation.

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## APPENDIX A

APPENDIX A

Victoria Reed  
10114 Prairie Mist  
Houston, Texas 77088

May 1, 1979

Dear Participant:

I am a graduate student at Prairie View A&M University seeking a degree in Business Education.

This instrument is part of a research requirement for obtaining my degree. Your response to this instrument will aide in my research. It is hoped to generate useful information for women in the world of business.

A self-addressed envelope is enclosed. Thank you for your help.

Sincerely,

Victoria Reed

Enclosure

## APPENDIX B

APPENDIX B

Demographic Information

Name: \_\_\_\_\_

Date of birth: \_\_\_\_\_

Present Address: \_\_\_\_\_

Education: \_\_\_\_\_

Name of Firm: \_\_\_\_\_

Position: \_\_\_\_\_

Describe job or type of work: \_\_\_\_\_

How long on present job: \_\_\_\_\_



## APPENDIX C

APPENDIX C

The Effect of Women's Attitudes

Toward Work

Items	AGREE	DISAGREE
1. I like the company I work for.		
2. I would change jobs if I had a better offer.		
3. I feel there is an opportunity for advancement.		
4. The Company I work for encourages the Advancement of women.		
5. The company exerciese the idea of equal pay for equal jobs.		
6. The attitudes of coworkers are apathetical.		
7. My job does not interfere with my home life.		
8. I would still continue my career even if I did not need the Money.		
9. My family supports my desire to work.		
10. Working is a great experience both socially and economically.		